

Taekwon Ga



#### The Key questions in Autonomous Mobile Robotics

- Where am I? 

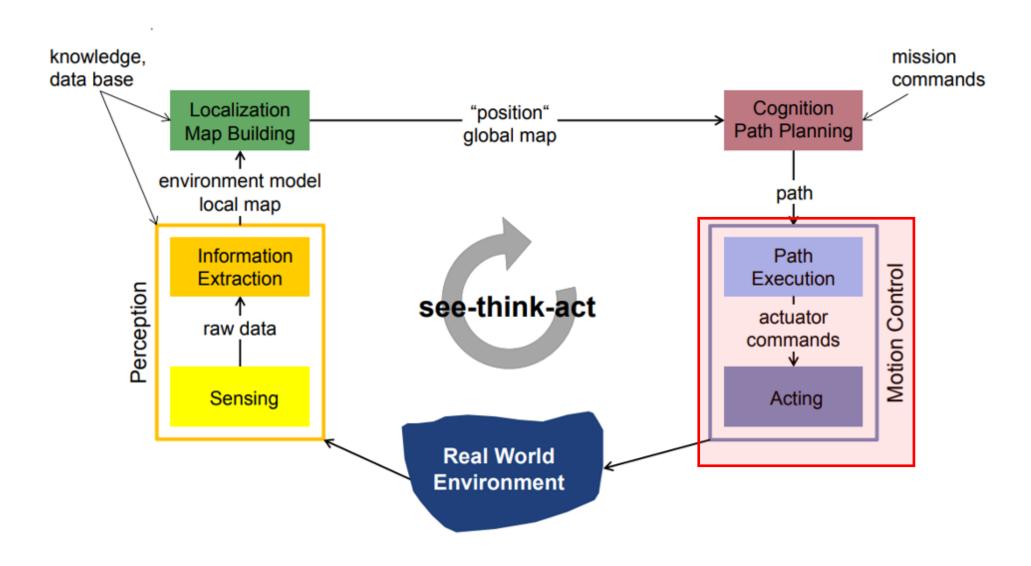
  → Localization
- How do I get there?

#### To answer these questions the robot has to

- have a model of the environment (given or autonomously built)
- perceive and analyze the environment
- find its position/situation within the environment
- plan and execute the movement



#### Kinematics and motion control

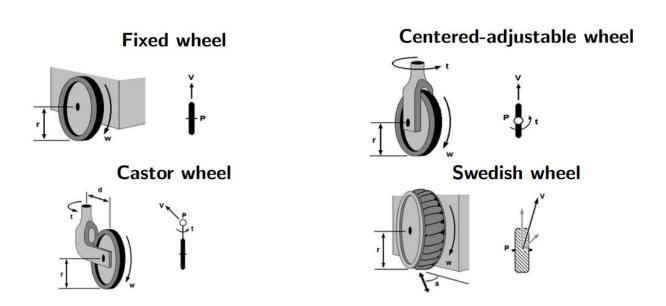




#### Kinematics and motion control

### Wheel Types

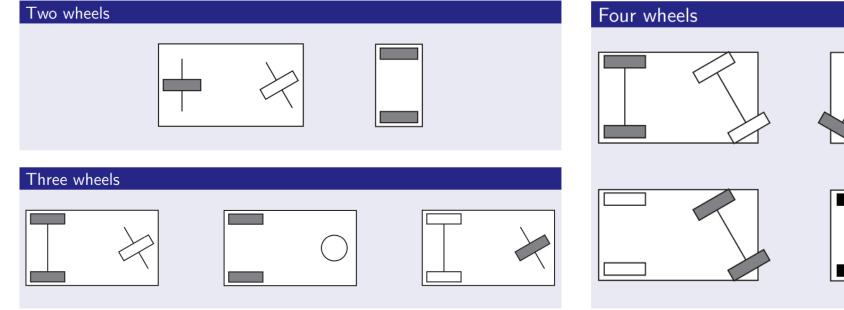
- Three wheels are sufficient to guarantee the static stability of the vehicle
- rolling constraint, no-sliding constraint (lateral)
- What wheels to use? How many wheels to use?

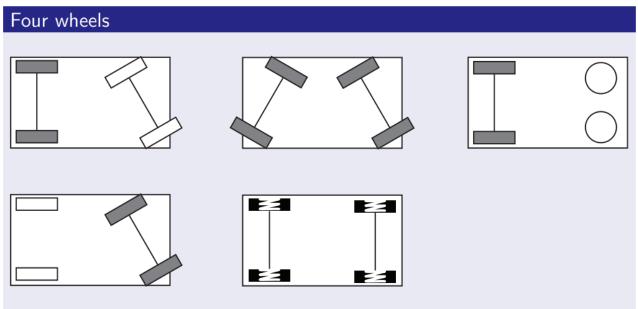




#### Kinematics and motion control

# **Possible Configurations**



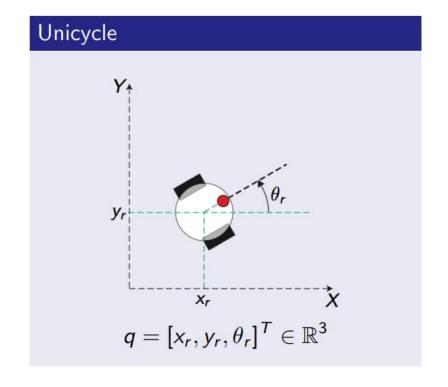


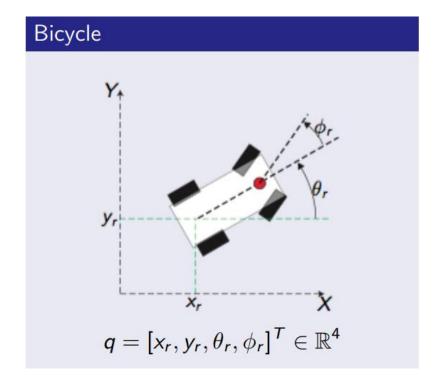


#### Kinematics and motion control

# **Configuration Space**

- It has dimensions equal to the number of parameters needed to uniquely describe the configuration of a mobile robot.
- Equivalent to the Joint Space for manipulators.







#### Kinematics and motion control

Kinematic model of a WMR(wheeled mobile robot)

### General formulation

$$\dot{q} = G(q)v$$

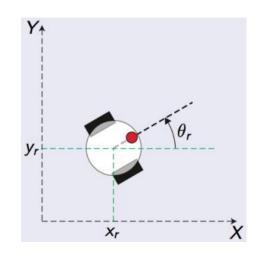
- It represents the allowable directions of motion in the configuration space (allowable velocities)
- It is required to deal with common problems of mobile robotics (Navigation, Localization, etc.)



#### Kinematics and motion control

#### Kinematic model of the unicycle model

\* Unicycle model: A motorcycle is a vehicle with a single adjustable wheel



$$\dot{q} = egin{bmatrix} \cos heta \ \sin heta \ 0 \end{bmatrix} v + egin{bmatrix} 0 \ 0 \ 1 \end{bmatrix} \omega = egin{bmatrix} \cos heta & 0 \ \sin heta & 0 \ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} egin{bmatrix} v \ \omega \end{bmatrix}$$

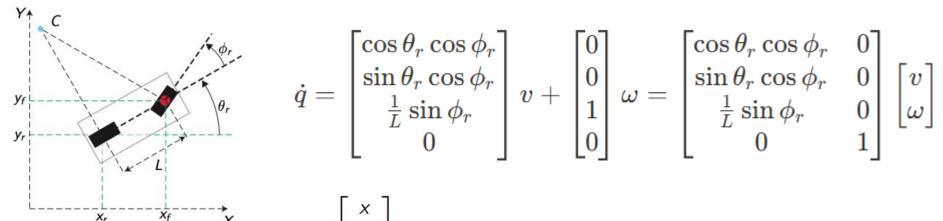
- The configuration is described by  $q = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ \theta \end{bmatrix}$
- v is the linear velocity of the contact point,  $\omega$  is the angular velocity of the robot
- Differential drive is the most popular unicycle type.



#### Kinematics and motion control

#### Kinematic model of the bicycle model

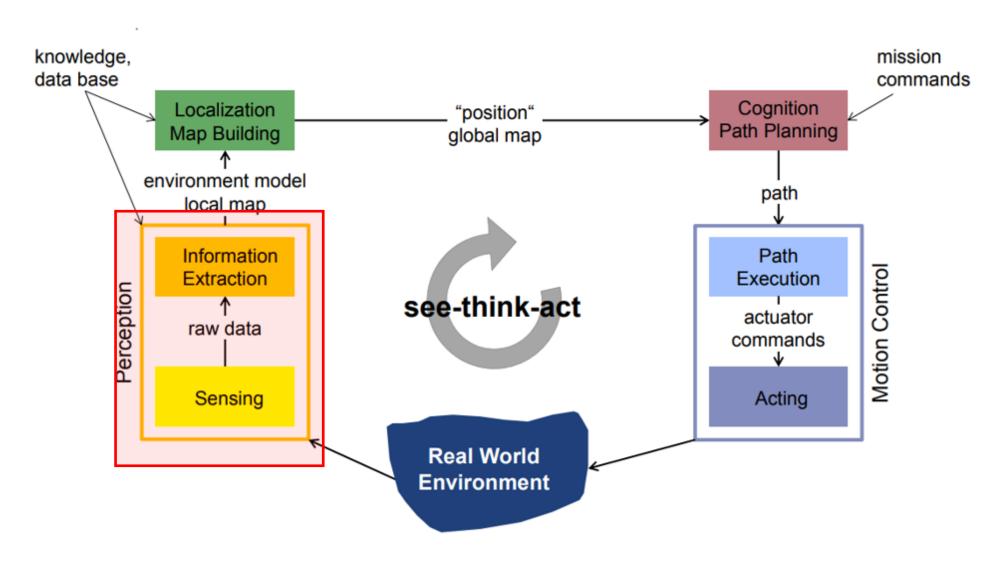
\* Bicycle model: A bicycle is a vehicle having a caster (adjustable wheel) and a fixed wheel with their rotation axes perpendicular to the longitudinal plane.



- The configuration is described by  $q = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ \theta \\ \phi \end{bmatrix}$
- The model vary depending on the reference point
- In practice kinematically equivalent structures but more stable from a mechanical point of view are used.(e.g. Car-like model, Tricycle model)



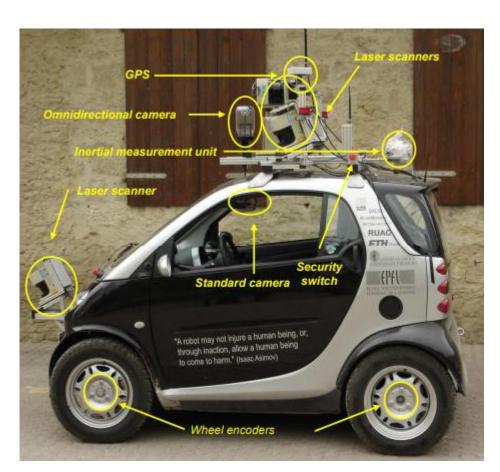
## Perception





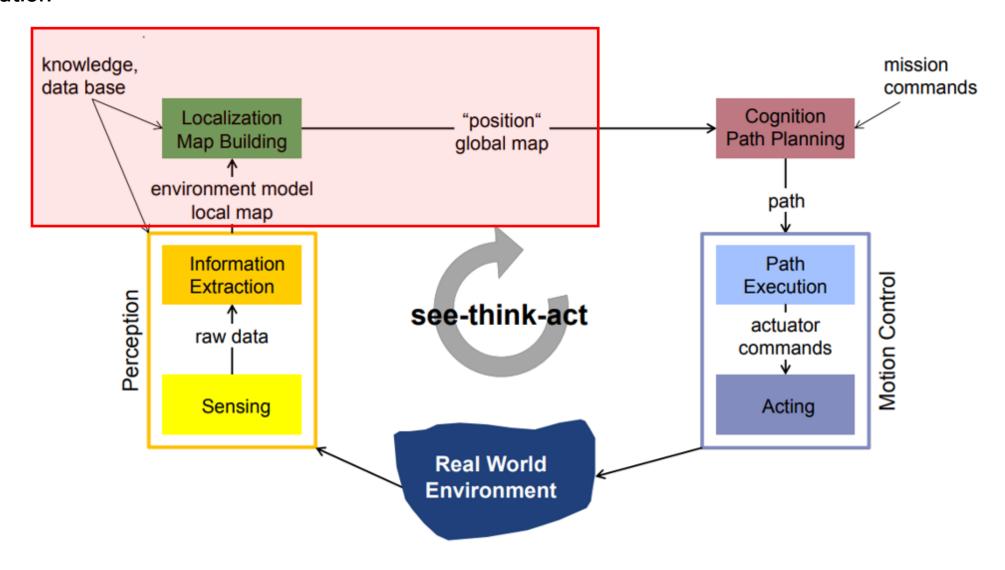
### **Sensors for Perception**

- Tactile sensors or bumpers
  - ✓ Detection of physical contact, security switches
- GPS
  - ✓ Global localization and navigation
- Inertial Measurement Unit (IMU)
  - ✓ Orientation and acceleration of the robot
- Wheel encoders
  - ✓ Local motion estimation (odometry)
- Laser scanners
  - ✓ Obstacle avoidance, motion estimation, scene interpretation (road detection, pedestrians)
- Cameras
  - ✓ Texture information, motion estimation, scene interpretation





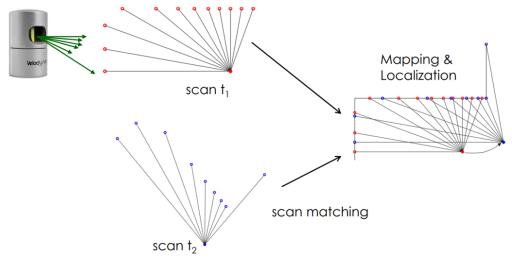
#### Localization





#### Localization

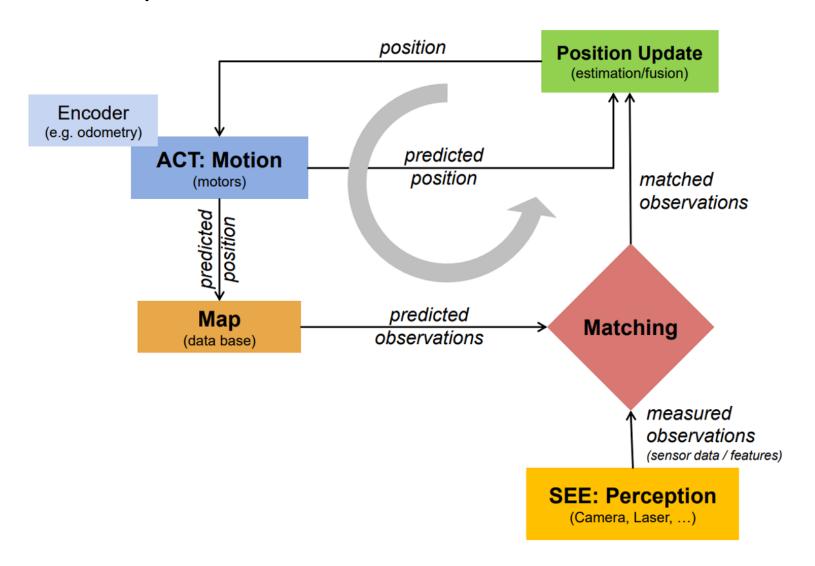
- Map-based localization
  - ✓ The robot estimates its position using perceived information and a map
  - ✓ The map
     might be known (localization)
     Might be built in parallel (simultaneous localization and mapping SLAM)
- Challenges
  - ✓ Measurements and the map are inherently error prone
  - ✓ Thus, the robot has to deal with uncertain information.
    - → Probabilistic map-based localization
- Approach
  - ✓ The robot estimates the belief state about its position through an SEE and ACT cycle



scan matching process of SLAM



Localization: the estimation cycle (ACT-SEE)



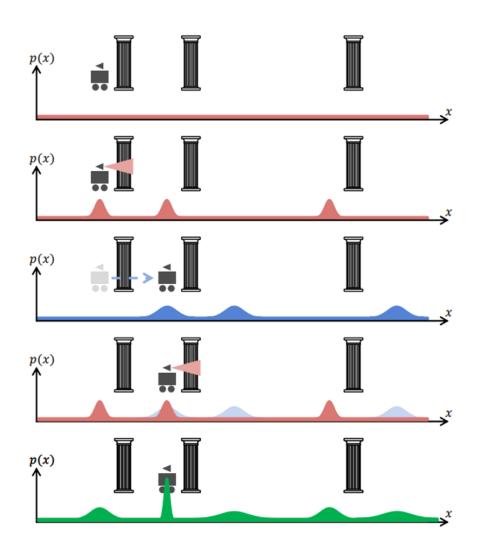


#### Localization: the estimation cycle (ACT-SEE)

- **SEE**: The robot queries its sensors
  - → finds itself next to a pillar

- ACT: Robot moves one meter forward
  - ✓ motion estimated by wheel encoders
  - ✓ accumulation of uncertainty

- SEE: The robot queries its sensors again
  - → finds itself next to a pillar
- Belief update (information fusion)





### **Bayes Filter**

• ACT(motion model): probabilistic estimation of the robot's new belief state  $\overline{bel}(x_t)$  based on the previous location bel $(x_{t-1})$  and the probabilistic motion model  $p(x_t|u_t,x_{t-1})$  with action  $u_t$  (control input).

$$\overline{bel}(x_t) = \int p(x_t|u_t, x_{t-1})bel(x_{t-1}) \, dx_{t-1} \qquad \text{for continuous probabilities}$$
 
$$\overline{bel}(x_t) = \sum_{x_{t-1}} p(x_t|u_t, x_{t-1})bel(x_{t-1}) \qquad \text{for discrete probabilities}$$

## \* Theorem of total probability

$$p(x) = \sum_{y} p(x|y)p(y)$$
 for discrete probabilities  $p(x) = \int_{y} p(x|y)p(y)dy$  for continuous probabilities



### **Bayes Filter**

• SEE(observation model): probabilistic estimation of the robot's new belief state bel( $x_t$ ) as a function of its measurement data  $z_t$  and its former belief state  $\overline{bel}(x_t)$ .

$$bel(x_t) = \eta p(z_t|x_t, M)\overline{bel}(x_t)$$

## \* The Bayes rule

$$p(x|y) = \eta p(y|x)p(x)$$
  $\eta = p(y)^{-1}$  normalization factor  $(\int p = 1)$ 



#### Bayes Filter

- Probability theory is widely and very successfully used for mobile robot localization.
- There are many methods for probability-based localization that apply Bayes filters.
  - ✓ Kalman Filter (KF, EKF, UKF)
  - ✓ Particle Filter (MCL, AMCL)
  - ✓ Histogram Filter
  - ✓ FastSLAM
- Further reading:
  - ✓ "Probabilistic Robotics," Thrun, Fox, Burgard, MIT Press, 2005.
  - ✓ "Introduction to Autonomous Mobile Robots", Siegwart, Nourbakhsh, Scaramuzza, MIT Press 2011

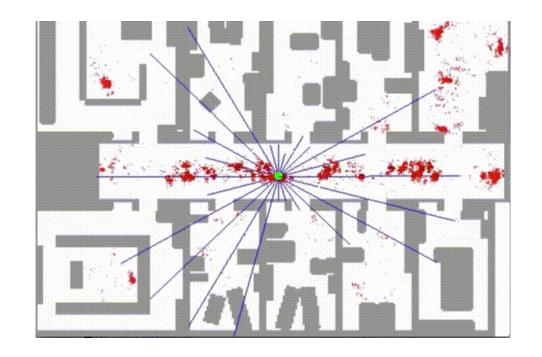
#### ❖ Exercise 1:

Describe 3 Bayes filter-based localization methods with their features, advantages, and disadvantages



#### Particle Filter

- The Kalman and Particle filters are algorithms that recursively update an estimate of the state and find the innovations driving a stochastic process given a sequence of observations. The Kalman filter accomplishes this goal by linear projections, while the Particle filter does so by a sequential Monte Carlo method.
- The Kalman filter relies on the linearity and normality assumptions. However, many models are non-linear and/or non-gaussian.
- Unlike Kalman filter, particle filter can handle non-linear dynamics and non-Gaussian noise distributions



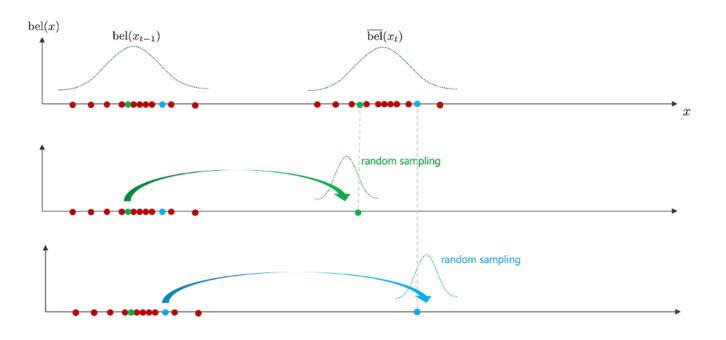


#### Particle Filter

#### 1. Prediction Step

For each particle, predict the next state using the system model.

$$ext{for } m = 1 ext{ to } M: \ ext{sample } ar{x}_t^{[m]} \sim p(x_t|x_{t-1}^{[m]},u_t)$$

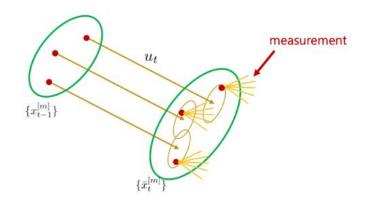


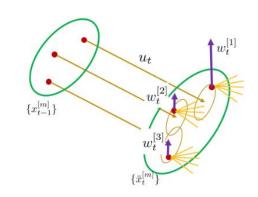


#### Particle Filter

#### 2. Correction Step

$$egin{aligned} x_t &= \{\} ext{ empty set} \ ext{for } m = 1 ext{ to } M : \ w_t^{[m]} &= p(z_t|x_t^{[m]}) \ ext{resample } ar{x}_t^{[m]} ext{ with probability } \propto w_t^{[m]} \ x_t &= x_t \cup \{ar{x}_t^{[m]}\} \end{aligned}$$



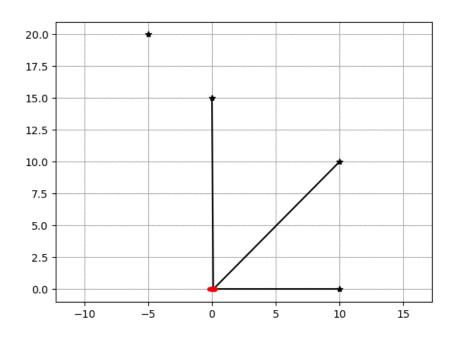


- 1. For each particle, calculate the weight based on the likelihood of the observed measurement  $z_t$  given the predicted state  $x_t^{[m]}$
- 2. Resample M particles according to their weights. (SIR, Sequantial Importance Sampling)



#### Python Example: Particle Filter

Particle Filter example with 4 RFID sensors, the robot can measure a distances from 4 RFID sensors.



$$s = egin{bmatrix} x \ y \ v \ \psi \end{bmatrix}, \qquad z = egin{bmatrix} d \ x_{sensor} \ y_{sensor} \end{bmatrix}$$

true trajectory
dead reckoning trajectory
estimated trajectory with PF



#### Python Example: Particle Filter

```
1:
              Algorithm Particle_filter(\mathcal{X}_{t-1}, u_t, z_t):
                    \bar{\mathcal{X}}_t = \mathcal{X}_t = \emptyset
                   for m = 1 to M do
                         sample x_t^{[m]} \sim p(x_t \mid u_t, x_{t-1}^{[m]})
                         w_t^{[m]} = p(z_t \mid x_t^{[m]})
5:
                         \bar{\mathcal{X}}_t = \bar{\mathcal{X}}_t + \langle x_t^{[m]}, w_t^{[m]} \rangle
6:
                    endfor
8:
                    for m=1 to M do
                          draw i with probability \propto w_t^{[i]}
9:
                          add x_t^{[i]} to \mathcal{X}_t
10:
11:
                    endfor
12:
                    return \mathcal{X}_t
```

```
def pf_localization(px, pw, z, u):
   Localization with Particle filter
   for ip in range(NP):
       x = np.array([px[:, ip]]).T
       w = pw[0, ip]
       # Predict with random input sampling
       ud1 = u[0, 0] + np.random.randn() * R[0, 0] ** 0.5
       ud2 = u[1, 0] + np.random.randn() * R[1, 1] ** 0.5
       ud = np.array([[ud1, ud2]]).T
       x = motion_model(x, ud)
       # Calc Importance Weight
       for i in range(len(z[:, 0])):
           dx = x[0, 0] - z[i, 1]
          dy = x[1, 0] - z[i, 2]
           pre_z = math.hypot(dx, dy)
           dz = pre_z - z[i, 0]
           w = w * gauss_likelihood(dz, math.sqrt(Q[0, 0]))
       px[:, ip] = x[:, 0]
       pw[0, ip] = w
   pw = pw / pw.sum() # normalize
   x_{est} = px.dot(pw.T)
   p_est = calc_covariance(x_est, px, pw)
   N_eff = 1.0 / (pw.dot(pw.T))[0, 0] # Effective particle number
   if N_eff < NTh:
       px, pw = re_sampling(px, pw)
   return x_est, p_est, px, pw
```



#### Python Example: Particle Filter

```
1:
           Algorithm Low_variance_sampler(\mathcal{X}_t, \mathcal{W}_t):
2:
                \bar{\mathcal{X}}_t = \emptyset
                r = \text{rand}(0; M^{-1})
3:
                c = w_t^{[1]}
5:
                i = 1
6:
                for m = 1 to M do
                    U = r + (m-1) \cdot M^{-1}
8:
                     while U > c
9:
                         i = i + 1
                         c = c + w_t^{[i]}
10:
                     endwhile
11:
                     add x_t^{[i]} to \bar{\mathcal{X}}_t
12:
13:
                endfor
14:
                return \bar{\mathcal{X}}_t
```

```
def re_sampling(px, pw):
    low variance re-sampling
    w_cum = np.cumsum(pw)
    base = np.arange(0.0, 1.0, 1 / NP)
    re_sample_id = base + np.random.uniform(0, 1 / NP)
    indexes = []
    ind = 0
    for ip in range(NP):
       while re_sample_id[ip] > w_cum[ind]:
           ind += 1
        indexes.append(ind)
    px = px[:, indexes]
    pw = np.zeros((1, NP)) + 1.0 / NP # init weight
    return px, pw
```



#### Python Example : Particle Filter

#### **\*** Exercise 2:

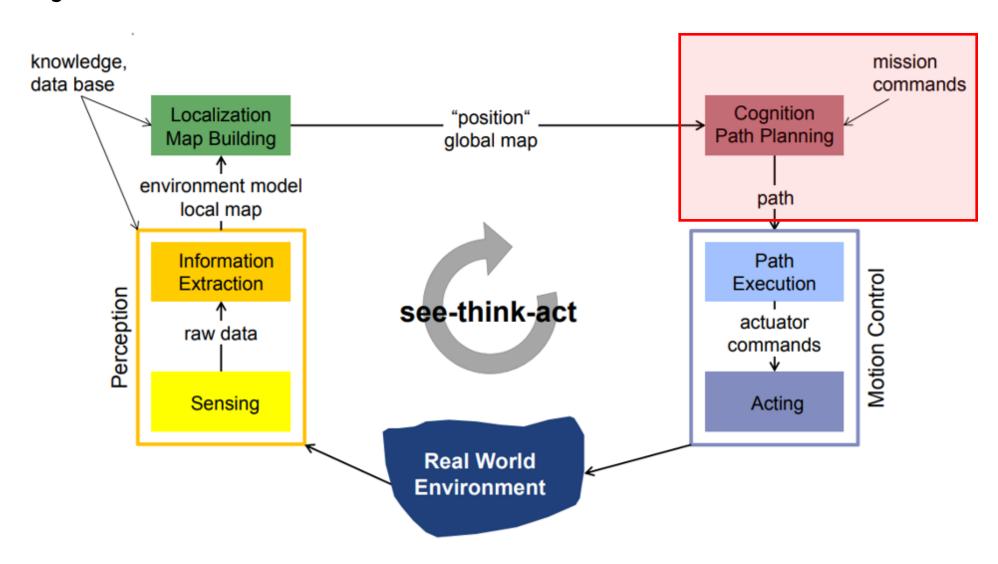
Implement a Particle Filter assuming that data is received from GPS sensors instead of RFID sensors.

- $\checkmark$  The GPS can measure the robot's x and y coordinates.
- $\checkmark$  Covariance matrix of the GPS  $\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1^2 \end{bmatrix}$ .
- ✓ Assume that the sensor model follows a Multivariate Gaussian Distribution.

$$p(z_t|x_t) = rac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2}|\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp\left(-rac{1}{2}(z_t - h(x_t))^T \Sigma^{-1}(z_t - h(x_t))
ight)$$

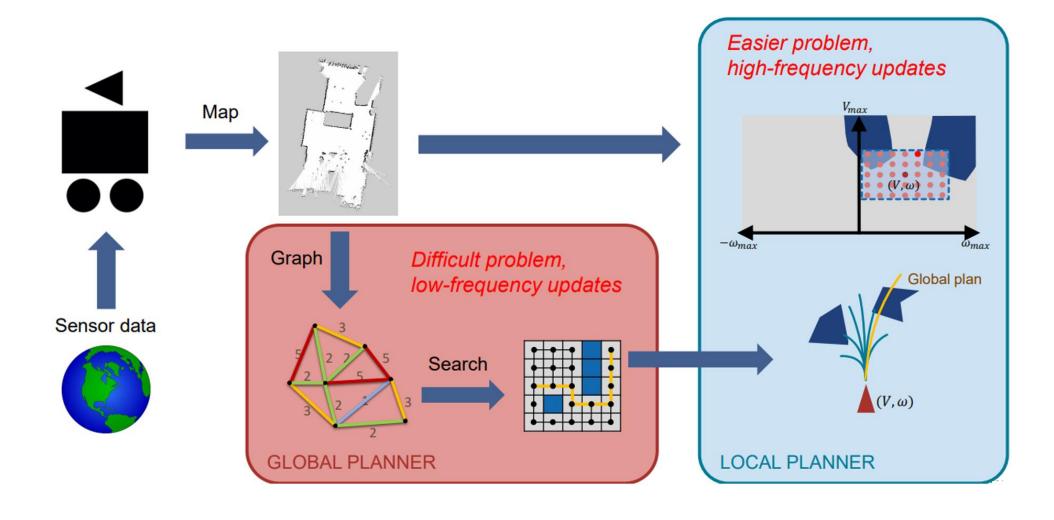


## Path Planning





### Path Planning Hierarchy for Mobile Robots





#### Path Planning Hierarchy for Mobile Robots

## **Global Path Planning**

- To set the overall path from the start to the goal
- global View
- low frequency
- static environment

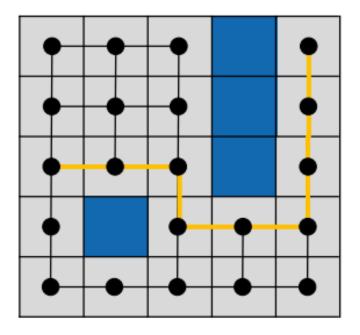
## **Local Path Planning**

- To help the robot follow the global path while avoiding obstacles and optimizing its movement in real-time
- local view
- high frequency
- dynamic environment



#### Global Path Planning: Grid-based Planning

- Finding the shortest path can be treated as a graph search problem
- Suffer from poor scaling in higher dimensions
- Algorithms
  - 1. Dijkstra's algorithm
  - 2. A\* Algorithm
  - 3. Breadth-first search
  - 4. Depth-first search

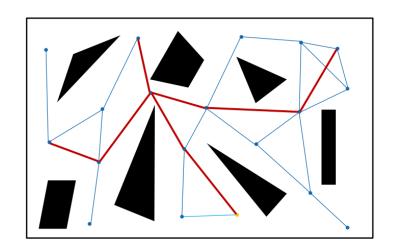


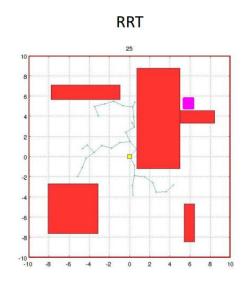
A\* is very commonly used in robot planning, especially for low-dimensional state spaces.

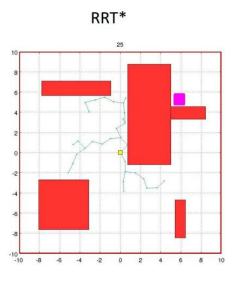


### Global Path Planning: Sampling-based Planning

- Finding a path by randomly sampling the robot's configuration space
- efficient in finding paths in high-dimensional spaces, making them suitable for robots with many degrees of freedom
- Algorithms
  - 1. RRT
  - 2. RRT\*
  - 3. PRM









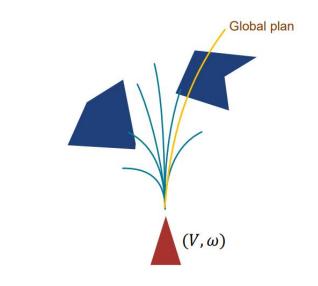
#### Local Path Planning: Dynamic Window Approach

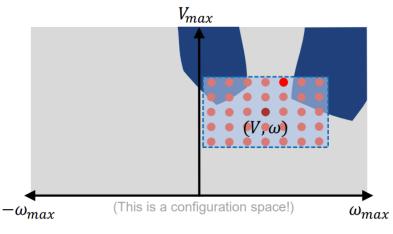
- Generating full time-varying trajectories for V(t) and  $\omega(t)$  is still very challenging
- If we assume  $(V, \omega)$  are constant for a fixed  $\Delta t$ , each local path in the future is a circular arc segment
- This can be easily considered as a type of velocity configuration space
- Maximise utility metric (usually maximise speed, minimize distance to goal, maximise distance from obstacles) across configuration samples

#### e.g.

Score:

 $G(v, \omega) = \alpha \operatorname{heading}(v, \omega) + \beta \operatorname{dist}(v, \omega) + \gamma \operatorname{velocity}(v, \omega)$ 

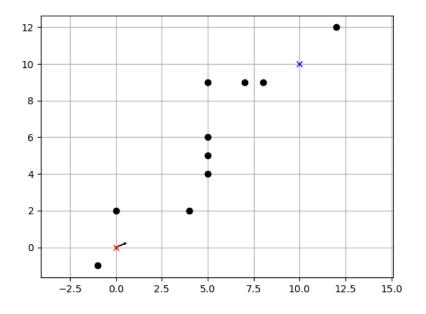






#### Python Example: Dynamic Window Approach

- This is a simple 2D navigation code with Dynamic Window Approach.(No global path planning!)
- red cross is a position of the robot and blue cross is a position of the goal.
- green line is a predicted trajectory calculated by dynamic window approach controller





#### Python Example: Dynamic Window Approach

#### Algorithm:

- 1. Sample feasible inputs
- 2. For each feasible input:
  - a. Simulate trajectory over horizon
  - b. Score trajectory
- 3. Pick control input that leads to best score

```
# evaluate all trajectory with sampled input in dynamic window
for v in np.arange(dw[0], dw[1], config.v_resolution):
    for y in np.arange(dw[2], dw[3], config.yaw_rate_resolution):
        trajectory = predict_trajectory(x_init, v, y, config)
        # calc cost
        to_goal_cost = config.to_goal_cost_gain * calc_to_goal_cost(trajectory, goal)
        speed_cost = config.speed_cost_gain * (config.max_speed - trajectory[-1, 3])
        ob_cost = config.obstacle_cost_gain * calc_obstacle_cost(trajectory, ob, config)
        final_cost = to_goal_cost + speed_cost + ob_cost
```

Exercise 3:

Why don't we use only a local path planner? Explain why global planning needs to be incorporated.