



# Introduction to Robotics

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- 1 -

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## Grading

### ➤ Attendance

5%

Name (Original Name)	User Email	Join Time	Leave Time	Duration (Minutes)
		4/12/2021 9:12	4/12/2021 10:14	62
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### Bad ZOOM User Name (**Absent**)

- **Iphone** → Not your name
- **SiAko 202100001** → Wrong order
- **SiAko** → Name only
- **202100001** → ID Num only

### ZOOM User Name (**Present**)

- University ID Num\_Name
- 202100001 SiAko → GOOD (Present)

Name (Original Name)	User Email	Total Duration (Minutes)
		62
		63
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### Student Responsibilities

- Download/Install **ZOOM** app for online lecture
  - Zoom profile must be your **OASIS ID+name** similar to OASIS
  - Ex.: **202061234 YourName**
  - *If you are asked, but no reply, then you'll be out of zoom & mark **absent***
- Regularly login, check **OLD IEILMS** for updates, notifications
  - <https://ieilmsold.jbnu.ac.kr>
  - Presentations & lecture videos will be uploaded after class
- Regularly check **Kakao Group Chat** for class
  - Everybody must have a Kakao talk account
  - Search & add account "**botjok**", introduce yourself and name of class ("**Robotics**"), then you will be added to the group chat



Intro To Robotics

# **ROBOTIC MOTION AND ODOMETRY**



- Distance, velocity & time
- Acceleration as change in velocity
- Segments to continuous motion
- Navigation by Odometry
- Linear Odometry
- Odometry with Turns
- Errors in Odometry
- Wheel Encoders
- Inertial Navigation Systems
- DOF and Num of Actuators
- Relative number of Actuators and DOF
- Holonomic/Non-holonomic Motion



## Intro

- Robots in real world **moving** to specific locations
  - *Engineering constraints how fast to move or turn*
- Review **distance, time, velocity, acceleration**
  - *Physics of motion usually through calculus (continuous functions)*
  - *Computers (discrete approximations)*
- **Odometry** (fundamental algo for computing robotic motion)
  - *Errors in direction more significant than errors in distance*
- **Wheel encoders** (*Improve accuracy of odometry*)
- **Inertial navigation** (*Sophisticated form of odometry*)
- Degrees of Freedom (**DOF**)
  - *Discuss relation bet DOF & number of actuators (motors) in robotic systems*
- Degrees of Mobility (**DOM**)



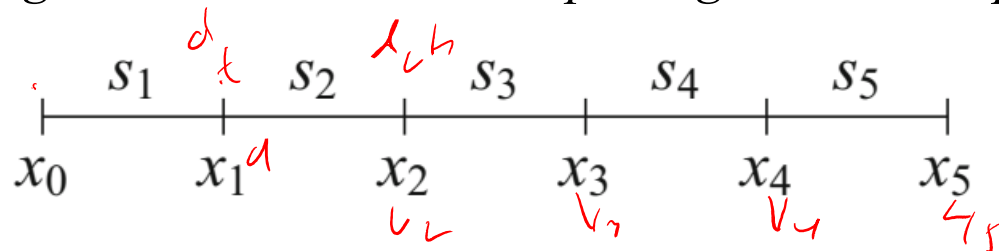
## Distance, Velocity & Time

- **Ex:** Robot w/ constant velocity of 10 cm/s for time of 5 s.
  - Recall: Distance for constant velocity is  $s = vt \rightarrow s = 50 \text{ cms}$ .  
*Handwritten notes: s = dist, v = vdo, t = time. Calculation: 10 cm / s \* 5 s = 50 cm.*
- Robot **movement**:
  - power  $\rightarrow$  motors  $\rightarrow$  wheels rotate  $\rightarrow$  robot moves @ certain velocity
  - certain power gives certain velocity? Very hard to specify
    - No two elec/mech components precisely identical (magnet, wire, motor shaft)
    - Environment affects robot velocity (friction: too much (mud), too little (ice))
    - External forces affect velocity (power: more (uphill), less (downhill))
- Accurate measurements
  - Short distances (up to several meters): using ruler/tape measure
  - Time (hundredths of sec): stopwatch app on phones
  - Accurate robot navigation: need to sense objects in environment



## Acceleration as Change in Velocity

- Exp: Compute moving robot **ave vel** at each marker using  $s = vt$ 
  - *Longer* dist bet markers: Closer to each other
  - *Shorter* dist bet markers: Considerable differences
- Formula  $s = vt$  assumed constant velocity over entire distance
- Reality, vehicle must change its velocity:  $v = \frac{s}{t}$ 
  - *accelerate*: from stop to *constant velocity*
  - *decelerate*: to *stop*
- True picture of robot motion
  - divide into segments  $\rightarrow$  measure  $d$  &  $t$  per segment  $\rightarrow$  compute  $v$



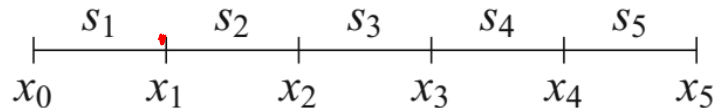




## Acceleration as Change in Velocity

- True picture of **robot motion**

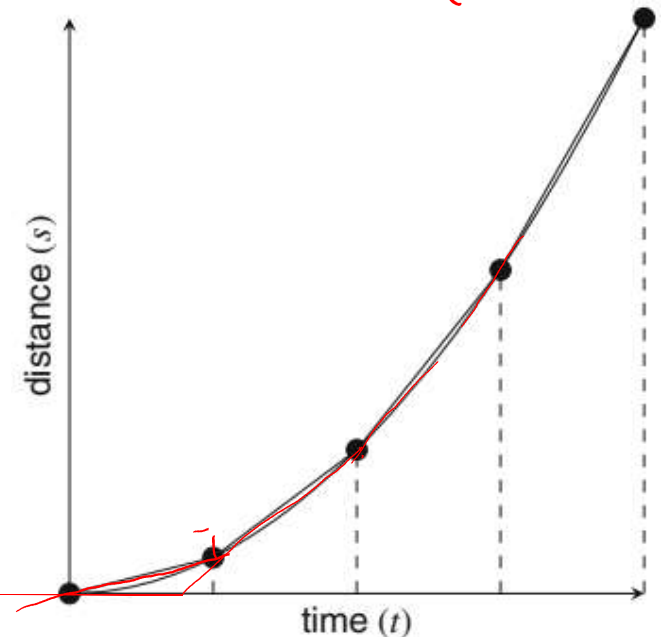
– divide into segments  $\rightarrow$  measure  $d$  &  $t$  per segment  $\rightarrow$  compute  $v = \frac{d}{t}$



–  $\Delta s_i$ , length of  $s_i$ :  $\Delta s_i = x_{i+1} - x_i$   
–  $\Delta t_i$ , time to cross  $s_i$ :  $\Delta t_i = t_{i+1} - t_i$   
then  $v_i$ :  $v_i = \Delta s_i / \Delta t_i$

- From accelerating robot graph (a)

- Time axis is segmented
- Slopes =  $\Delta s_i / \Delta t_i$ 
  - which is average velocity in each segment
  - increase over time



(a) Accelerating Robot:  
Distance increase as square of Time



## Acceleration as Change in Velocity

- Definition of “**acceleration**”

– *Change* in velocity over time:  $a_i = \frac{\Delta v_i}{\Delta t_i}$

$\Delta v_i = \frac{\Delta s_i}{\Delta t_i}$   
;  $Velo = \frac{\text{change dist}}{\text{time}}$   
 $aa = \frac{\text{change}}{\text{time}}$

- For standard operation of robot

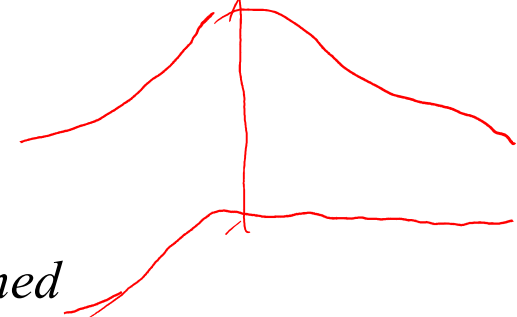
– *Power (fixed)*  $\rightarrow$  *force (constant)*  $\rightarrow$  *acceleration (expected constant)*  
 $\rightarrow$  *velocity (increase)*

- But after some time:

– *acceleration*  $\rightarrow 0$ , then *velocity*  $\rightarrow$  *constant*

– Since max power possible supplied to wheels reached  
 $\rightarrow$  to overcome friction & wind resistance

- What will happen if we increase power setting over time?





## From Segments to Continuous Motion

- Instantaneous velocity as time segments becomes smaller:  $v(t) = \frac{ds(t)}{dt}$ . (d(t) is s(t))
- Simultaneously, instantaneous acceleration of robot is:  $a(t) = \frac{dv(t)}{dt}$ .
- While velocity for constant acceleration is:  $\{v(t) = \int a dt \Rightarrow a \int dt \Rightarrow at.\}$
- Then distance is:  $\{s(t) = \int v(t) dt \Rightarrow \int at dt \Rightarrow \frac{at^2}{2}.\}$

**Ex.:** Car accelerates from 0 ~ 100 km/h in about 10 s.

- Convert units km/s  $\rightarrow$  m/s:  $v_{\max} = 100 \text{ km/h} = \frac{(100)(1000)}{(60)(60)} \text{ m/s} = \underline{27.8 \text{ m/s.}}$
- Assuming const acc:  $v_{\max} = 27.8 = at = a(10), \therefore a = \underline{2.78 \text{ m/s}^2}.$
- Therefore, distance  $s$  that car moves in 10 s is:  $s(10) = \frac{at^2}{2} = \frac{(2.78)(10)^2}{2} = \underline{139 \text{ m.}}$





## Navigation by Odometry

### • Odometry

– The measurement of distance

- In a car: measures time and speed to calculate distance

– Fundamental method used by robots for navigation

- From  $s = vt$ , new position can be computed
- Computation: easy in 1-D, more complex when making a turn

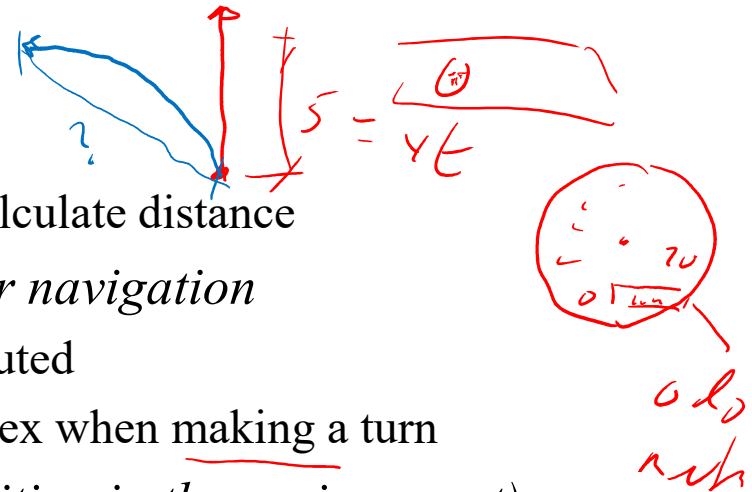
– Form of localization (determine its position in the environment)

### • Disadvantage of Odometry

– Indirect measurements (relate motor power/wheel motion to change in pos)

– Can be error prone

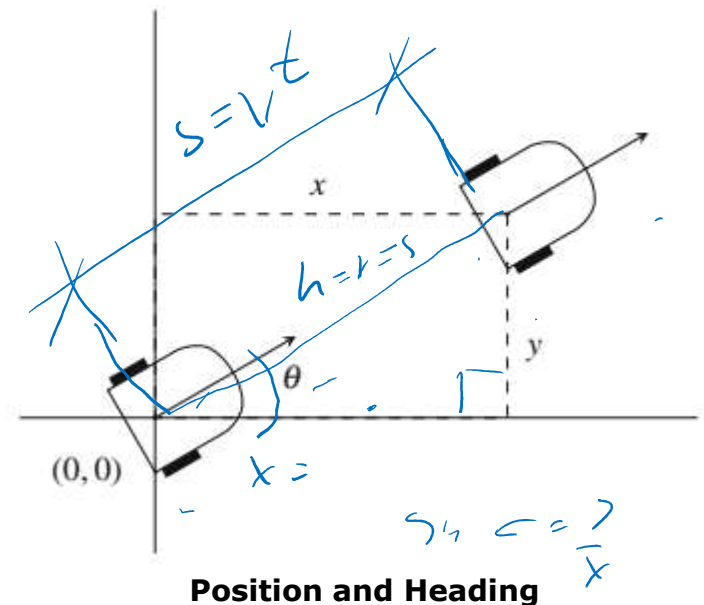
- Motor speed & wheel rotation relationship can be very non-linear & time varying
- Wheels slip/skid, affecting the relationship of wheel motion to robot motion
- Can be improved using INS (acceleration & angular velocity)



## Linear Odometry

- With  **$s = vt$  relationship**
  - Robot start at pos  $(0,0)$   $\rightarrow$  moves along x-axis for  $t$  secs  $\rightarrow$  new pos  $(vt,0)$
- Self-driving car can use odometry to determine its position
  - Not depend only on odometry, but use with sensory data (Ex: when to turn)
- Moving in **2D** (must solve three things)
  - **position  $(x, y)$** : relative to a fixed origin
  - **heading  $(\theta)$** : direction w/c robot is pointing
  - **pose  $(x, y, \theta)$** : position & heading
- **Ex.: Robot moves**
  - start at  $(0, 0)$   $\rightarrow$  straight  $\theta$ ; vel  $v$  for time  $t$
  - new pos  $(x_2, y_2)$ ?  

$$x_2 = vt \cos \theta, \quad y_2 = vt \sin \theta.$$



Position and Heading



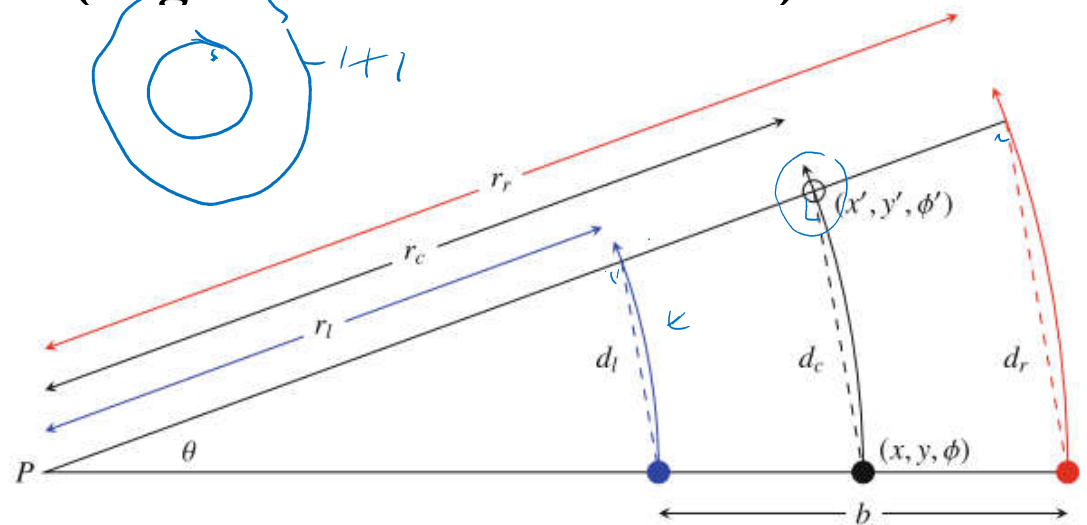
## Odometry with Turns

### • **Ex.:** Robot turn slightly-left (RightWheel > LeftWheel)

- baseline  $b$  : distance bet wheels
- $d_l, d_r, d_c$  : distances covered by two wheels & center

#### Get robot new pos & heading?

- We can measure  $d_l$  &  $d_r$  relating motor power to rotational speed, then multiply w/ time elapsed.



Geometry of 2-wheeled robot making left-turn

- Or, number of rotations given by wheel encoders:
  - With radius ( $R$ ), rot speeds ( $\omega_l, \omega_r$ ) at rev/sec, then after  $t$  secs, the wheel has moved:

$$d_i = 2\pi R \omega_i t, \quad i = l, r. \quad \rightarrow (5.1)$$

- But the task is find new post of robot after wheels has moved these distances!

## Odometry with Turns

### • **Ex.:** Robot turn slightly-left (RightWheel > LeftWheel)

- Initial pose  $(x, y, \phi)$ , facing north ( $\phi = \pi/2$ ).
- What is new pose  $(x', y', \phi')$  after turning  $\theta$  radians?
  - New heading is now definitely:

$$\phi' = \phi + \theta. = \checkmark$$

- Now, we need to solve for:  
 $x', y'$ .

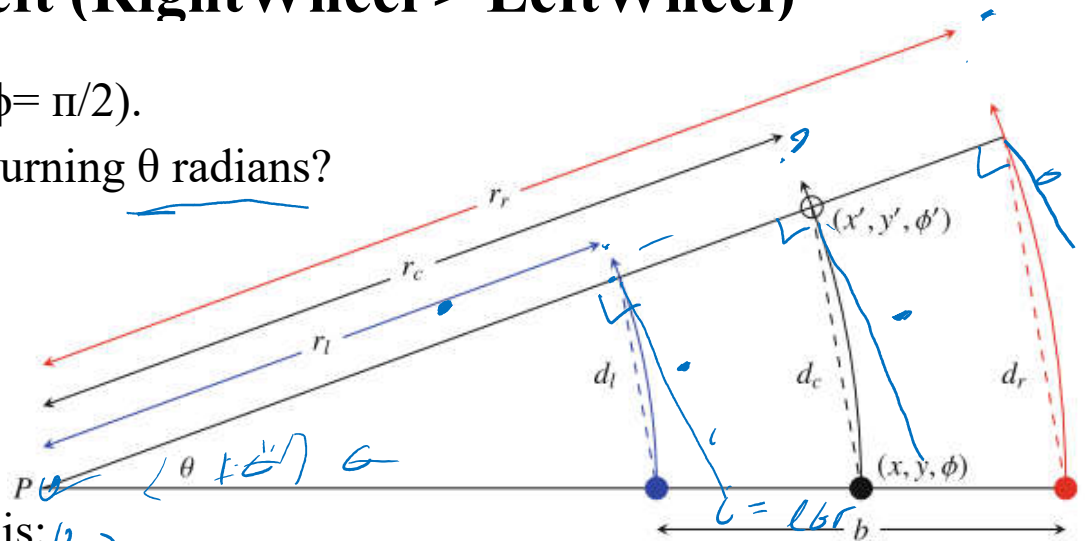
- Length of an arc of angle  $\theta$  radians is:  $\theta r$

$$2\pi r (\theta/2\pi) \rightarrow \theta r.$$

- For small angles,  $d_l, d_r, d_c$  approx equal to length of its arcs, so:

$$\theta = d_l / r_l = d_r / r_r = d_c / r_c.$$

where  $r_l, r_r, r_c$  are the distances from origin of the turn ( $P$ ).



Geometry of 2-wheeled robot making left-turn

(5.2)



## Odometry with Turns

- Ex.:** Robot turn slightly-left (RightWheel > LeftWheel)

- Distances  $d_l$  &  $d_r$ , obtained from wheel rotation (5.1).
- Angle  $\theta$  can be computed from (5.2) by:

- Recall:

$$\theta = d_l / r_l = d_r / r_r = d_c / r_c.$$

- Therefore:

$$\theta r_r = d_r,$$

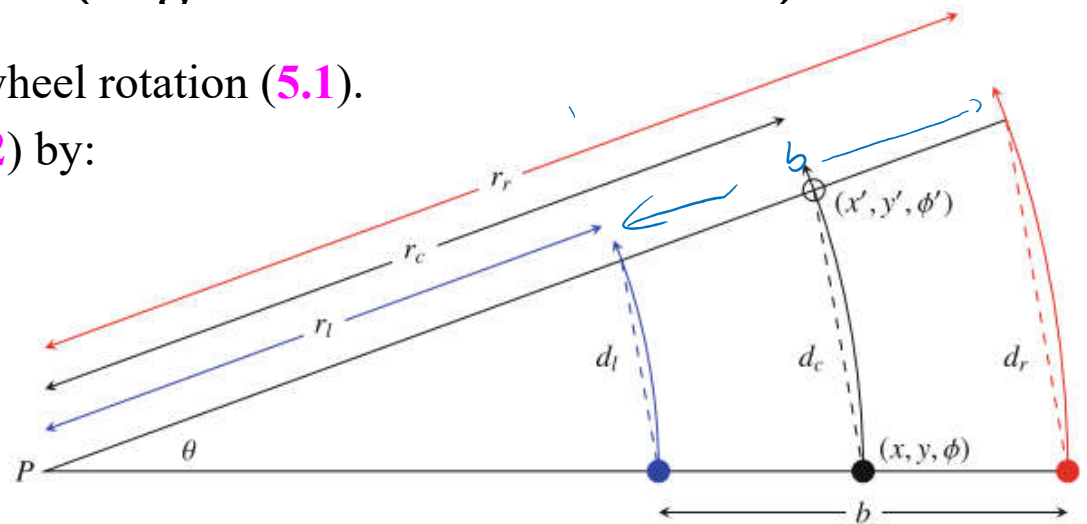
$$\theta r_l = d_l,$$

$$\theta r_r - \theta r_l = d_r - d_l$$

$$\theta = (d_r - d_l) / (r_r - r_l)$$

$$\theta = (d_r - d_l) / b.$$

where baseline  $b$ : fixed physical measurement of robot.



Geometry of 2-wheeled robot making left-turn





## Odometry with Turns

- Ex.:** Robot turn slightly-left (RightWheel > LeftWheel)

- Center is halfway bet wheels  $r_c = (r_l + r_r)/2$ , again by (5.2).

- Recall:

$$\theta = d_l / r_l = d_r / r_r = d_c / r_c.$$

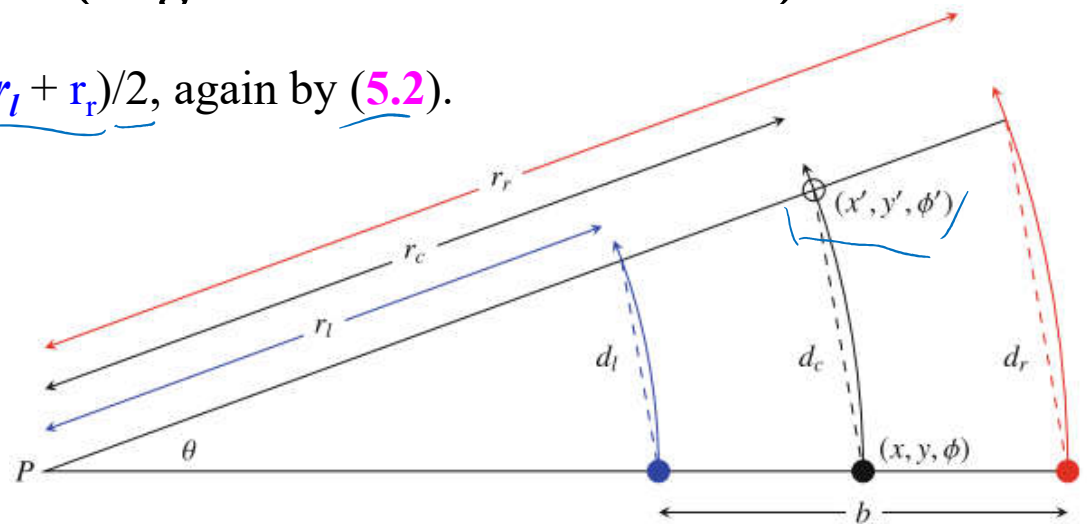
- Therefore:

$$d_c = \theta r_c$$

$$= \theta \left( \frac{r_l + r_r}{2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{\theta}{2} \left( \frac{d_l}{\theta} + \frac{d_r}{\theta} \right) = \frac{d_l + d_r}{2}$$

$$d_c = \frac{d_l + d_r}{2}$$



Geometry of 2-wheeled robot making left-turn

## Odometry with Turns

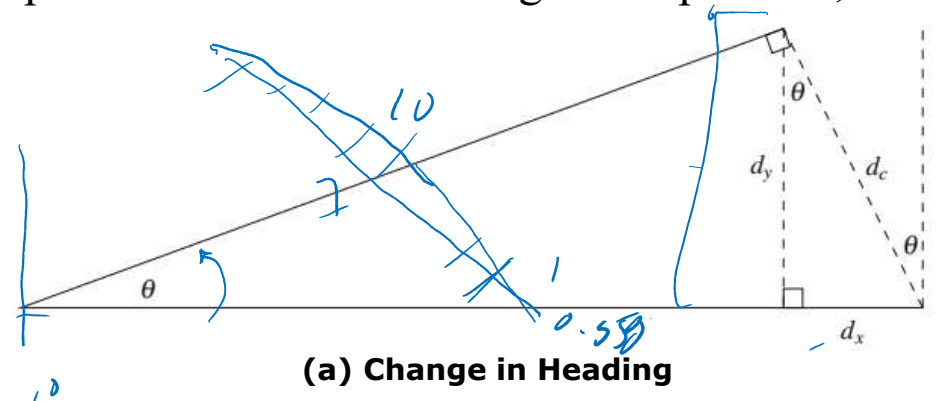
### • **Ex.:** Robot turn slightly-left (RightWheel > LeftWheel)

- If distance travelled is small,  $d_c$  approx perpendicular to radius through final position,
  - $\theta$  is the change in heading of robot.
- Using trigonometry, via similar triangles

$$d_x = -d_c \sin \theta, \quad d_y = d_c \cos \theta.$$

- Therefore, robot pose after turning is:

$$(x', y', \theta') = (-d_c \sin \theta, d_c \cos \theta, \phi + \theta).$$



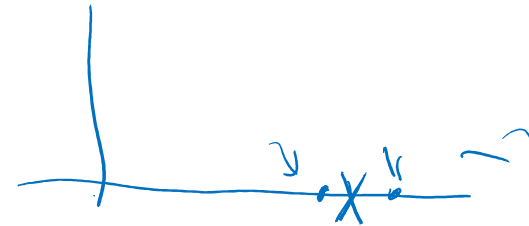
(a) Change in Heading

- We just solved for  $dx$ ,  $dy$ ,  $d\theta$  when robot moves short distance
- Frequent computation if using odometry over long distance
- Why interval between computations must be short?
  - 1) Constant speed assumption holds only for short distances
  - 2) Trigo computation simplified w/ assumption of short distance



## Errors in Odometry

- **Recall:** Odometry not accurate
  - Inconsistent measurements
  - Irregularities in surface cause errors
- We will see that **small changes** in robot movement direction
  - Cause errors *greater* than changes in its linear motion
- **Ex:** Robot move along x-axis, check for specific object around
  - Effect of error *up to p%*?
  - If error is in measurement of **x**, then distance moved ( $\Delta x$ ), error in **x**:



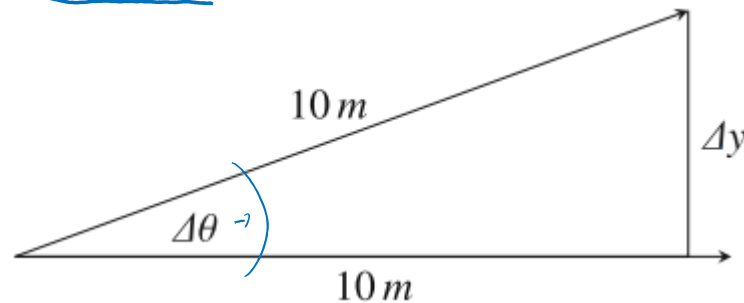
$$\Delta x \leq \pm (10) \left( \frac{p}{100} \right) m = \pm \left( \frac{p}{10} \right) m \quad \text{Linear}$$

where (+/-) since robot can move up to **p%** before or after target distance



## Errors in Odometry

- Now,  $p\%$  error in heading & assume no error in distance moved



$$\Delta x = x \text{ error}$$

- Robot to move **10 m** along x-axis, move slightly to left at angle  $\Delta\theta$ .
- Compute left-right deviation and  $\Delta y$
- By trigonometry,  $\Delta y = 10 \sin \Delta\theta$ , then  $p\%$  error in heading is:

$$\Delta\theta = (360) \left( \frac{p}{100} \right) (3.6p)^\circ$$

- Then left-right derivation

$$\Delta y \leq \pm 10 \sin(3.6p)$$



## Errors in Odometry

- Differences** bet linear error of  $p\%$  & error in heading of  $p\%$

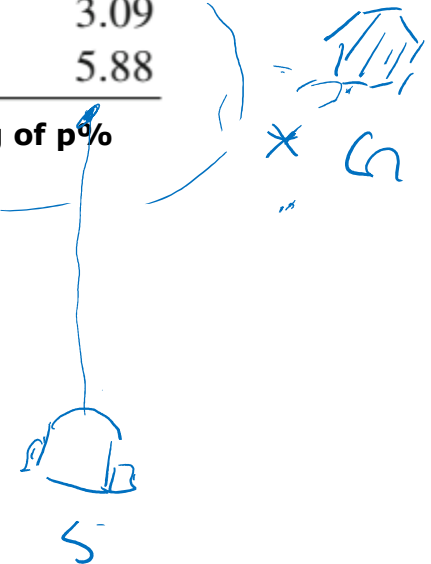
$p\%$	$\Delta x$ (m)
1	0.1
2	0.2
5	0.5
10	1.00

Linear error in  $p\%$

$p\%$	$\Delta\theta$ (°)	$\sin \Delta\theta$	$\Delta y$ (m)
1	3.6	0.063	0.63
2	7.2	0.125	1.25
5	18.0	0.309	3.09
10	36.0	0.588	5.88

Error in heading of  $p\%$

- Small** error of **2%**:
  - Linear**: 0.2m (object still around vicinity)
  - Heading**: 1.25m (little bit farther but probably still ok)
- More **significant** error of **5%** or **10%**:
  - Linear**: 0.5m/1.0 m (probably still manageable)
  - Heading**: 3.09m/5.88 m (too far, might miss the object)



## Errors in Odometry

- Assuming

- Max  $\pm 4\%$  (linear/heading)
- Possible positions at  $d$ 
  - 1, 2, ..., 10 displayed as ellipses

- Linear errors (minor radii)

$$0.04s = 0.04, 0.08, \dots, 0.4m$$

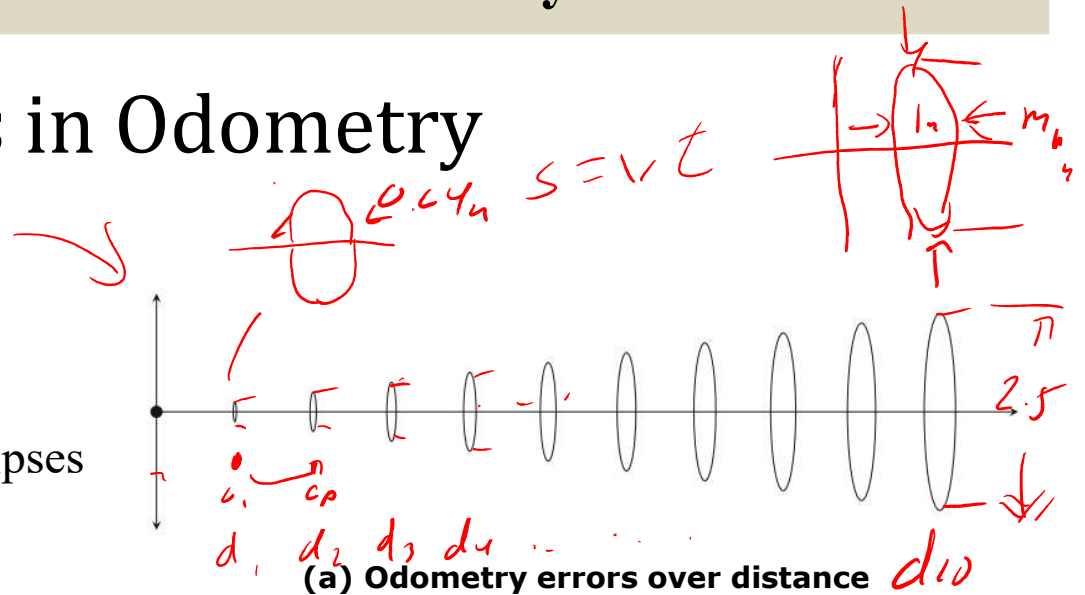
- Angular errors (major radii)

$$d \sin(0.04 * 360^\circ) = d \sin 14.4^\circ \approx 0.25m, 0.50m, \dots, 2.5m$$

- Angular more significant than linear

- Since error **unavoidable**

- Computed pose via odometry periodically compared w/ absolute position
  - Determining absolute position discussed in later chapters
- *Computed pose becomes new initial position*



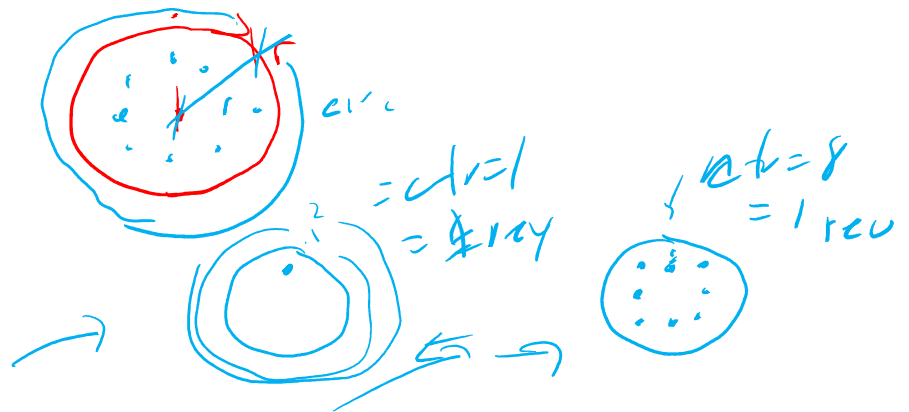


## Wheel Encoders

- Improve **odometry** in wheeled vehicle by:
  - Measuring rotation of wheels instead of mapping motor power to velocity

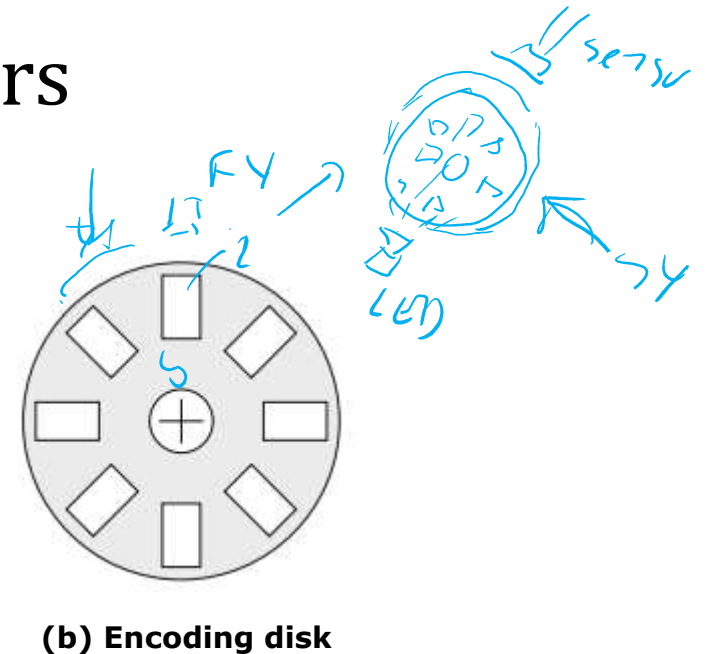
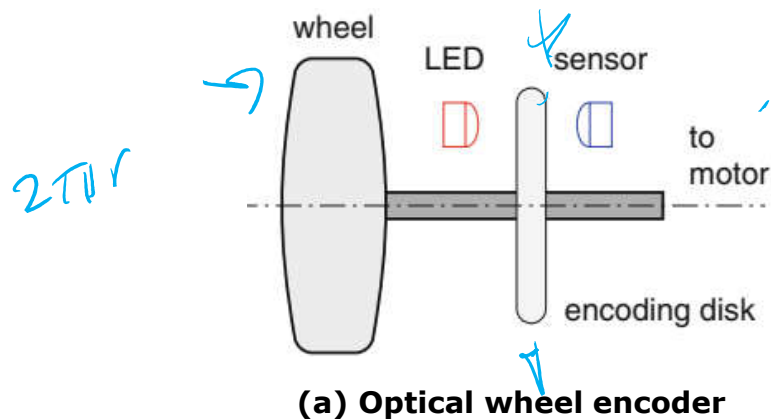
- Procedure

- Wheel circumference:  $2\pi r = d$
- Radius of wheel in cm:  $r$
- Num of rotations counted:  $n$
- Therefore, robot movement :  $2\pi rn$
- If signal is generated 8 times per revolution, then:  $2\pi rn/8$ 
  - where  $n$  is now number of signals counted by the computer



## Wheel Encoders

- Some **implementations** of wheel encoder



### (a) Optical wheel encoder

- Light source (ex. LED), light sensor, encoding disk attached to wheel axis

### (b) Disk perforated with holes

- Sensor generates signal whenever light passes through hole



# Inertial Navigation Systems



- Directly **measure** linear acc & angular vel
  - To calculate pose of a vehicle  $(p, \theta)$   $\$ SK \rightarrow 7/10/L$
  - **IMU** (Inertial measurement Unit) also used, But **INS** refers to whole system
- **Integrating** acc gives curr vel:  $\int_0^t a(t) dt.$
- **Integrating** angular vel gives change in heading:  $\int_0^t \omega(t) dt.$
- No continuous functions to integrate
  - Acc & angular vel are sampled, summation replaces integration

$$v_n = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i \Delta t, \quad \theta_n = \sum_{i=0}^n \omega_i \Delta t.$$

## Errors

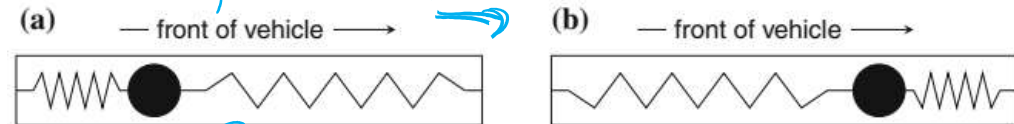
- Measurement inaccuracies, environmental variations (temp), wear & tear
- Often combined w/ GPS to update position w/ absolute location

pull  $\rightarrow$  INS + GPS  $\rightarrow$   $\{GPS + INS + DC = \emptyset\}$



## INS: Accelerometers

- We can **feel** it
  - *Plane*: The force pushing us to our seat when plane is taking off  
Force pushing away from seat when landing
  - *Car*: the same when accelerate rapidly or make sudden stop
- Acceleration related to **force** via:  $F = ma$ 
  - where  $F$  = force, and  $m$  = mass
  - Measuring **force** on an object, we can measure **acceleration**

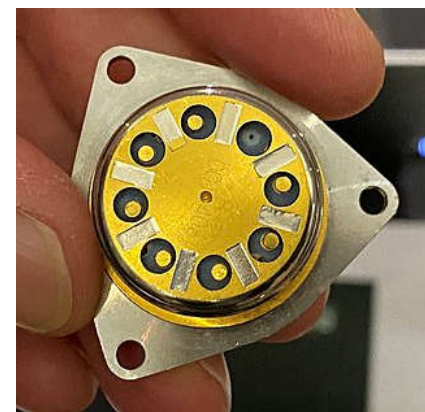
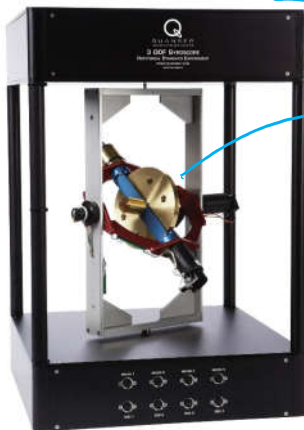


Simple accelerometer

- **Simple Accelerometer**
  - $\gg \text{acc} \rightarrow \gg \text{force exerted on mass} \rightarrow \text{spring compresses to front}$
  - $\ll \text{acc} \rightarrow \ll \text{force exerted on mass} \leftarrow \text{spring compresses to back}$

## INS: Gyroscopes

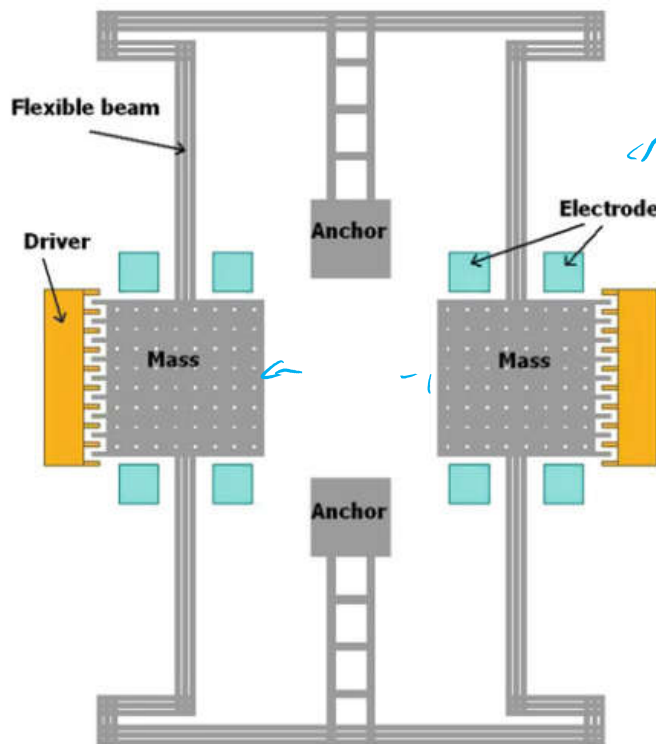
- Principle of Coriolis force to measure angular vel
  - *We'll not discuss it, check out Physics textbooks if you're curious ☺*
- **Types** of gyros
  - **Classical**: spinning mechanical disks mounted on gimbals, extremely accurate, very heavy, consume lots of power (aircrafts, rockets)
  - **Ring laser (RLG)**: almost no moving parts, two laser beams, better than mechanical
  - **Coriolis vibratory gyros (CVG)**: MEMS (microelectromechanical sys), cheap & robust, accuracy not as good as previous ones (smartphones, robots)



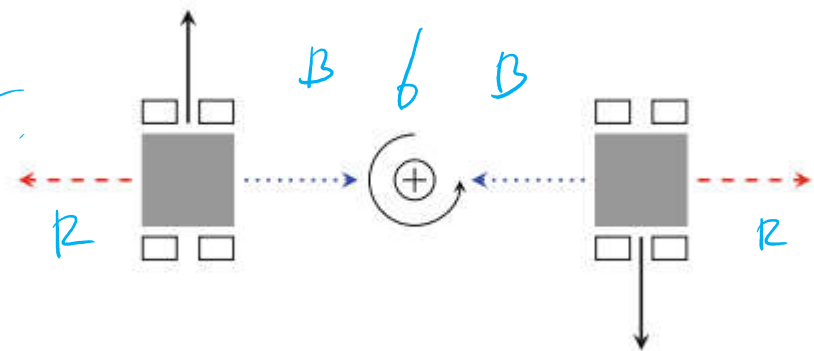


## INS: Gyroscopes

- Example of a CVG



Tuning fork gyroscope



Physics of a tuning fork gyroscope

- \* **Red-/Blue-dash**: direction of vibration
- \* **Solid black** : direction of Coriolis Force

## INS: Applications

- An INS
  - Three accelerometers and three gyroscopes

*acc / axis      ang vel / s*
  - So that pose can be computed in 3-D
 

*acc<sub>x</sub>, acc<sub>y</sub>, w<sub>x</sub>, w<sub>y</sub>*
  - Necessary for robotic aircraft and other robotic vehicles
 

*(ships) u/x/u y*
- Ex:
  - **Accelerometer:** \* detects rapid deceleration in front-back dir during a crash
    - \* up-down direction can detect if car has fallen into a pothole
  - **Gyroscope:** \* rotation around vertical axis can detect skidding
    - \* rotation around front-rear axis can detect if car is rolling over

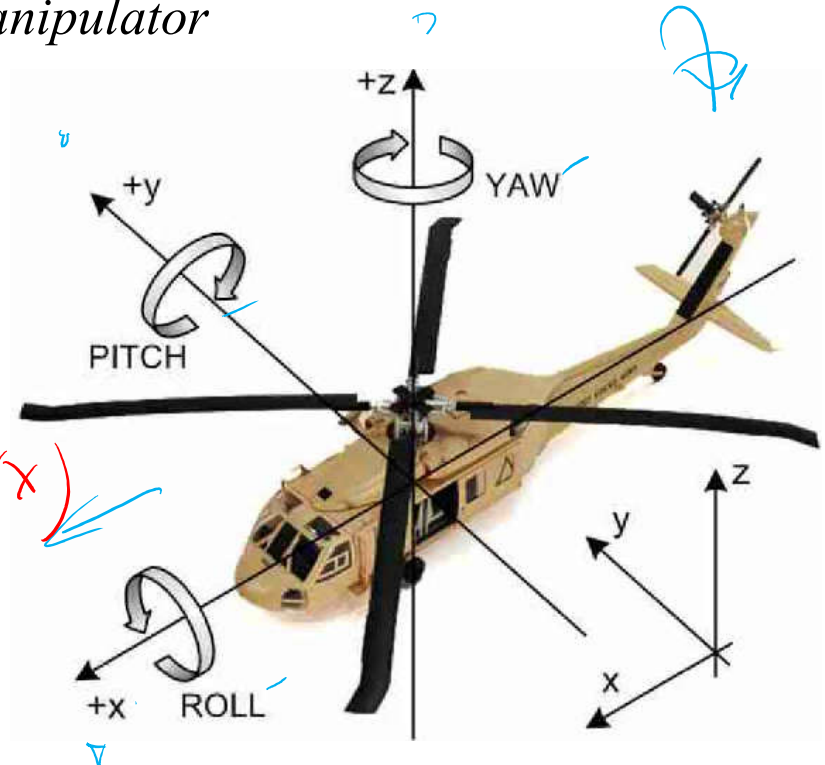


## Degrees of Freedom & Numbers of Actuators

- Degrees of Freedom (**DOF**)
  - *Dimensionality* of the coordinates to describe pose of mobile robot
  - Or *pose* of the end-effector of robotic manipulator
- **Ex: Helicopter** has 6 DOF
  - Can move in three spatial dimensions, rotate around three axes

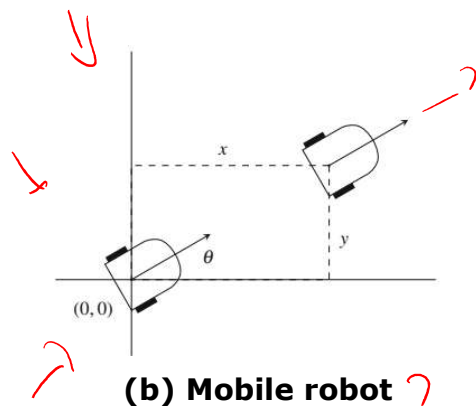
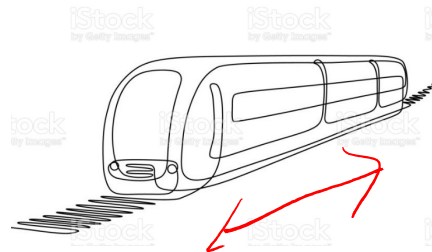
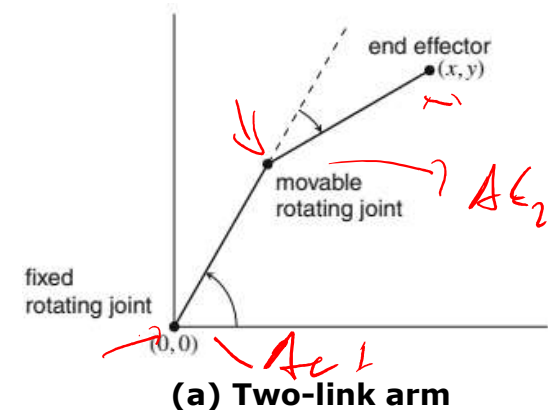
### Helicopter's 3-axis

- (a) **pitch**: nose moves up & down (y)
- (b) **roll**: body rotates around its lengthwise axis (x)
- (c) **yaw**: body rotates left & right around axis of its rotor (z)



## Degrees of Freedom & Numbers of Actuators

- The robotic arm in (a) only has **2-DOF**
  - End-effector moves in a plane & don't rotate
  - Described by a **2-D coordinate**  $(x, y)$
- Mobile robot on flat-surface (b) has **3-DOF**
  - Pose defined by **3-D coordinate**  $(x, y, \theta)$
- Train on a track (c) has **1-DOF**
  - Can only move forward, sometimes backward
  - Only **one coordinate**,  $(x)$





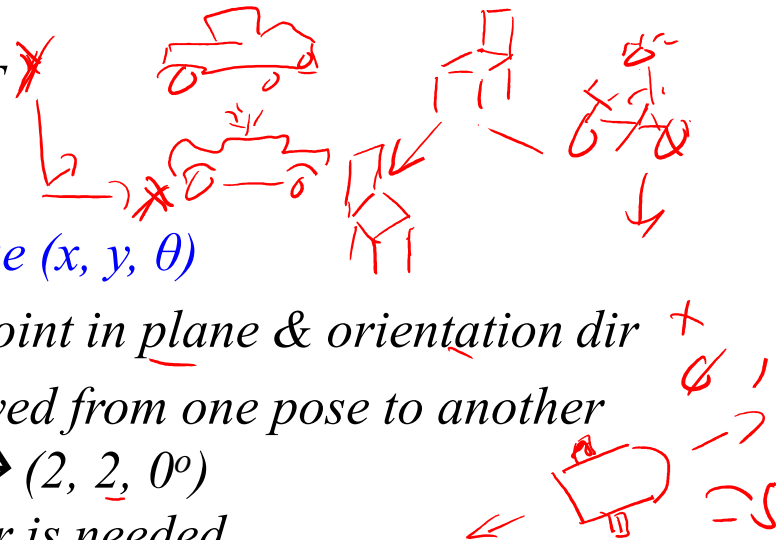
## Degrees of Freedom & Numbers of Actuators

- **Robotic motion**

- Needs *more* information than just *DOF*

- **Ex: A car, bicycle, chair**

- Three coordinates to describe their *pose*  $(x, y, \theta)$
- **Chair**: Can be directly moved to any point in *plane* & *orientation* dir
- **Car & Bicycle**: Cannot be directly moved from one pose to another
  - \*  $(2, 0, 0^\circ)$  pointing along (+) x-axis  $\rightarrow (2, 2, 0^\circ)$
  - \* not possible, more complex maneuver is needed.



- Need to know num of actuators (motors) & its configuration

- **Diff drive robot** has 2 actuators, but robot has 3-DOF  $(x, y, \theta)$ 
  - Motors move along one axis fwd & bck, can also change heading (remember??)
- **Two-link arm** has 2 actuators & 2-DOF
- **Train** has 1 actuator & 1-DOF





## Relative Number of Actuators & DOF

- Let's **analyze** systems where
  - # of actuators = # of DOF
  - # of actuators < # of DOF
  - # of actuators > # of DOF
- # of actuators = # of DOF
  - **Advantage**: \* system relatively easy to control,  
\* each actuator individually commanded to control its respective DOF
  - **Train** (1-Actuator, 1-DOF), two-line robotic arm (2-Actuators, 2-DOF)
- # of actuators < # of DOF
  - **Advantage**: Fewer actuators → less expensive
  - **Disadvantage**: Planning & motion control more difficult
  - **Diff drive robot & car** only have 2 actuators, but can access all 3-D poses





## Relative Number of Actuators & DOF

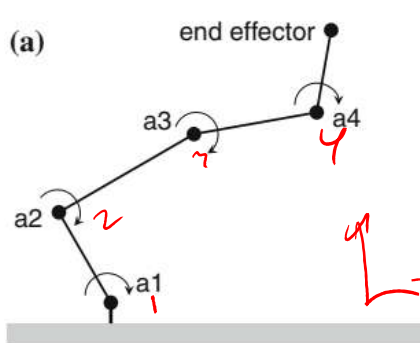
- # of actuators < # of DOF
  - *Advantage*: Fewer actuators → less expensive
  - *Disadvantage*: Planning & motion control more difficult
  - Mobile robots usually belong to this group
  - **Extreme ex** is hot-air balloon, only 1-actuator (up ← heater → down)
    - \* wind make balloon move in any of three spatial dirs, even partially rotate
    - \* operator can never precisely control it
    - \*\* different from elevator, both have 1-actuator, but it only has 1-DOF
  - **Another Extreme Ex**: Helicopter controllers, 3-actuators, 6-DOF
    - \* cyclic (pitch) : main rotor shaft (fwd, back, sideways)
    - \* collective (pitch) : main rotor blades (up or down)
    - \* pedals (speed): tail motor (where nose points)



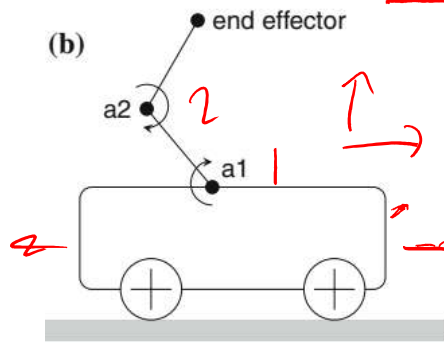
## Relative Number of Actuators & DOF

- # of actuators > # of DOF

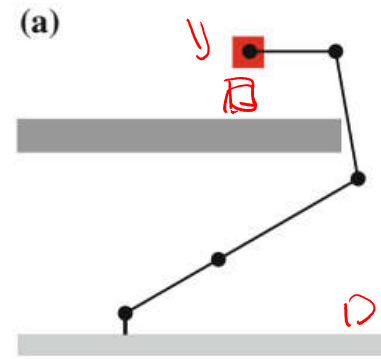
- Do not sound so good but is it *useful* in some configurations



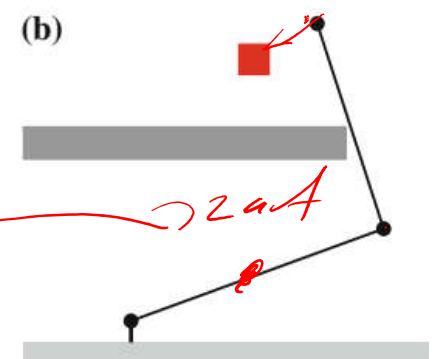
(a) Robot arm:  
4-Actuators, 2-DOF



(b) Mobile robot & arm:  
3-Actuators, 2-DOF



(c) Arm w/ 4-Actuators  
can reach hidden position



(d) Arm w/ 2-Actuators  
blocked by obstacle

- Engineers *avoid* more actuators than DOF

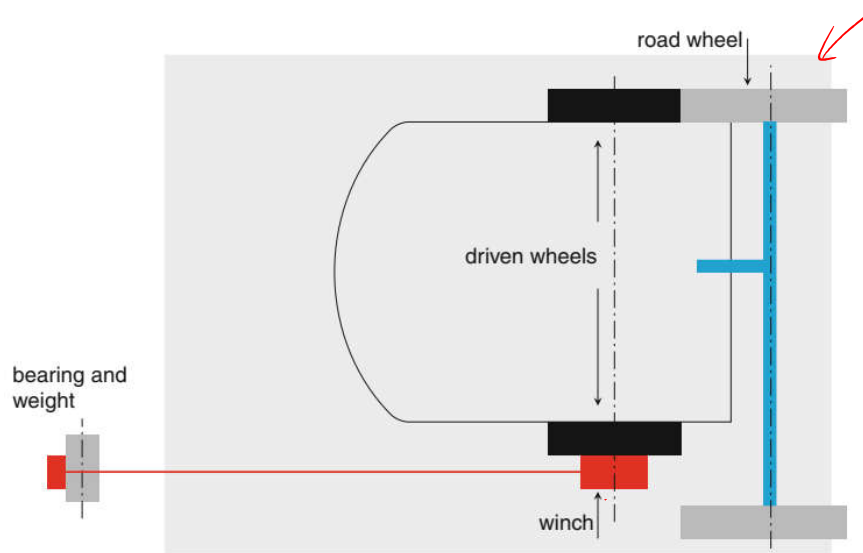
- It *increases* complexity and costs

- *Redundant* systems required since can't be performed w/ fewer actuators

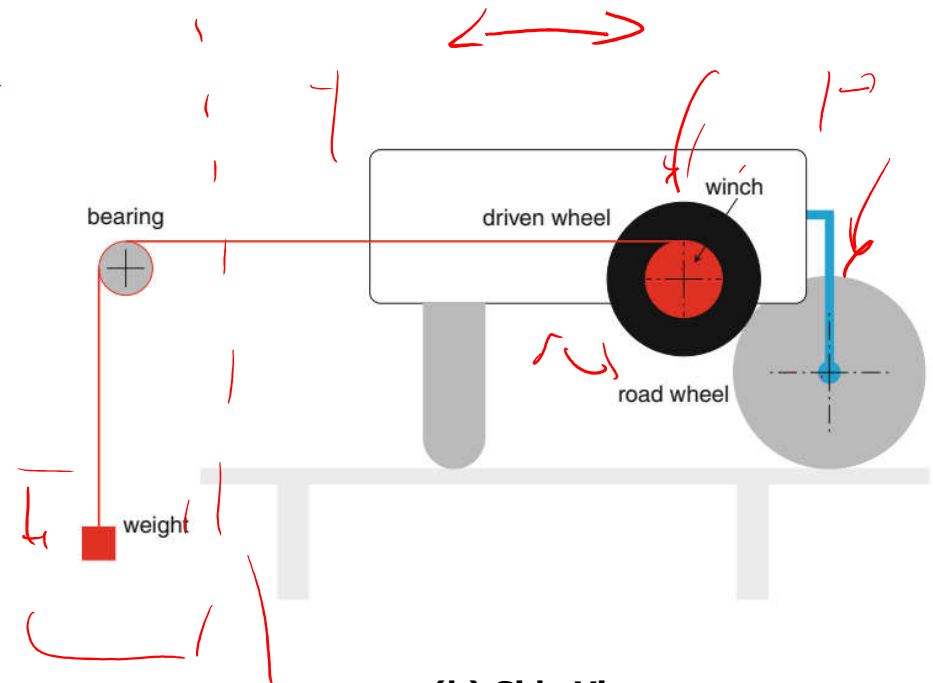
- Systems with *different characteristics* (b) very useful

## Relative Number of Actuators & DOF

- # of actuators > # of DOF
  - Robotic *crane* from mobile *robot* and a *winch*
  - 2-actuators, 1-DOF



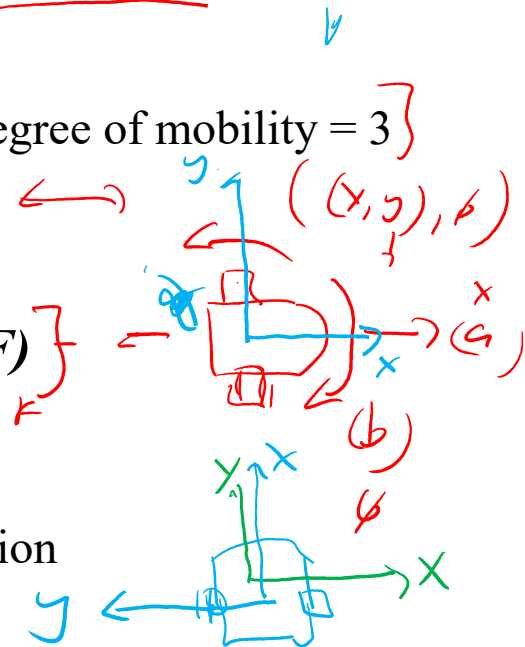
(a) Top View



(b) Side View

## Holonomic & Non-holonomic Motion

- **Degree of Mobility (DOM,  $\delta_m$ )** *DOF, # Act*
  - Links DOF and actuators in the case of a robot
  - Number of DOF that can be directly accessed by actuators
  - **Ex: Mobile robot on a plane**
    - At most 3-DOF (position, heading), It's maximal degree of mobility = 3
  - **Ex.: Train (1-Actuator, 1-DOF),  $\delta_m = 1$** 
    - Engine directly affects single DOF
  - **Ex.: Differential drive robot (2-Actuators, 3-DOF)**
    - (a) both wheels run same speed (fwd, back) *1 DOF*
    - (b) wheels opposite direction (rotate in place)
    - Can't directly access DOF of lateral axis of translation
    - Therefore,  $\delta_m = 2 < \text{DOF} = 3$

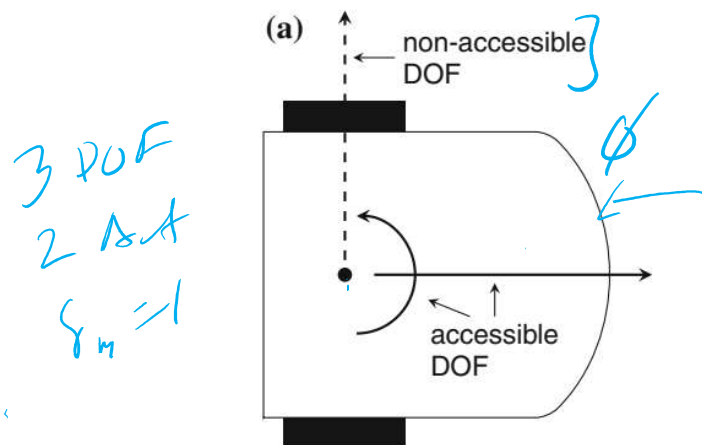


## Holonomic & Non-holonomic Motion

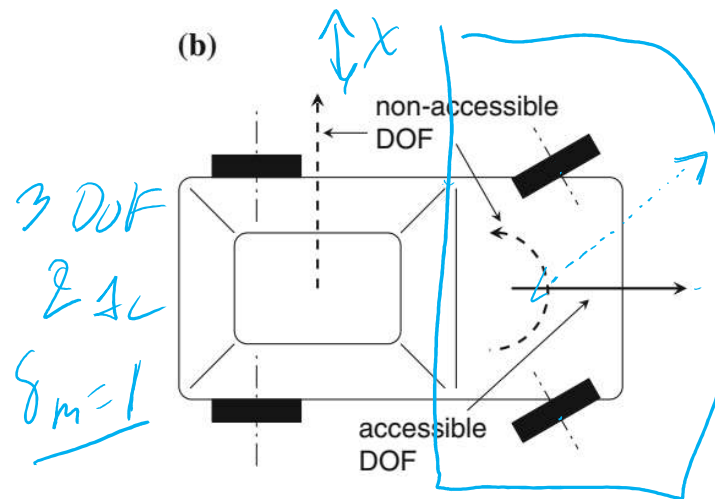
- Degree of Mobility (DOM,  $\delta_m$ )

- **Ex.: Car, similar to Differential Drive (2-Actuators, 3-DOF)**

- (a) motor gives direct access to DOF along longitudinal axis of car (fwd, back)
- (b) steering wheel don't give direct access to any add'l DOF, only orients the first DOF
- Car can't rotate vertical axis & can't move laterally, Therefore,  $\delta_m = 1$  only



(a) Differential Drive



(b) Ackermann Steering

## Holonomic & Non-holonomic Motion

- Degree of Mobility (DOM,  $\delta_m$ )

- **Ex.:** (a) *The Tire*

- Standard wheel has  $\delta_m = 2$

- roll fwd & bck, rotate vertical axis

- In a car,  $\delta_m = 1$ , since there are two pairs of ties

- Gives stability to the car

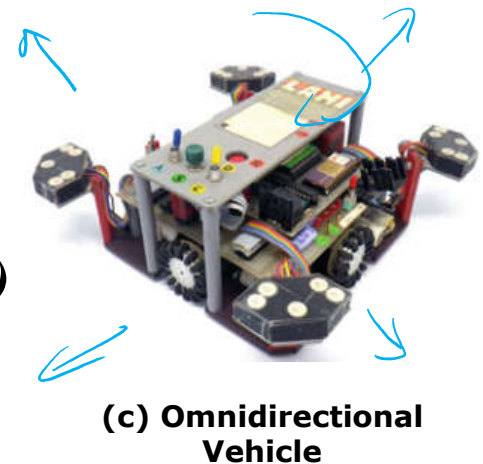
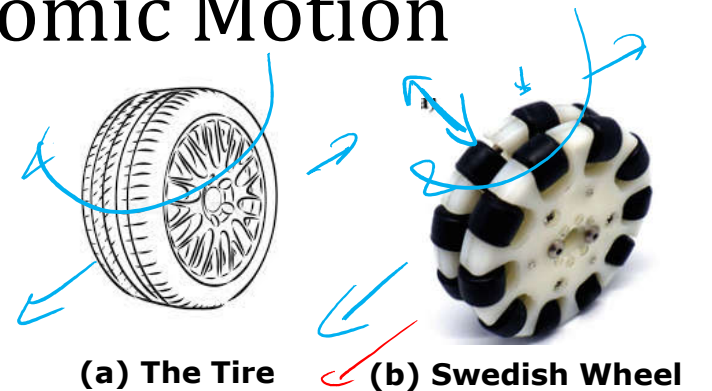
- **Ex.:** (b) *Swedish wheels (3-Actuators, 3-DOF)*

- Standard wheel with small free wheels along its rim

- **Ex.:** (c) *Omnidirectional Vehicle (3-Actuators, 3-DOF)*

- Mobile robots that can directly access all DOF's

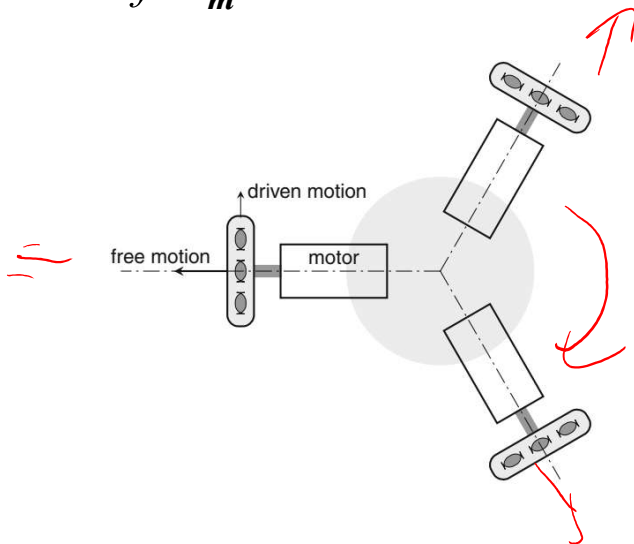
Actuator  $\rightarrow$  DOF  $\rightarrow$  DOM



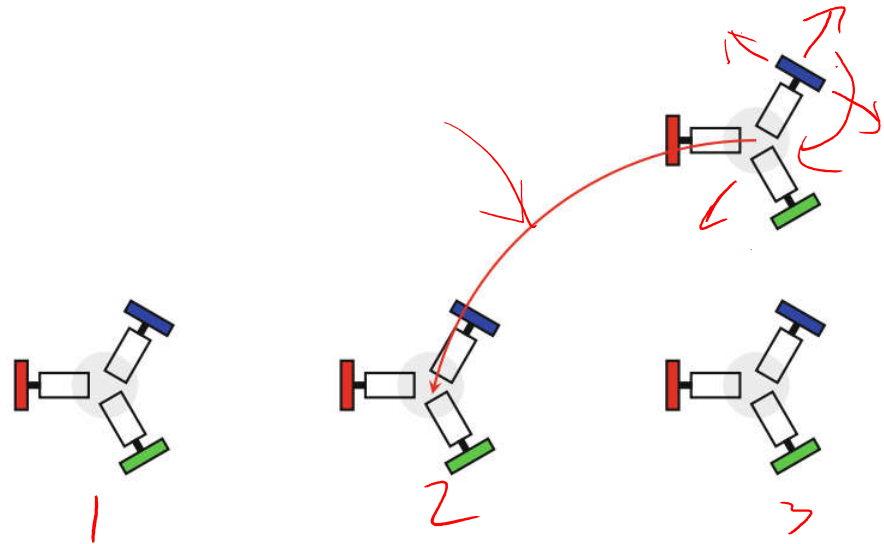


## Holonomic & Non-holonomic Motion

- Holonomic Motion
  - If  $\delta_m = \#DOF$
- Non-holonomic Motion
  - If  $\delta_m < \#DOF$



(a) Omnidirectional robot w/ 3 Swedish wheels



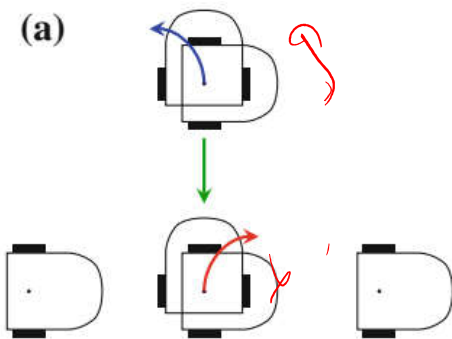
(b) Parallel parking by an omnidirectional vehicle



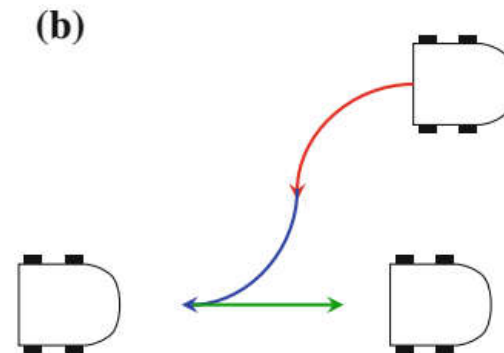


## Holonomic & Non-holonomic Motion

- **Non-holonomic vehicles**
  - *Need complex maneuverers to parallel park*
- **Differential drive robot**
  - *Three separate **simple** movements (rotate left → move back → rotate right)*
- **Car**
  - *Three separate extremely **difficult** movements*



(a) Parallel parking for non-holonomic diff drive robot



(b) Parallel parking for a non-holonomic car



## Summary

### ➤ Odometry

- ❖ Estimate speed & rotational vel from motor power to get position
- ❖ Trigonometric calculations needed when turning
- ❖ Still errors and very large if error is in heading
- ❖ Wheel encoders improve odometry

$\sigma_0 = 10\%$   
LG HG  
+ 1m + 5m

### ➤ Inertial navigation

- ❖ Use accelerometers & gyroscopes to improve accuracy
- ❖ Microelectromechanical systems made IN cheap enough for robotics use

### ➤ DOF is number of dimensions w/c it can move

- ❖ Num & config of actuators define its degree of mobility
- ❖ Holonomic:  $DOM = DOF$ , Non-holonomic:  $DOM < DOF$





**Thank you.**