

An Introduction to Mobile Robotics

Who am I.

Steve Goldberg

15 years programming robots for NASA/JPL

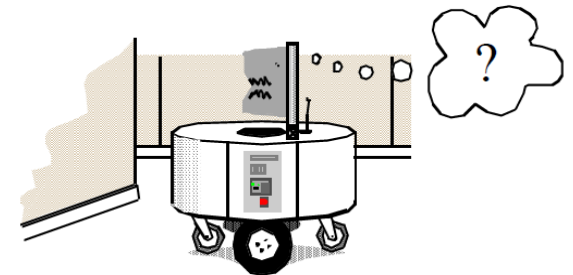
Worked on MSL, MER, BigDog and Crusher

Expert in stereo vision and autonomous navigation

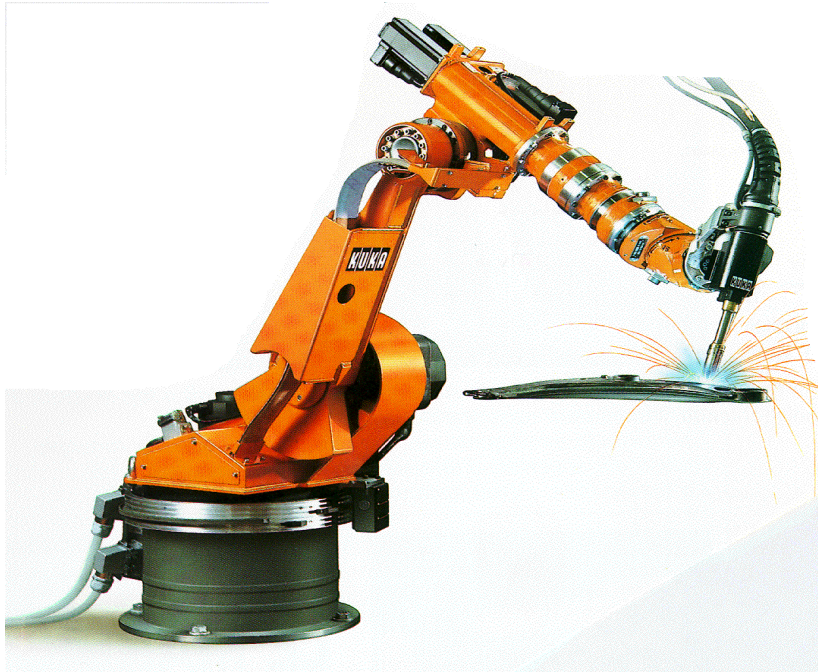
Currently Telecommuting for NASA/JPL and
SpaceX

An Introduction to Mobile Robotics

- Mobile robotics cover robots that roll, walk, fly or swim.
- Mobile robots need to answer three fundamental questions
 - Where am I
 - Where am I going
 - How do I get there
- To answer these questions the robot must first
 - Make measurements
 - Model the environment
 - Localize it self
 - Plan a path to its goal



Manipulators and Mobile Robots



Typical Manipulators

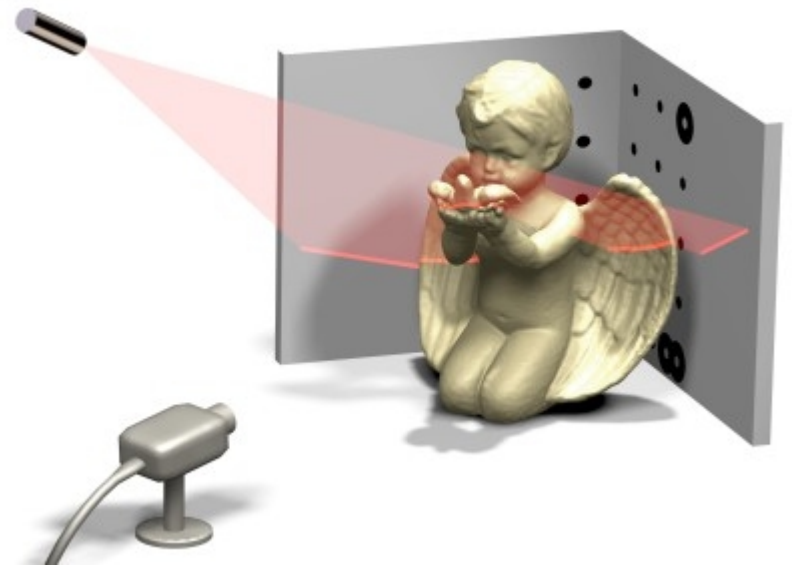
- Operate in a constrained workspace
- Have absolute measurements of position
- May or may not need to perceive the world around them.



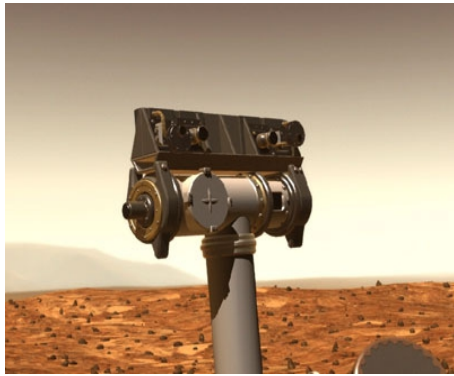
Typical Mobile Robots

- Can operate in unconstrained environments
- Need external sensing to determine position
- Need external sensing to avoid obstacles

Sensing



Sensing



- Any information a robot collects about it self or its environment requires sensing.
- Robots that want to learn, map and/or navigate need to collect information about their surroundings.
- All sensors have some degree of uncertainty
- Uncertainty can be reduced by multiple measurements.

Sensing 1

- Two things to sense
 - Its own state (Proprioceptive)
 - Motor speed, battery voltage, joint angles, etc
 - The world (Exteroceptive)
 - Everything and anything about the world around it self
- Two types of sensors
 - Active
 - Project energy out to measure it's return
 - Passive
 - Sense the natural energy around it self

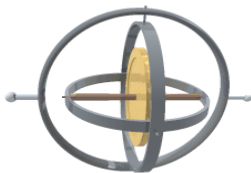
Sensing 2

Passive Proprioceptive

- Thermometer
- Potentiometers
- Accelerometer

Active Proprioceptive

- Optical Encoder
- Gyroscopes



Passive Exteroceptive

- Cameras
- Contact sensors
- Compass



Active Exteroceptive

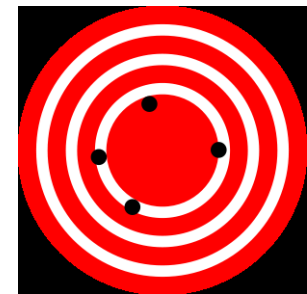
- Sonar
- Lasers
- GPS



Sensing 3

Sensing Terms

- Dynamic range
 - Upper and lower limits of a sensors input values
- Error
 - Difference between measured and true values
- Accuracy
 - Ability to produce measurements zero mean error
- Precision
 - Ability to reproduce a measurement when presented with the same input.



Sensing 4

- Types of Error
 - Systematic
 - Errors introduced by poor modeling of the sensor
 - Random Error
 - Non-deterministic behaviors
- Sources of Error
 - Environment
 - Low light, glossy surfaces
 - Calibration
 - Principally noisy methodologies

Sensing 5

Improving Measurements

- Improve calibration
 - Reduces systematic errors
- Combining multiple measurements
 - Reduces effect of random errors
 - Multiple measurements from single sensor
 - Multiple measurements from different sensors
- Not all sensors just sense one thing

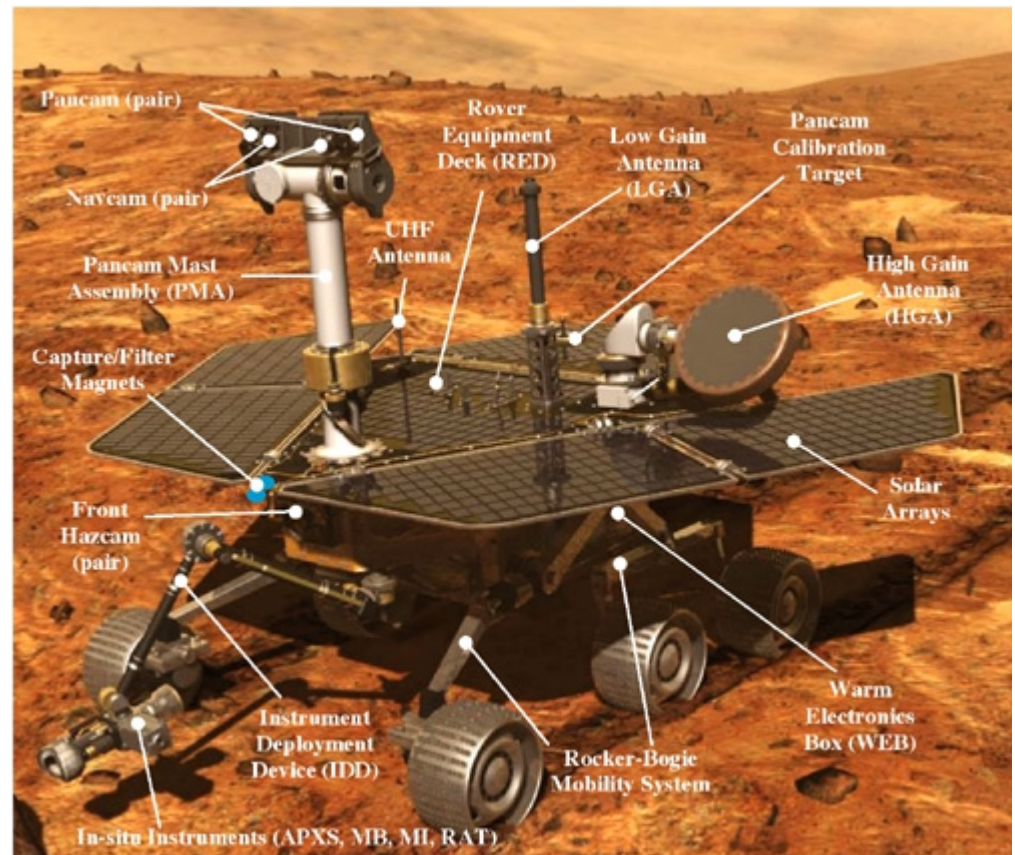
Sensing 6

- Multiple measurements from the same sensor
 - Requires time, latency
 - Introduces smoothing
 - Has little effect on systematic errors
- Multiple measurements from different sensors
 - Can be done simultaneously
 - Can reduce the effect of systematic errors
 - Requires more sensors

Sensing 7

Sensing on Mars Exploration Rovers

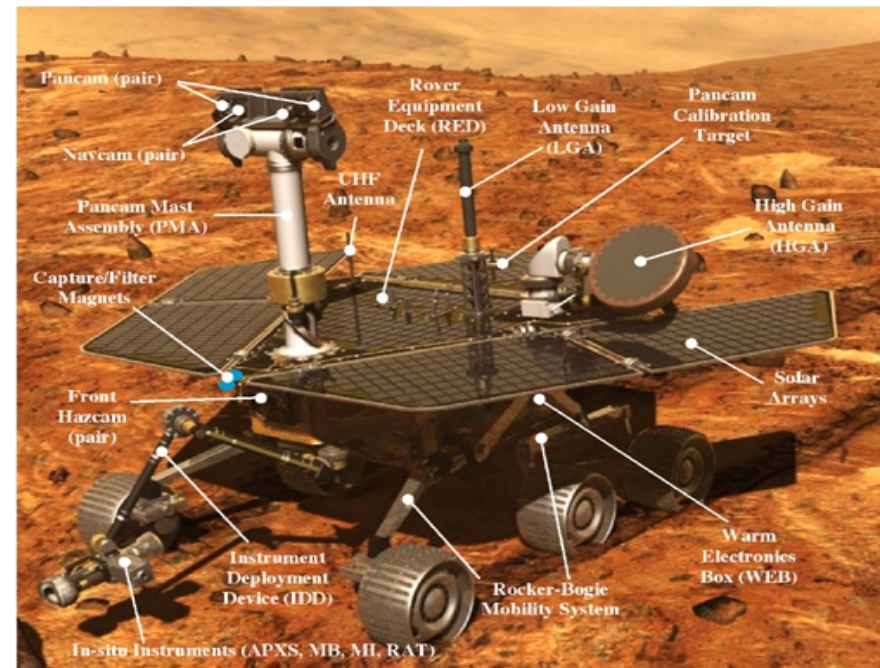
- Proprioceptive - thermometers, voltmeters, encoders
 - Useful in maintaining overall health of the vehicle
 - Keep robot from freezing to death
 - Keeps batteries charged
- Exteroceptive – cameras, spectrometers
 - Used to plan around and avoid obstacles
 - Perform scientific measurements



Sensing 8

How MER perceives its environment.

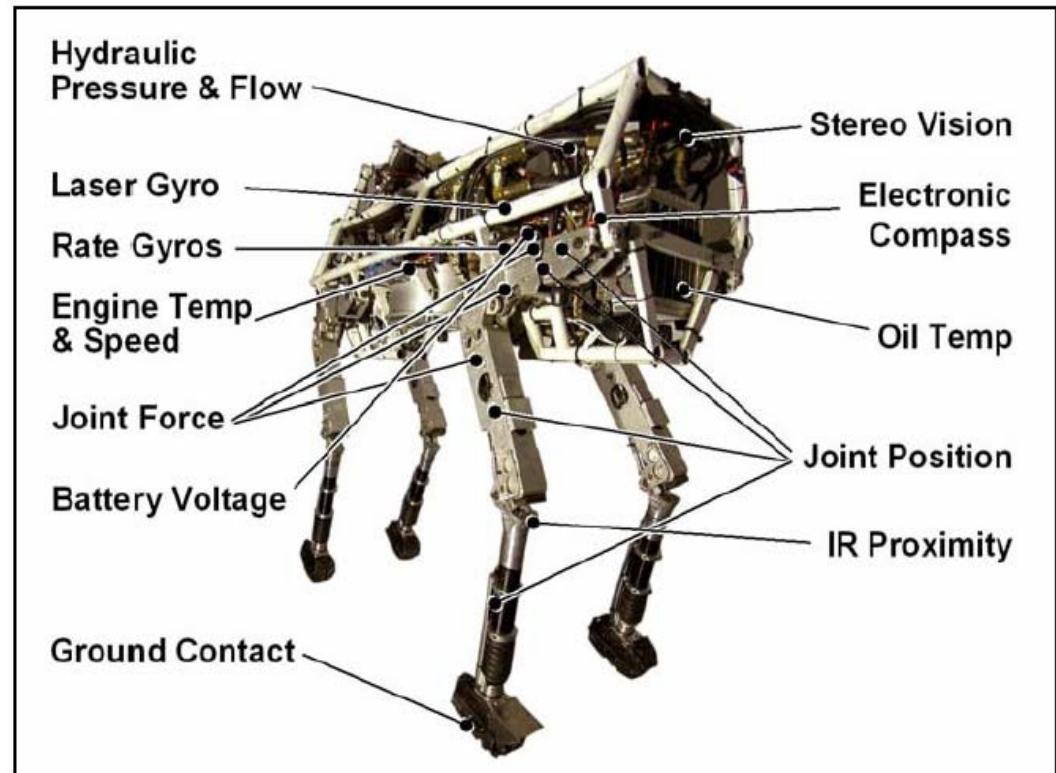
- Encoders
 - Measure wheel positions
 - Susceptible to slip in sandy soil
- Visual odometry
 - Uses stereo images to estimate vehicle motion
 - Fails to track in smooth flat areas
 - Combined with wheel odometry produce estimate of vehicle motion
- Stereo cameras
 - Determine distance to each pixel in the image
 - Build map of local area



Sensing 9

How BigDog perceives its environment

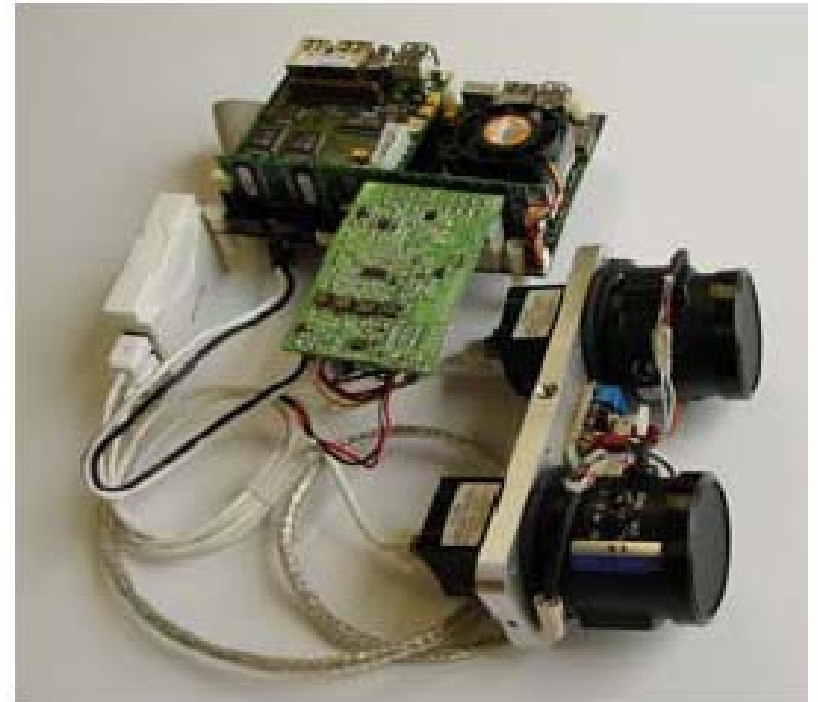
- Encoders measure joint positions
- Contact sensors
- Gyros measure body attitude
- GPS measures global position
- Stereo Vision measures odometry



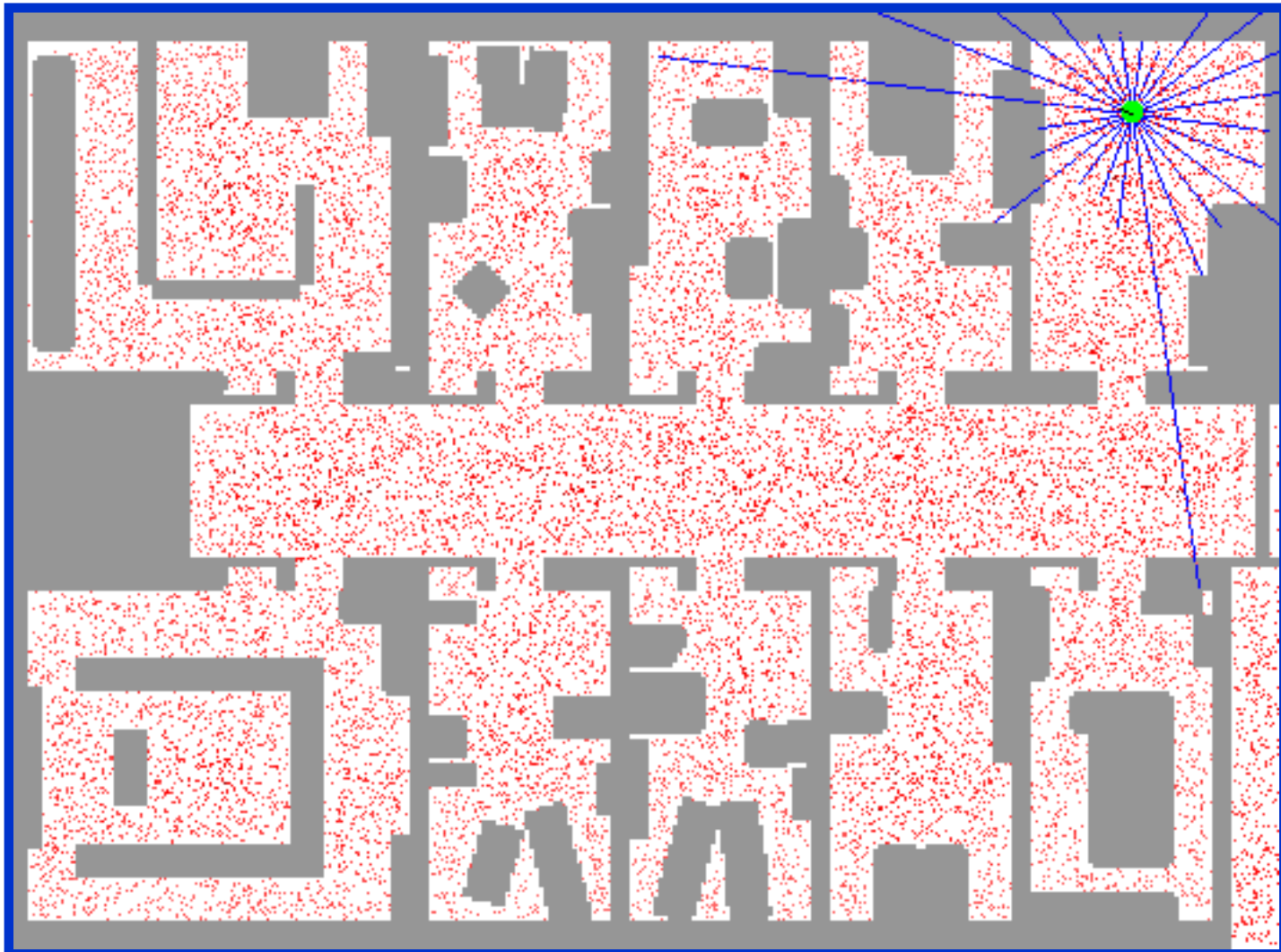
Sensing 10

BigDog Stereo Vision System 2005

- Pentium M
- Two Point Grey 1394 cameras
- Auto Iris lenses
- Computes 320x240 stereo depth maps at 30hz
- Computes visual odometry estimates at 30hz

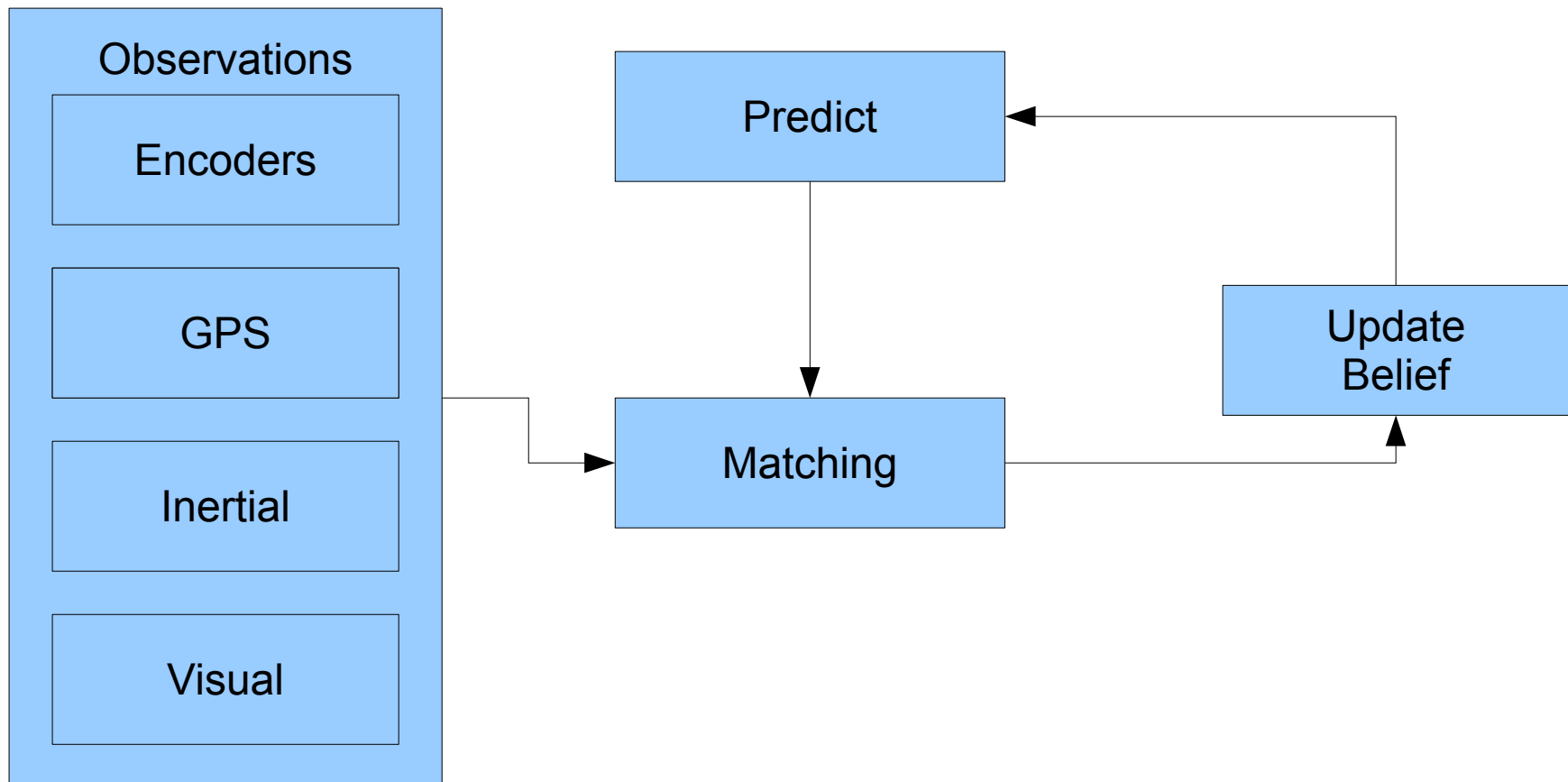


Localization



Localization

Determine the robots state in a state space



Localization 1

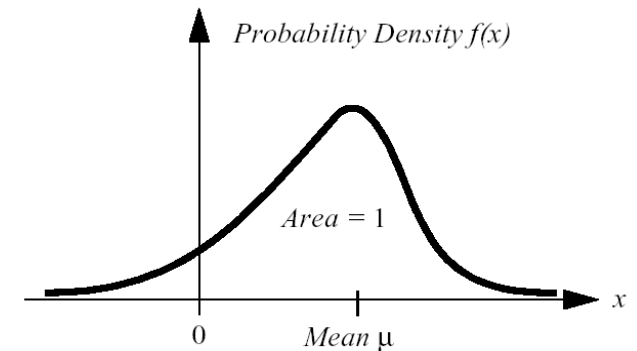
Dead reckoning

- Using only proprioceptive to determine location
 - Relative to initial conditions
 - Prone to drift and slip
 - Unbounded error growth
 - Easy
- Result: Over time, robot belief does not match reality.

Localization 2

Sensor Fusion

- Combining measurements from different sensors to reduce overall error
 - Using probability theory, multiple error models combine to produce better measurements
 - Any additional information, with properly modeled error, will only improve the measurement



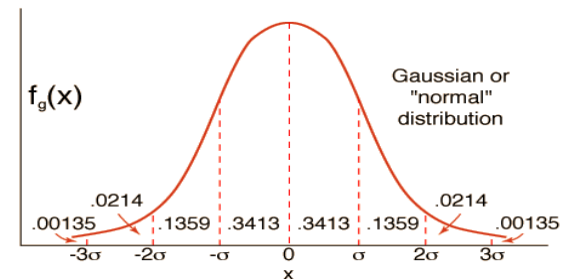
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$$

Localization 3

Kalman filtering

- Assumes zero mean error
- Uses Gaussian PDF
- Require an initial estimate of state
- Depended on linear systems
- Fast

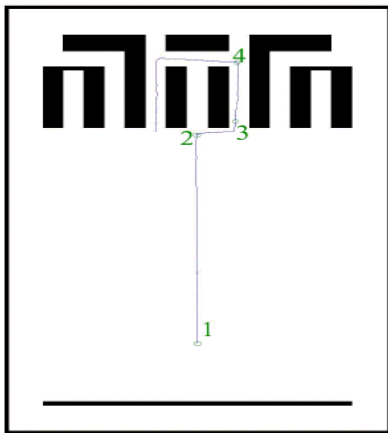
$$\mu = 0 \text{ and } \sigma = 1$$



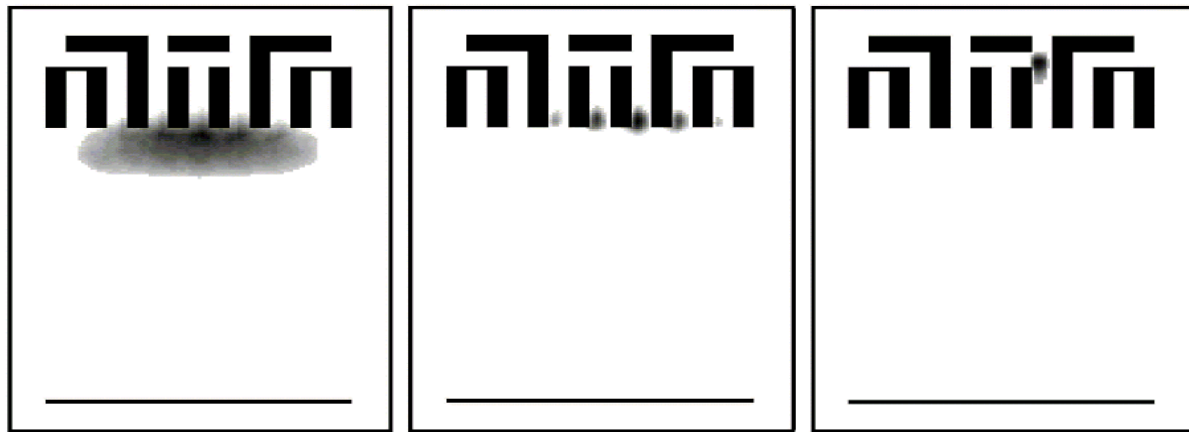
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

Localization 4

- Bayesian methods
 - Can model non-linear systems
 - Do not assume Gaussian PDF
 - Can produce likely solutions without initial estimate of state
 - Multiple belief system
 - Slower

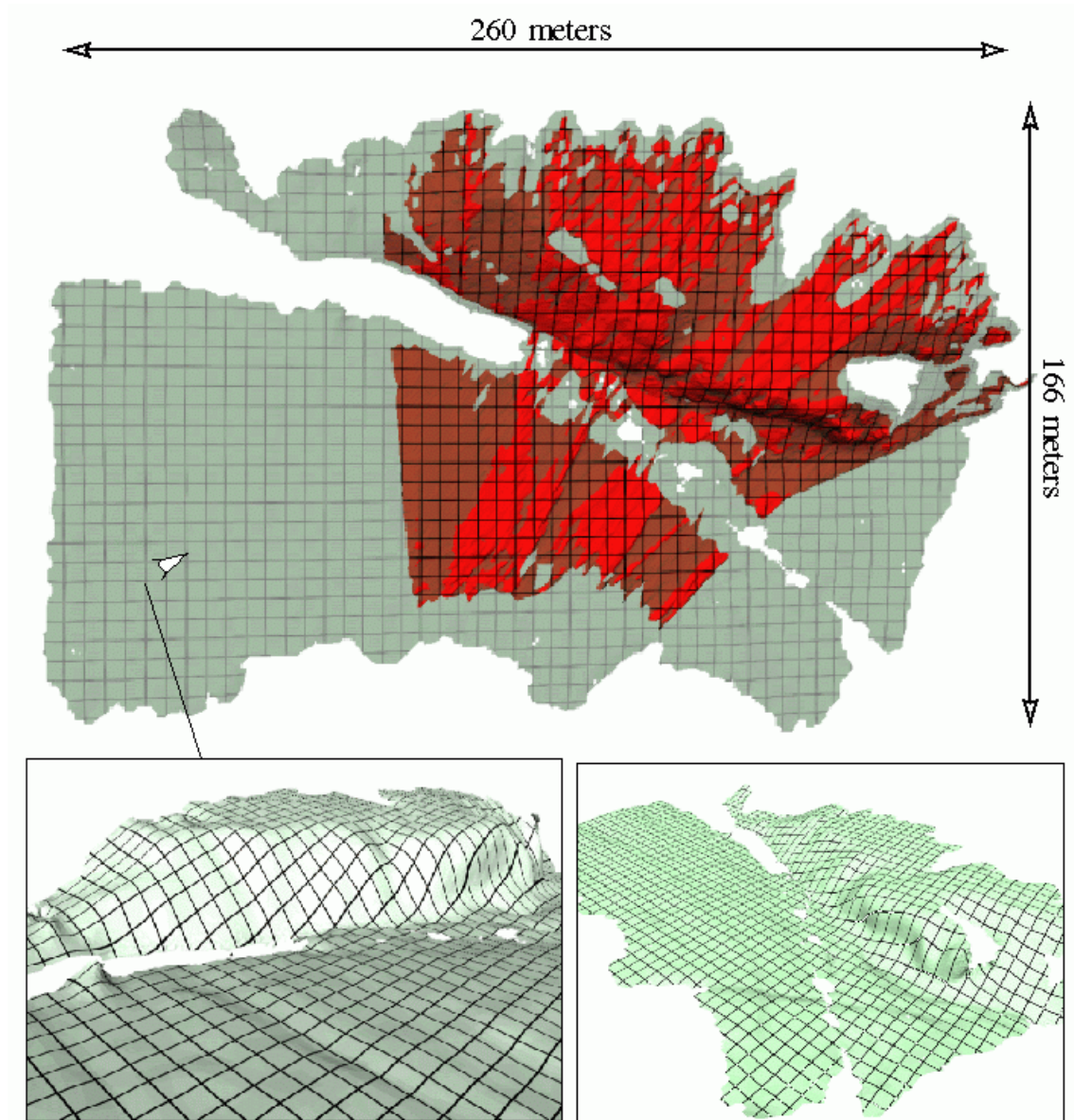


Path of the robot



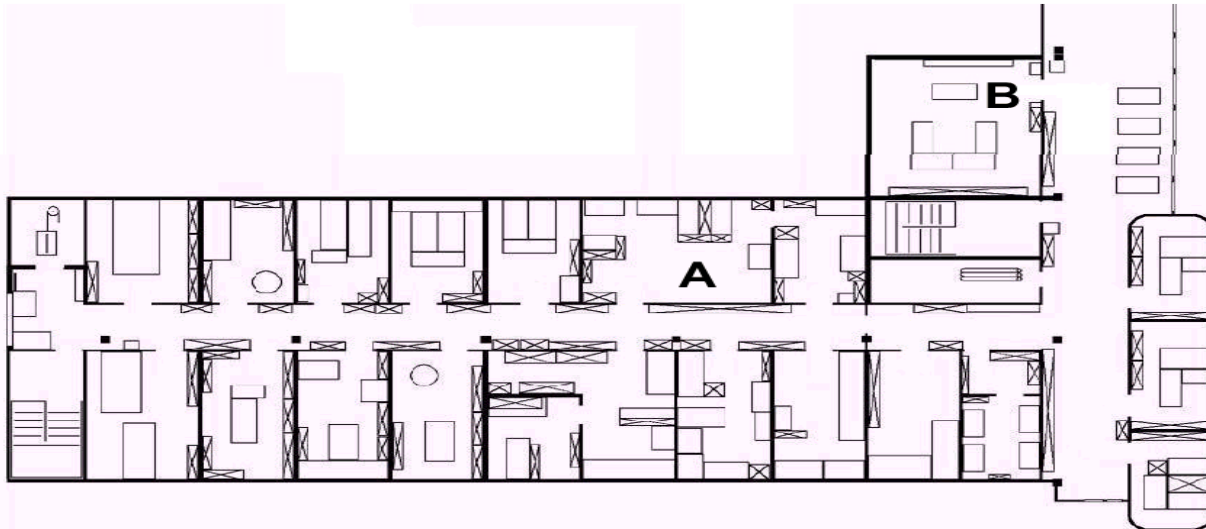
Belief states at positions 2, 3 and 4

Mapping



Mapping

- Maps are required to help a robot get from point A to B.
- Map representations can be continuous or discrete
- Maps can be built a priori and/or dynamically



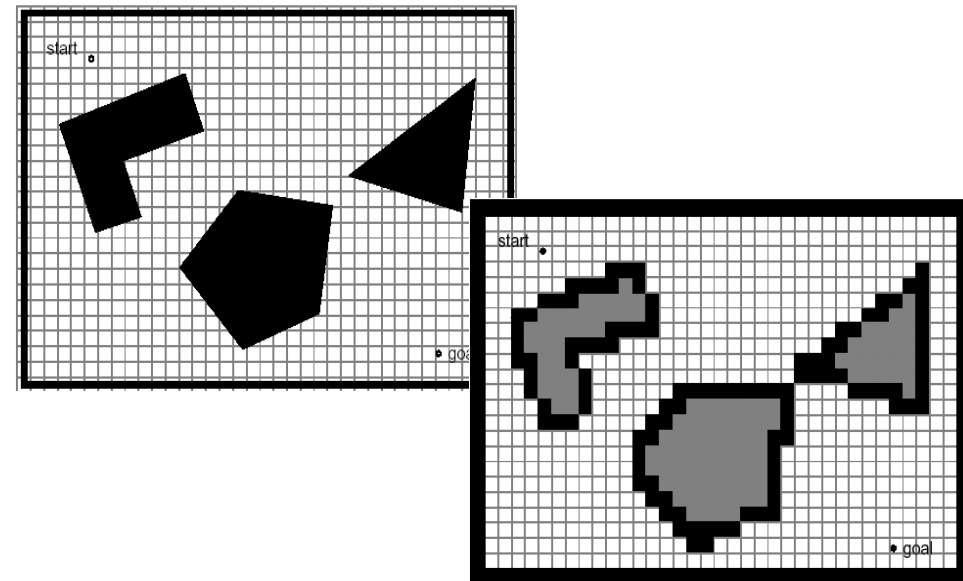
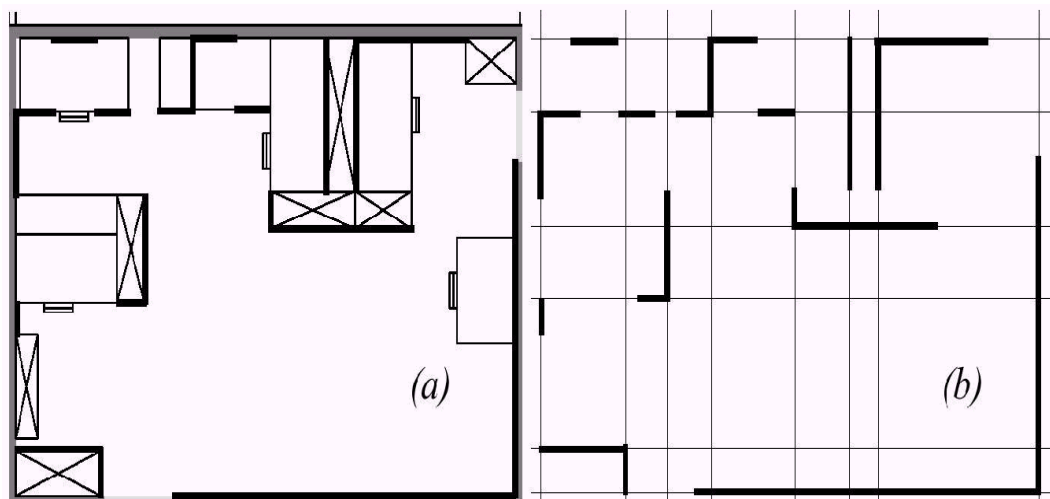
Mapping 1

- Continuous Representations

- Maps made from line segments
- Matching requires good line segmentation
 - Not useful in cluttered environments
- Computationally expensive
- Good data compression
- Not useful outdoors

- Discrete Representations

- Either fixed cell or adaptive cell size
- Suffers from aliasing, insufficient resolution
 - Can narrow passages
- Computationally more efficient
- Usually large memory footprint



Mapping 2

Just A Priori maps

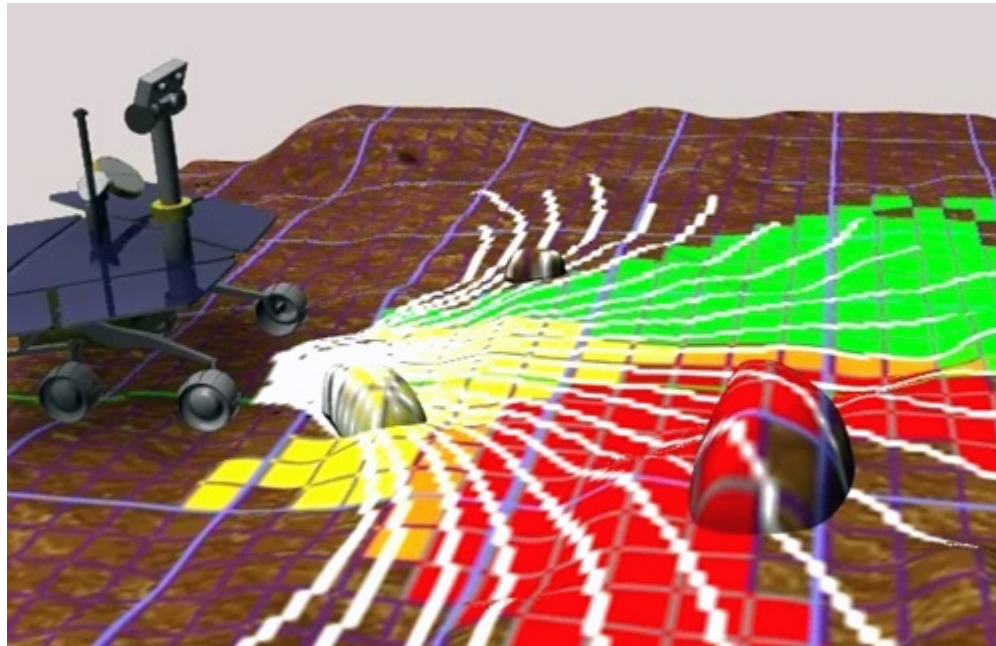
- Good for mission planning
 - Helps users specify where B is...
- Do not account for dynamic environments
 - Moving a trash can or closing a door can confuse a robot

Mapping 3

Dynamically generated maps

- Locally accuracy easier than global
- Robot exploration techniques used to keep relative positions of environment
- Can be used with A Priori maps to improve localization
- Loop closure
- SLAM

Navigation



Navigation

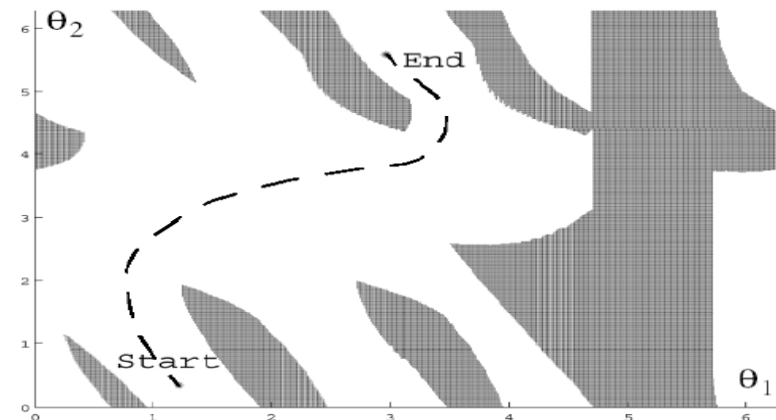
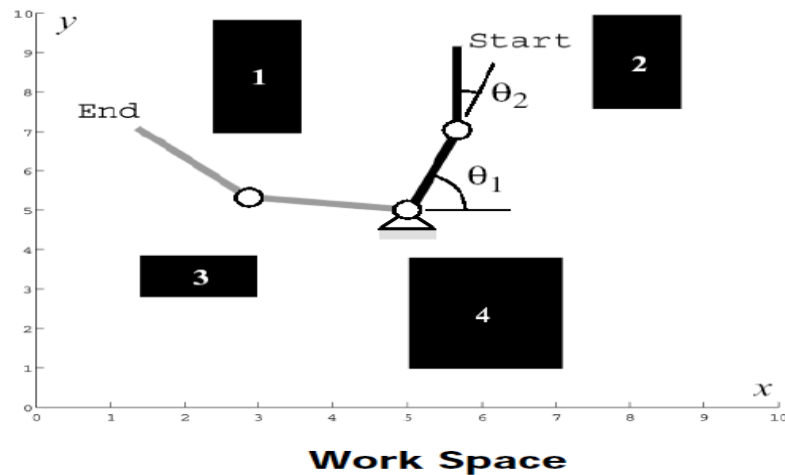
Given a map, now get from point A to B

- A Priori maps a good start
- Local vs Global
 - Local path planning with obstacle detection and avoidance helps us to do it safely
 - Global path planning helps us get from A to B

Navigation 1

Global path planning

- Find a path from A to B in the robots configuration space.
 - What is the configuration space of a mobile robot?



Configuration Space:
the dimension of this space is equal to
the Degrees of Freedom (DoF) of
the robot

Navigation 2

Configuration space

- Mobile robots operating on a flat ground have 3 DoF: (x, y, θ)
- To simplify the world, we often reduce the robot to a point = DoF: (x, y)
 - Then we need to grow the obstacles by the shape of the robot in its orientation
- If not simplified, a model of the robot is convolved with the map to determine traversability.
 - Expensive operations

Navigation 3

- Many global navigation strategies exist
- Discrete maps
- Graph based strategies
- EM
- D *

Navigation 4

Obstacle detection

- Detect obstacles in our sensor or map data and place in the map
- Sensor measurements are analyzed for hazardous regions
 - Hazards can include barriers, slope, roughness etc

Navigation 5

Obstacle Avoidance

- Path planning is required to avoid hitting obstacles in the map
- Similar to global path planning except more dynamic

Play video of MER Navigation

Kinematics and Mobility



Kinematics and Mobility

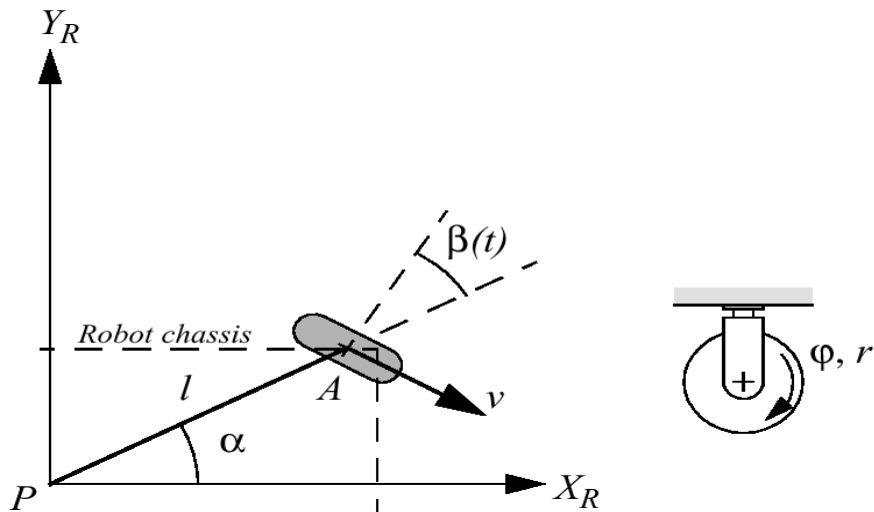
- Robots can roll, walk, fly or swim.
- Wheels offer excellent power/performance in locally planer environments
- Legs offer excellent mobility in rough environments at the cost of power.
- Flying and swimming increases sensing and navigation complexity.

Wheeled Robots 1

- Kinematic parameters come from type and configuration of wheels.
 - Rolling and/or steering
 - Position relative to chassis
- Kinematic constraints come from combining all the wheels rolling and steering constraints
 - Wheels don't like to go sideways

Wheeled Robots 2

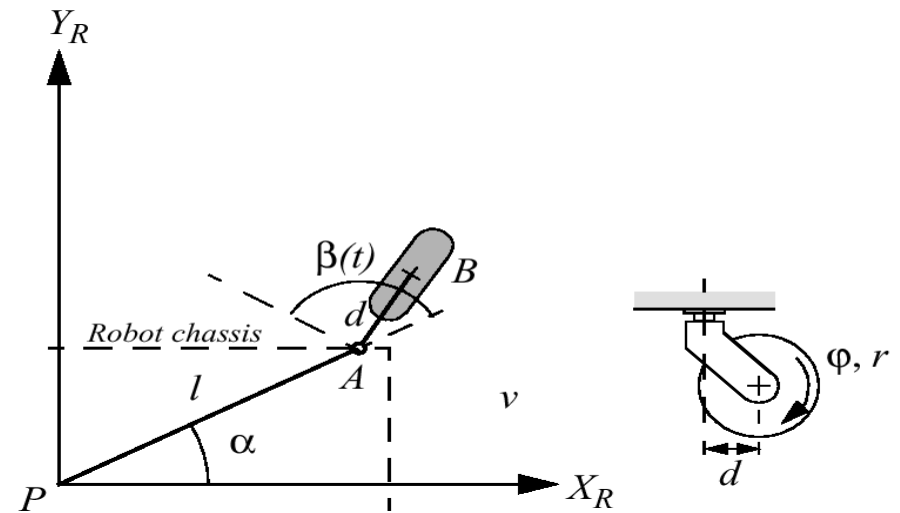
Standard wheel



$$\begin{bmatrix} \sin(\alpha + \beta) & -\cos(\alpha + \beta) & (-l) \cos \beta \end{bmatrix} R(\theta) \dot{\xi}_I - r \dot{\phi} = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos(\alpha + \beta) & \sin(\alpha + \beta) & l \sin \beta \end{bmatrix} R(\theta) \dot{\xi}_I = 0$$

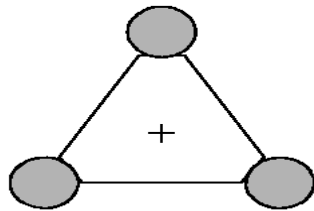
Caster wheel



$$\begin{bmatrix} \sin(\alpha + \beta) & -\cos(\alpha + \beta) & (-l) \cos \beta \end{bmatrix} R(\theta) \dot{\xi}_I - r \dot{\phi} = 0$$

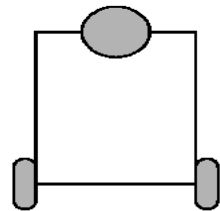
$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos(\alpha + \beta) & \sin(\alpha + \beta) & d + l \sin \beta \end{bmatrix} R(\theta) \dot{\xi}_I + d \dot{\beta} = 0$$

Wheeled Robots 3



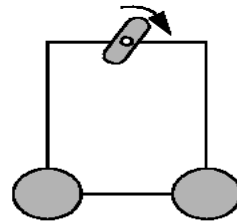
Omnidirectional

$$\begin{aligned}\delta_M &= 3 \\ \delta_m &= 3 \\ \delta_s &= 0\end{aligned}$$



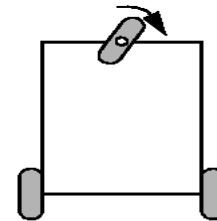
Differential

$$\begin{aligned}\delta_M &= 2 \\ \delta_m &= 2 \\ \delta_s &= 0\end{aligned}$$



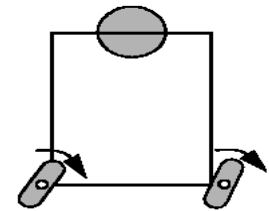
Omni-Steer

$$\begin{aligned}\delta_M &= 3 \\ \delta_m &= 2 \\ \delta_s &= 1\end{aligned}$$



Tricycle

$$\begin{aligned}\delta_M &= 2 \\ \delta_m &= 1 \\ \delta_s &= 1\end{aligned}$$

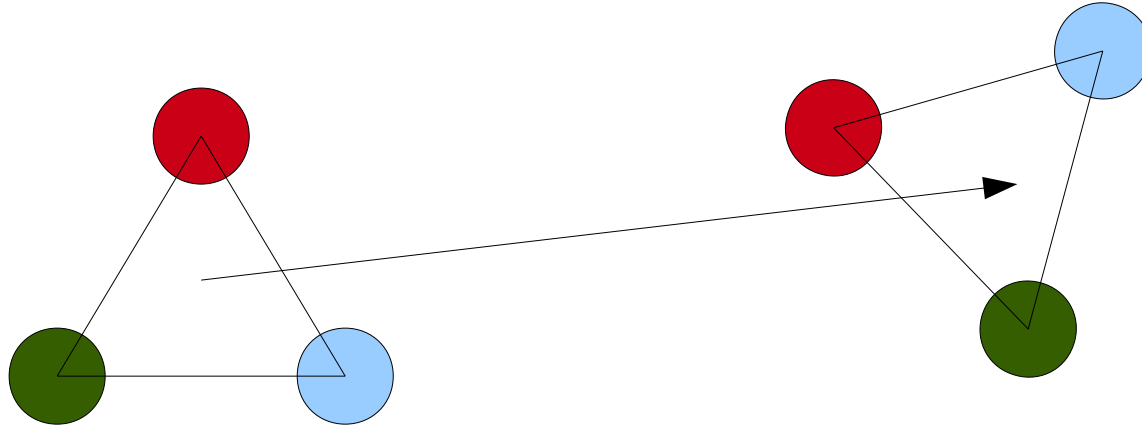


Two-Steer

$$\begin{aligned}\delta_M &= 3 \\ \delta_m &= 1 \\ \delta_s &= 2\end{aligned}$$

- Maneuverability = mobility + steerability
 - Instantaneous Center of Rotation (3 = plane, 2 is line)
 - The mobility available based on the sliding constraints plus additional freedom contributed by the steering

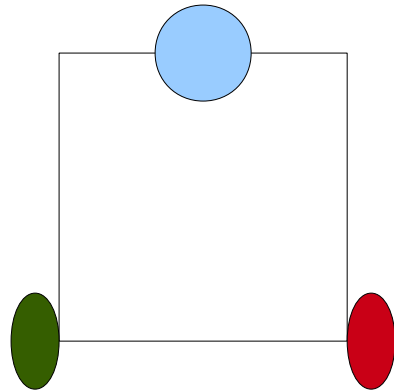
Wheeled Robots 4



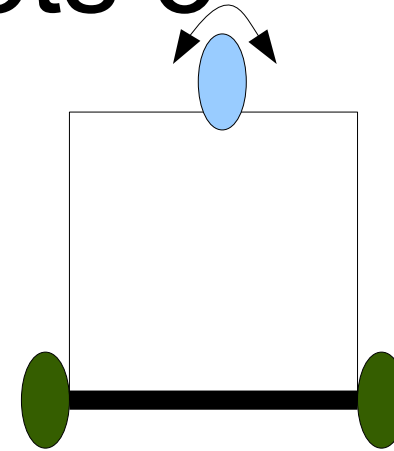
- Omni-directional drive with Maneuverability 3
 - Can translate and rotate simultaneously to achieve any position and orientation



Wheeled Robots 5



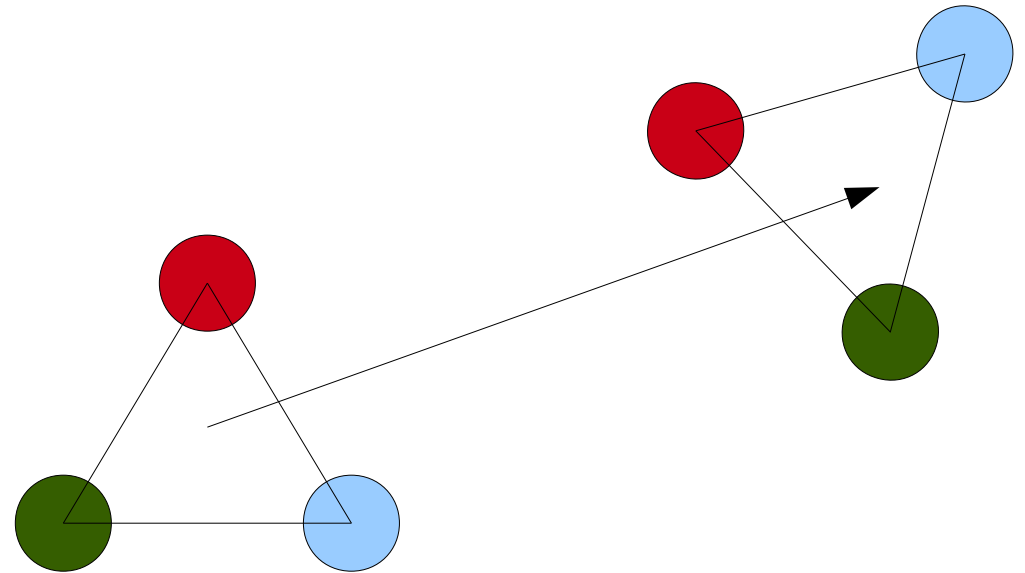
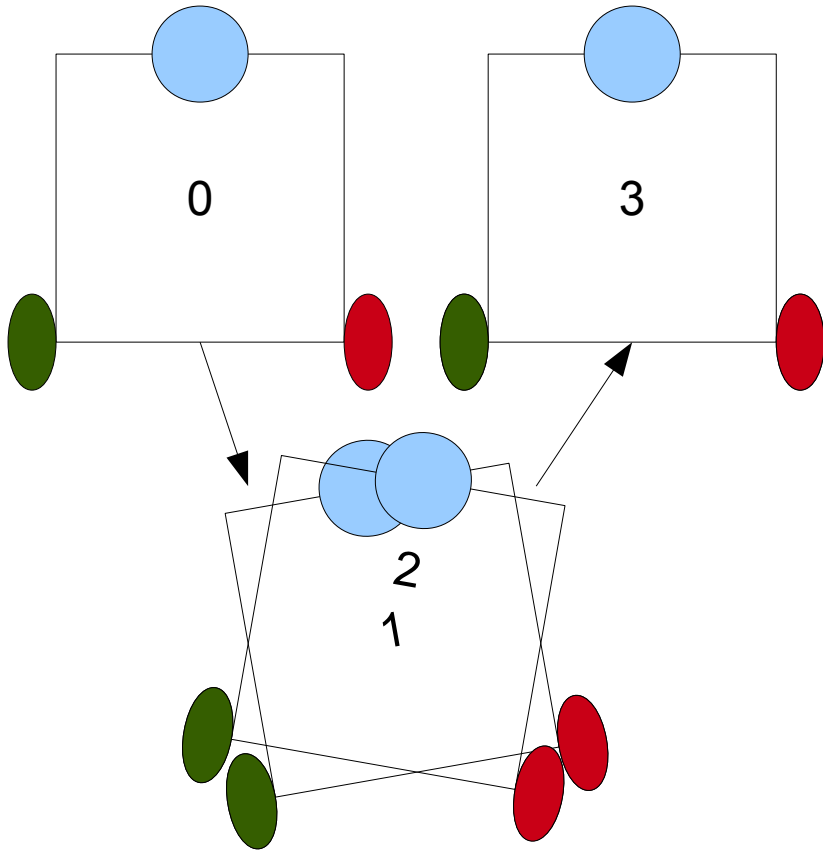
Differential Drive



Tricycle

- Differential Drive and Tricycle both have a degree of maneuverability 2
 - Differential drive has mobility 2 as each wheel can rotate independently along a common axis but no steerable actuators
 - Tricycle has mobility 1 as both wheels rotate together on a common axle and 1 degree of steerability.
 - Both designs must change pose before being able to achieve any position

Wheeled Robots 6



- Noholonomic configurations

- Robot must use transition states to achieve any state in its state space
- Example: Bicycle, Car

- Holonomic configurations

- Robot can directly achieve any state in their state space directly.
- Examples: Omni-Steer, Helicopter

For more Reading

- Introduction to Autonomous Mobile Robots
By Roland Siegwart

Robot Videos

- BigDog and PETMAN
- Crusher
- MER
- MSL
- QuadRotors ETH