# AUTOMATIC ASSEMBLY OF INTERLOCKING BUILDING CUBES BY USING VISUAL SERVOING APPROACH 

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#### Abstract

Most of the robotic arms are set up for operation by the teach-and-repeat (T\&R) technique, also known as coordinate-based control, using pre-recorded coordination values to generate robotic arm trajectories. This technique is inefficient because it requires teaching a robotic arm every single coordinate point to complete an operation. It is a manual, tedious and time-consuming task. Moreover, this task needs to be repeated if there are slight changes in the operation. This paper studied the visual servoing approach to replace the $T \& R$ technique in assembling different interlocking building cubes (IBC) combinations. The proposed method uses an image-based visual servo (IBVS) with a dynamic look-and-move system, and the eye-to-hand system, which requires computing the incremental joint angles of the robotic arm, a novel kinematic formula with a combination of Trigonometry formulas has been proposed in this paper. The experimental results show the feasibility of using a visual servoing approach to complete the assembly tasks without relying on the T\&R technique and achieved an average success rate of $\mathbf{9 0 \%}$ and an average of $\mathbf{4 0 . 2}$ seconds for task duration. Thus, this eliminates the tedious and time-consuming tasks of teaching the coordinate points to the robotic arms. Further improvement on the servo motor, camera and computer processor can be done to increase the accuracy, computation time and task duration in future.


Keywords: Robotic Arms; Kinematics Formulas; Automatic Assembly; Visual Servoing

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## Introduction

Robotic arms have been widely used in various industries to perform repetitive tasks such as pick and place, assembling, welding, spray painting, and cutting. These repetitive tasks are programmed through a handheld unit teach pendant using the teach-and-repeat (T\&R) technique, also known as coordinate- based control (Gao et al., 2014).

Operators use the tech pendant to move the robotic arm to the desired coordinate point and record it by repeating this process from one point to another until all coordinate points are recorded in the memory. The recorded coordinate points are replayed repeatedly to generate the robotic arm's trajectory path for repetitive tasks. Most robotic arm manufacturers, such as Kuka, Honda, ABB, Epson, Omron, Fanuc, etc., still use the T\&R technique, albeit the limitations, e.g., inflexibility and poor efficiency (Ogawa and Kanada, 2010; Smith et al., 2012). The setup of the T\&R technique is a manual, tedious, and time-consuming task because it requires a lot of time to manually control the robotic arm using the teach pendant, with multiple trails and tests to ensure the correct coordinate points are recorded for the repetitive tasks. Furthermore, a well-trained operator must use the teach pendant to control and manipulate a six-degree-of-freedom robotic arm. This incurs a cost to train a skillful operator. Moreover, this technique is inflexible and cannot perform in a dynamic environment. If there are any changes in the operation, the teaching process (rerecording all the coordinate points) of the T\&R technique must be redone.

The visual servoing approach is proposed to overcome this problem. There are two main groups of visual servoing approach: position-based visual servo (PBVS) and image-based visual servo (IBVS) (Malis et al., 1998; Chaumette and Hutchinson, 2006; Hafez et al., 2008; Kazemi et al., 2009; Palmieri et al., 2012; Sun et al., 2018). PBVS uses vision data to detect the pixel coordinate of a target object and convert it into the Cartesian space coordinate location of the robotic arm. For instance, the pixel-X and -Y values of the target object in the image are transformed into the Cartesian space coordinate location in X - and Y -axis values (coordinate point). This requires solving the kinematics problem to map the Cartesian frame of the camera to the Cartesian frame of the robotic arm using transformation operations, which involves the matrix's combination of translation and rotation operations. PBVS is sensitive to calibration and modelling errors. If mapping the Cartesian frames between the camera and the robotic arm is misconfigured, it could affect the overall performance of PBVS in terms of accuracy.

On the other hand, IBVS uses image features, i.e., the characteristic information observed by the camera that can directly give feedback to the controller to find the movement transformation between the end-effector of the robotic arm and the coordinate of the target object (Kazemi et al., 2010). As a result, IBVS is less sensitive to calibration and modelling errors. However, it has a global convergence problem; it is unable to converge the entire working space of the robotic arm. Furthermore, the absence of direct control between the camera and robotic arm motion induced by the IBVS control law causes infeasible manoeuvres simply due to the joint limit of the robotic arm (Kazemi et al.,2010; Sun et al.,2018).

The control type of visual servo systems can be classified into dynamic look-and-move systems or direct visual servo systems (Hutchinson et al., 1996; Palmieri et al., 2012). The former uses the vision system as an outer control feedback loop to stabilize the system and the servo system as an inner control feedback loop to control the robot's movement. The latter uses the vision system directly in the only control loop to compute the robotic arm's movement and stabilize it simultaneously. Most application systems belong to the dynamic look-and-move systems because of the variance loop rate between vision and servo systems.

The camera setup can also be classified based on their mounting positions, such as the eye-in-hand and eye-to-hand systems (Flandin et al., 2000; Kelly et al., 2000; Kulpate et al., 2005; Sun et al., 2018;). In the former, the camera is mounted on the wrist of the robot to observe the target object only. In the latter, the camera is mounted in a fixed position in the working space of the robotic arm. Thus, the camera can observe the target object and the endeffector of the robotic arm. The former has a higher computational consumption than the latter because the Cartesian frame of the camera varies over time during computation for each loop rate. The former may have inconsistent camera lighting issues because the view changes over time. In contrast, the latter does not have this problem because the camera is in a fixed position with consistent lighting.

This study examines the visual servoing to replace the $\mathrm{T} \& \mathrm{R}$ technique in assembling different combinations of Interlocking Building Cubes (IBC), also known as Lego bricks. The proposed solution uses a combination of IBVS, a dynamic look-and-move system, and the eye-to-hand system. Section 2 discusses the justification for using this combination.

## Methodology

The experimental setup for assembling different IBC combinations involves four degrees of freedom (DOF) robotic arm with a cube space coverage of $30 \mathrm{~cm} \times 30 \mathrm{~cm} \times 30 \mathrm{~cm}$ dimension, two webcams with $640 \times 480$ pixels, a microcontroller Arduino Uno with servo motor controller shield, and a laptop to run image processing library OpenCV in Python programming language. Webcam 1 is mounted side by side at the robotic arm to observe the front view of the robotic arm's working space. Webcam 2 is mounted on top of the working space, as shown in Figure 1.


Figure 1. Experimental setup

Figure 2 shows the logic flow of the proposed method, consisting of three major steps. First, webcam 1 captures a random combination of IBCs and sends the image to the part attachment analysis (PAA) to understand the part attachment relationship between each IBC. The part attachment relationship is stored as a mapping matrix for further action. Second, the rebuild sequence analysis and action (RSAA) uses the mapping matrix to plan the movement sequence of the robotic arm to rebuild the combination of IBC. Lastly, the visual servoing function combines IBVS, dynamic look-and-move system, and eye-to-hand system, which performs the pick-and-plan tasks according to the movement sequence planned by RSAA. The details of each step are discussed in the following sub-sections. Figure 3 summarises the step-by-step procedure of how the project is carried out.

## Part Attachment Analysis (PAA)

This function analyses the part attachment relationship between each IBC. The information extracted from the IBC combination includes
colours, size, and the relative position of the IBC. As such, PAA is designed based on the grid-based analysis approach that extracts the necessary information of each IBC into a tracking code and stores it in a grid-based format. The first step of PAA is to detect the colour and contour of IBC in pixel coordination. The second step is calculating the length of the IBC. Lastly, colour and length information is converted into a tracking code and stored in the grid-based format.


Figure 2. Proposed method


Figure 3. Summary of the steps

## Rebuild Sequence Analysis and Action (RSAA)

This function rebuilds the IBC combination based on the tracking codes provided by the PAA function. Figure 4 shows the steps in RSAA. The rebuild action starts from the bottom row and most right-hand side of the IBC that is stored in the gridbased tracking code to perform the pick-and-place task and then proceed to the left for the next IBC until the first row is completed. Subsequently, it incrementally increases the row number, for example, moving to the second row from the bottom row and rebuilding from the most right to the left side until the second row is completed. This process continues until all the rows are covered, rebuilding the IBC combination.

## Visual Servoing with IBVS, dynamic look-andmove system, and the eye-to-hand system

Visual servoing is applied in the pick-andplace task in the RSAA. This paper uses IBVS and the dynamic look-and-move system because of the ease of implementation in the continuous control process. Likewise, the eye-to-hand system is adopted to minimize computation consumption because it does not involve complex mathematical solving processes like solving inverse kinematics calculations (Mahanta et al., 2019). In addition, this paper aims to develop a low-cost solution for the automatic assembly of IBCs. Therefore, IBVS, the dynamic look-and-move system, and the eye-tohand system are compatible with this objective.

Webcam 2 observes the top view of the working space to detect the position of the target objects (IBCs) and the end-effector of the robotic arm, which is mounted with a red LED light (see Figure 5), allowing the position detection of the endeffector of the robotic arm. The top view image
indicates the relative positions between the target IBC and the end-effector of the robotic arm. The zero point $(\mathrm{Px}=0, \mathrm{Py}=0)$ is at the top right corner. The relative positions can be derived into four movement directions, as shown in Table 1. For instance, the LED light is located at $(\mathrm{Px}=50, \mathrm{Py}=50)$ and the target IBC at $(\mathrm{Px}=250, \mathrm{Py}=250)$, as shown in Figure 6. The outputs of the pixel calculations for pixel-X and pixel-Y are negative signs, meaning that the movement directions are to the left and backward for the robotic arm to get the target IBC. The way the dynamic look-and-move system is implemented in this study, the movement directions are broken down into incremental steps. Each increment makes the robotic arm one step closer to the target IBC until it reaches the destination.

Table 1. Derivation of the movement directions from the relative positions

| Relative Positions | Pixel Sign | Movement direction |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| The target IBC on the right-hand side of the end-effector of the robotic arm | $\begin{aligned} & \text { LED's Px }- \\ & \text { IBC's Px = +ve } \end{aligned}$ | Move to right |
| The target IBC on the left-hand side of the end-effector of the robotic arm | $\begin{aligned} & \text { LED's Px - } \\ & \text { IBC's Px = -ve } \end{aligned}$ | Move to left |
| The target IBC is in front of the endeffector of the robotic arm | $\begin{aligned} & \text { LED's Py - } \\ & \text { IBC's Py = +ve } \end{aligned}$ | Move forward |
| The target IBC is behind of the endeffector of the robotic arm | $\begin{aligned} & \text { LED's Py - } \\ & \text { IBC's Py = -ve } \end{aligned}$ | Move backward |



Figure 4. Rebuild Sequence Analysis and Action (RSAA)


Figure 5. The top view of the working space

Once the incremental movement steps are obtained from the top-view images, these movement directions are converted into the servo motors' rotation angle - the robotic arm's joint angles - for controlling the robotic arm. The system uses IBVS and a dynamic look-and-move system that requires computing the absolute angles for left and right movement and incremental joint angles of the robotic arm for forward and backward movement. Therefore, this study proposes a novel kinematic formula with a combination of Trigonometry formulas. The well-known inverse kinematics (i.e., Denavit - Hartenberg parameters) are not used because they are meant to compute the absolute joint angles of the robotic arm, which are more suitable for PBVS (Ghaniwala et al., 2021).

Figure 7 shows an IBC located on the left-hand side and in front of the end effector of the robotic arm. The top view indicates that the end effector of the robotic arm (M4) needs to move incrementally to the left and forward to reach the target IBC. The absolute left movement can be achieved by adding the absolute rotation angle of servo motor M1 from $\theta_{\mathrm{m} 1}$ to $\theta_{\mathrm{t}}$ (Tee et al., 2013). Likewise, the incremental forward movement can be achieved by adding an incremental extension from $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{b}}$ to $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{t}}$.

Extending $L_{b}$ involves three variables: rotation angles of servo motors M2, M3, and M4. These variables are determined by the height position (Zaxis) of the target IBC, which can be solved using the trigonometry approach under two sets of conditions. The first condition specifies that the lower range trigonometry calculation (LRTC), i.e., the target Z-axis of the end effector of the robotic arm, must be equal to or lower than the height position of servo motor M2. The second condition specifies that the higher range trigonometry calculation (HRTC), i.e., the target Z-axis of the end effector of the robotic arm, must be higher than the height position of the servo motor M2. The reason for these conditions is that when the end effector of the robotic arm moves into another quadrant range of the designed formula, another trigonometry formula has to be redesigned based on the condition. The target Z-axis of IBC is determined from webcam 1, which can determine which condition to use for calculating $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{b}}$.


Figure 6. The movement of the end effector based on the relative positions


Move Backward $\rightarrow \mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{b}}--$


Figure 7. The illustration of the incremental movement step

## Lower Range Trigonometry Calculation (LRTC)

Figure 8(a) shows the side view of the robotic arm that complies with the first condition. Figure 8 (b) shows that by changing the side view of the robotic arm into a geometric view to ease the calculation, $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{a}}$ can be obtained using Equation 1, according to Figure 8 (a). On the other hand, $\theta_{4}$ can be obtained using Equation 2 based on Figure 8(b). Triangle 1 of Figure 8 (b) shows that it is an obtuse scalene triangle that connects with three sides; two sides of triangle 1 are the linkage of the robotic arm $L_{2}$ and $L_{3}$, which are constant. The remaining side is $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{a}}$, which determines the angle $\theta_{3}$ using the Pythagorean Theorem as shown in Equation 3. $\theta_{3}$ can be used to calculate $\theta_{1}$ by substituting it in Equation 4.
$L_{a}=\sqrt{\left(\left(L_{1}-L_{4}-z\right)^{2}+\left(L_{b}\right)^{2}\right)}$
$\theta_{4}=\sin ^{-1}\left(\frac{L_{b}}{L_{a}}\right)$
$\theta_{3}=\cos ^{-1} \frac{\left(L_{3}\right)^{2}+\left(L_{2}\right)^{2}-\left(L_{a}\right)^{2}}{2\left(L_{3}\right)\left(L_{2}\right)}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta_{1}=\sin ^{-1}\left(\frac{L_{3}}{L_{a}} \sin \theta_{3}\right) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

A simplified geometry derived from Figure 8(b) is drawn to find $\theta_{6}$, as shown in Figure 9. The trigonometry rule states that if line 1 and line 2 are parallel and another line intersects them, the angles $\theta_{6}$ and $\theta_{a}$ are the same. Therefore, since $\theta_{1}$ has been obtained from Equation 4, Equation 5 can be used to find $\theta_{6}$.
$\theta_{6}=\theta_{a}=\theta_{1}+90$


Figure 8. Lower Range Trigonometry Calculation (LRTC)


Figure 9. A simplified geometry dimension to find $\theta_{6}$

With the derivations of these equations, the angles of servo motors M2, M3, and M4 can be determined using Equation 6. The angle of servo motor M2 is the sum of $\theta_{4}$ and $\theta_{1} . \theta_{3}$ is equal to $\theta_{m 3}$. Notably, when performing the pick-and-place process, the end effector of the robotic arm must face downward. Therefore, a $90^{\circ}$ must be added to $\theta_{6}$ to find $\theta_{\mathrm{m} 4}$.

## Higher Range Trigonometry Calculation (HRTC)

The Z-axis of the end effector of the robotic arm is higher than the height position of servo motor M2 (linkage length. $L_{1}$ ), as shown in Figure 10(a). Figure 10(b) shows the side view conversion of the robotic arm into a geometric view to ease calculation. $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{a}}$ can be obtained using Equation 7, according to Figure 10(a), whereas $\theta_{4}$ can be obtained using Equations 8 and 9, based on Figure 10(b). Using the same method as LRTC, both $\theta_{1}$ and $\theta_{3}$ can be computed using Equations 3 and 4, respectively. Lastly, the angles of servo motors M2, M3, and M4 can also be found using the same equation of LRTC, i.e., Equation 6.
$\theta_{m 2}=\theta_{4}+\theta_{1}$
$\theta_{m 3}=\theta_{3}$
$\theta_{m 4}=\theta_{6}+90$
$L_{a}=\sqrt{\left(\left(z-L_{1}\right)^{2}+\left(L_{b}\right)^{2}\right)}$
$\theta_{4}=\tan ^{-1}\left(\frac{L_{c}}{L_{b}}\right)$
$L_{c}=z-L_{1}$

## Results and Analysis

Figure 11 shows the workflow of assembling IBSc using IBVS, dynamic look-and-move system, and eye-to-hand system. Figures 11(a)-(c) show the outcome of PAA. Figures 11(d)-(f) show the RSAA process. Lastly, Figure 11(e) shows the visual seroving process with IBVS, dynamic look-andmove system, and the eye-to-hand system.


Figure 10. Higher Range Trigonometry Calculation (HRTC)

In the experiment step, the definition of the IBC accuracy placed from one to another is shown in Figure 12. If one IBC is successfully placed on top of another IBC, it is considered $100 \%$. On the other hand, if the IBC is partially placed on top of another, it is defined as $50 \%$ and $25 \%$, respectively, according to Figure 12.

(a)

(c)

(e)

(b)

(d)

(f)

Figure 11. The workflow of assembling IBSc using IBVS, dynamic look-and-move system, and the eye-to-hand system

Figure 13 shows that the experiment built the combination of IBCs. There were four steps to build the IBC combination. The accuracy and duration were recorded at each step of the IBC placing. The IBCs were randomly placed for each trial to prove their flexibility and robustness (Table 2).

The experimental results show that the system is $90 \%$ accurate in placing an IBC on top of another IBC. It also has an average of 40.2 seconds to pick
and place an IBC on top of another. Given that the average accuracy of IBC placement experienced less than $85 \%$ fail and at least $85 \%$ success, the experiment shows a total success rate of $80 \%$, with four successes out of five trials.


Figure 12. Define the accuracy of IBC placing from one to another


Figure 13. A sample of the IBC combination

Table 2 The time duration and accuracy for the placing of each IBC

| Trial | Seq. | Duration <br> $(\mathbf{s})$ | Accuracy <br> $(\%)$ | Avg. <br> Accuracy <br> $(\%)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1 | 29 | 100 |  |
| 1 | 2 | 27 | 75 | 93.75 |
|  | 3 | 27 | 100 |  |
|  | 4 | 80 | 100 |  |
|  | 1 | 32 | 100 |  |
| 2 | 2 | 40 | 50 | 87.50 |
|  | 3 | 36 | 100 |  |
|  | 4 | 37 | 100 |  |
| 3 | 1 | 32 | 100 |  |
|  | 2 | 80 | 100 | 93.75 |
|  | 3 | 38 | 100 |  |
|  | 4 | 36 | 75 |  |
| 4 | 1 | 29 | 100 |  |
|  | 3 | 28 | 100 | 93.75 |
|  | 4 | 100 | 100 |  |
| 5 | 1 | 26 | 75 |  |
|  | 2 | 28 | 100 |  |
|  | 3 | 34 | 100 | 81.25 |
|  | 4 | 36 | 75 |  |
|  | Total | 29 | 50 |  |
|  | Average | 40.2 | 90 |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |

## Conclusion

In conclusion, this study examined the visual servoing approach to replace the $T \& R$ technique in assembling different IBC combinations. The proposed method uses IBVS with dynamic look-and-move and eye-to-hand systems. Thus, a novel kinematic formula with a combination of Trigonometry formulas has been proposed to calculate the incremental joint angles of the robotic arm. The experimental results show the feasibility of using the visual servoing approach to complete the assembly tasks without relying on the T\&R technique.

The proposed method achieved an average success rate of $90 \%$ and an average task completion of 40.2 seconds. Thus, this eliminates the tedious and time-consuming tasks of teaching the coordinate points to the robotic arms. However, the current system has performance constraints with the camera resolution and high error resolution of the servo motors, contributing to the failure rates. For future work, better specifications of servo motors, high-resolution cameras, and computer processors are proposed to improve accuracy, computation time, and time duration for task completion performance.

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