

# A Framework for Developing Modular Mobility Aids for People with Visual Impairment: An Indoor Navigation Use Case

1<sup>st</sup> Florian von Zabiensky

*Institute of Technology and Computer Science (ITI)*

*Technische Hochschule Mittelhessen*

*University of Applied Sciences*

Gießen, Germany

florian.von.zabiensky@mni.thm.de

1<sup>st</sup> Grigory Fridman

*ITI*

*Technische Hochschule Mittelhessen*

*University of Applied Sciences*

Gießen, Germany

grigory.fridman@mni.thm.de

2<sup>nd</sup> Oguz Özdemir

*ITI*

*Technische Hochschule Mittelhessen*

*University of Applied Sciences*

Gießen, Germany

oguz.oezdemir@mni.thm.de

2<sup>nd</sup> Sebastian Reuter

*ITI*

*Technische Hochschule Mittelhessen (THM)*

*University of Applied Sciences*

Gießen, Germany

sebastian.reuter@mni.thm.de

2<sup>nd</sup> Michael Kreutzer

*ITI*

*Technische Hochschule Mittelhessen*

*University of Applied Sciences*

Gießen, Germany

michael.kreutzer@mni.thm.de

2<sup>nd</sup> Diethelm Bienhaus

*ITI*

*Technische Hochschule Mittelhessen*

*University of Applied Sciences*

Gießen, Germany

diethelm.bienhaus@mni.thm.de

**Abstract**—Electronic Travel Aids (ETAs) are devices that help people with visual impairments navigate and orient themselves. The development of such devices is often associated with a loss of time in repetitive work, which means that progress in the field is slow. This quickly becomes apparent when reviewing the literature. This thesis addresses this issue and presents a way to efficiently develop in a component-based manner to enable exchange between research groups. To this end, a model for identifying component boundaries is presented and applied to a specific project. The project is an ultra-wideband indoor navigation system which demonstrates the benefits of such a development in practice. For reasons described in the text, the implementation is done using the Robot Operating System 2 (ROS2). Finally, the development process and the use of ROS2 are evaluated.

**Index Terms**—ETA, electronic travel aid, mobility aid, ROS2, ROS, robot operating system, component-based development

## I. INTRODUCTION

There is research into electronic travel aids (ETAs), i.e. aids for orientation and navigation for people with impaired vision. It is important to continually expand the possibilities of these aids and thus increase the mobility of those people.

However, when looking at these projects and their publications, it quickly becomes apparent that many of them have the same substance and there is little work that highlights new aspects or challenges existing aspects to achieve better results. Time may be an important factor in this. For example, if new types of acoustic representation of obstacles are to be explored, a basic framework must first be developed in which obstacles are recorded or simulated. This paper starts at this point, as there is a great potential for optimization. The aim should be to assemble ETAs from a pool of components according

to a modular principle. In the example, the components for environment detection and obstacle recognition from such a pool can be used to combine them with the novel acoustic representation of obstacles. In this way, all resources can be concentrated on the novel representation to achieve faster and better results.

For this purpose, we present a way to structurally divide ETAs into interchangeable components and evaluate its advantages.

There are proven frameworks and software for the presented development method that can be transferred to the domain of ETAs, which includes the Robot Operating System 2 (ROS2). In this context, an indoor navigation system is used as an example to describe its development and component distribution, as well as the experience gained during the development. These experiences, as well as the development itself, are finally reflected upon to openly present the positive and negative sides and to justify a recommendation for such a development.

## II. RELATED WORK

With a focus on ETAs, there are several development projects in the field of navigation systems for blind and partially sighted people. These projects use different approaches to help these individuals navigate safely in both indoor and outdoor environments. With the digital transformation of healthcare, Internet of Things devices can enhance the capabilities that can be achieved in this area. In [1], Khan et al. conducted a systematic literature review to analyse the challenges and opportunities of such 'smart navigation devices' that have been researched and developed over the last decade. Using structured selection criteria, the review identified 191 relevant

articles published between 2011 and 2020 in six different peer-reviewed digital libraries.

Khan et al. categorized various approaches to navigation systems for blind and visually impaired individuals into three parts. The study provides a comprehensive list of commonly used systems, tools, and hardware components as examples.

1) Approaches reported for navigation system development, e.g.:

- Indoor navigation system
- Mobile application
- Wearable navigation system and consists of wearable application strategies.

2) Technologies/tools proposed for navigation assistant development, e.g.:

- Raspberry Pi microcomputer
- MP Lab simulators and Proteus tools for hybrid development for deaf and blind people.

3) Hardware components proposed for obstacle avoidance, e.g.:

- Bluetooth beacons
- haptic devices
- Ultrasonic sensors
- GPS

It is evident that various projects developed in these fields share similarities in terms of system level, technology, and hardware components used, indicating that multiple development efforts can result in similar or identical solutions. This indication is present in most of the recent survey papers in the field of ETAs, e.g. [1]–[4]. A similar situation in the field of robotics was part of the driver for the Robot Operating System [5].

### III. PROBLEM STATEMENT

In 2007, then PhD students Eric Berger and Keenan Wyrobek discovered a fundamental problem in robotics research. A pattern was emerging in which researchers wanted to build on a proof-of-concept presented in a paper to implement their own idea. Either they lack details of the software used, or it is unusable for whatever reason, so they are often forced to spend 90 percent of their time rewriting other people's code and developing their own prototype test-bed. This leaves only the remaining 10 percent to develop their own innovation, which then lacks quality but enables the intended publication. This creates a cycle of reinventing the wheel and wasting a huge amount of time. This led to the idea of creating a kind of Linux for robotics with the Robot Operating System (ROS), containing a common set of software and developer tools that would allow roboticists to build innovative ideas on the successes of others [6].

Looking at the numerous projects that have already emerged in the field of ETAs (as seen in Khan et al.), one discovers this problem pattern again in many respects. In particular, the description of the selection process of the literature to be evaluated shows that many projects are similar and only a few add value to the state of the art. However, these findings

are rarely translated into products that benefit the end user. Both may be since the projects are usually developed from scratch and thus valuable resources are lost to be put into the actual core of the work. For example, the categorization in [1] of some of the ETA prototypes known from research according to their hardware components makes it easy to see that many projects use similar, if not the same, subsystems and devices. The same concepts and technologies are being used for similar, if not identical, tasks. This leaves little time for iterative improvements and testing with visually impaired people. To counteract this, this paper presents a component-based development that contributes to the exchange between working groups and thus to a faster and more efficient prototype cycle. To this end, we built up on ROS2, the successor of the above-mentioned ROS, which also serves as a motivator. In the field of mobile robotics, ROS2 has helped components to be exchanged and to communicate with each other in a uniform manner, so that individual working groups can work much more efficiently on their research problems. In this paper, the development of an indoor navigation system using a vibration vest as an output device is presented. This project is not put in focus because there are other projects with similar results. The focus of this paper is on how the development can be made more efficient, and this will be shown and evaluated using the indoor navigation example.

## IV. SOLUTION APPROACH

### A. HMI model for ETAs

If we look at the model of a human-machine interface in a very abstract way, it can be broken down according to Kantowitz and Sorkin [7] into the subcomponents shown in Fig. 1. A person (left) has the ability to acquire information through the senses available to him or her. This information is processed in the brain to make decisions based on it, such as operating the machine (right). The control components provided by the machine for this purpose have an influence on the internal state of the machine, from which outputs are generated to present information to the person. The two transitions between the human side and the machine side are called *human-machine interfaces*.

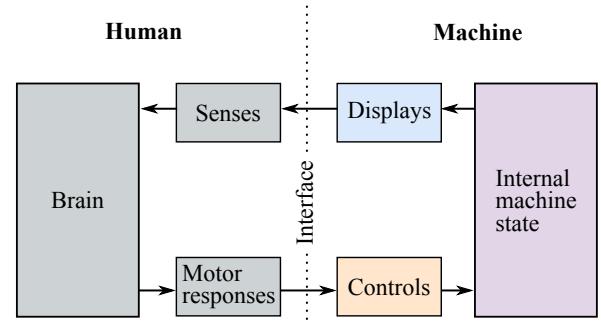


Fig. 1. Human-machine-interface model according to Kantowitz and Sorkin [7]

This model can also be used in an extended form to describe a visually impaired person and his mobility aid, where the physical environment is added as a crucial component (see Fig. 2). The ETA itself takes on the role of the machine by sensing relevant information about the environment (e.g. obstacles) and making it available to the person through an accessible information channel. The person's sensory system (the senses and perceptions available to him or her) takes in both this information and the information perceived directly from the environment (e.g. a car horn) and uses it to build up a *mental environment model* in the brain. The person can then influence the environment through their motor skills and, by interacting with the mobility aid, control its machine state and the *digital environment model* based on it. Other external information channels (e.g. online weather services) can also be used to enrich this digital model.

Looking into ETAs, the following system components, which are directly linked to the internal machine state, can be identified:

- 1) *Sensors*: Used to gather information from the immediate environment to build up an internal system state.
- 2) *Controls*: Used to directly control the assistive device without having to go through the environment.
- 3) *Additional Information Sources*: Sources of information not associated with the system itself, but which contribute to the construction of the internal state of the system.
- 4) *Displays*: Used to present information to the user, for visually impaired people to substitute the sense of sight, usually in acoustic or haptic form.

An overall system thus represents a composition of concrete instances of these components and a kind of business logic that receives information from *Sensors*, *Controls* and *Additional Information Sources*, converts it into a digital environment model thanks to certain algorithms, and provides a representation of it via *Displays*.

By defining good and consistent interfaces for individual component types, there are two advantages to such a component-based view. On the one hand, you can achieve easy *interchangeability* of individual components without having to adapt much to the overall system. Consider, for example, a navigation system that uses GPS to determine the current position of the user. Developing the same navigation system, but using RFID technology, would now require very little overall effort with a common interface, since only the sensors component would need to be changed. On the other hand, *reusability* increases with different overall systems that use the same subcomponents. As an example, consider an obstacle detection system and a navigation system, both of which use a vibration belt as a display component. The former uses it to signal obstacles in a particular direction, and the latter to indicate the direction of travel. If developed within a component-based framework, it would only be necessary to determine the obstacle or walking direction from the digital environment model, but not to redevelop the vibration belt as

a component.

When developing mobility aids, avoiding collisions with obstacles, following certain navigation routes or, more generally, minimizing dangerous situations play a crucial role. However, the testing of such dangerous situations is essential for the evaluation of the developed prototypes, which is why a *simulation environment* has great advantages in the development of ETAs. On the one hand, it increases reproducibility by allowing test persons to be led through the same scenarios and their behaviour to be recorded and statistically evaluated. It also increases variability, as a simulation environment can be freely parameterized and configured to meet a wide range of system requirements. For example, weather conditions, which often strongly influence the behaviour of a sensor- or camera-based ETA, can be changed with little effort. It is also possible to generate custom obstacles, roads, traffic situations, etc. Such variability is difficult to achieve in the real world. In addition, the dangerous situations mentioned above can be mitigated, as real collisions are impossible or can be provoked for testing purposes in a controlled environment.

Considering that individual components are to be used in a simulation environment with little effort, it makes sense to embed this environment in the model shown in Fig. 2. In principle, any of the components on the ETA side can be simulated, the most obvious being the physical environment and the sensors. The former is a *virtual reality* in the simulation, which requires it to be sensed by *virtual sensors*. Since such sensors can provide perfect, noise-free environmental data, it is possible to test displays, controls and the algorithm used to build the internal state of the machine individually and in a controlled manner. In the indoor navigation system presented in the next chapters, this is demonstrated in more detail using an example.

Looking at past research projects on ETAs, one can see the presented component-based structure in many of these overall systems, mentioned by Khan et al. in their literature review [1]. Often the boundaries between the individual components become blurred because they are very closely related, but the basic structure remains the same. This suggests that, again, components could be easily exchanged and reused in similar systems if they were developed within a standardized, common ecosystem.

#### B. ROS2 framework

One such component-based ecosystem is ROS2, which is a set of software libraries and tools for developing applications that originated in robotics (especially mobile robotics). It is open source and aims to support developers from different industries from research to prototyping, deployment and production using a standard software platform. The modular and flexible architecture allows easy integration of different hardware and software components, enabling the development of complex overall systems. A standardized real-time capable communication protocol enables efficient and reliable communication between different subcomponents of a system. It is not tied to a specific platform, nor is it domain or vendor specific. Because

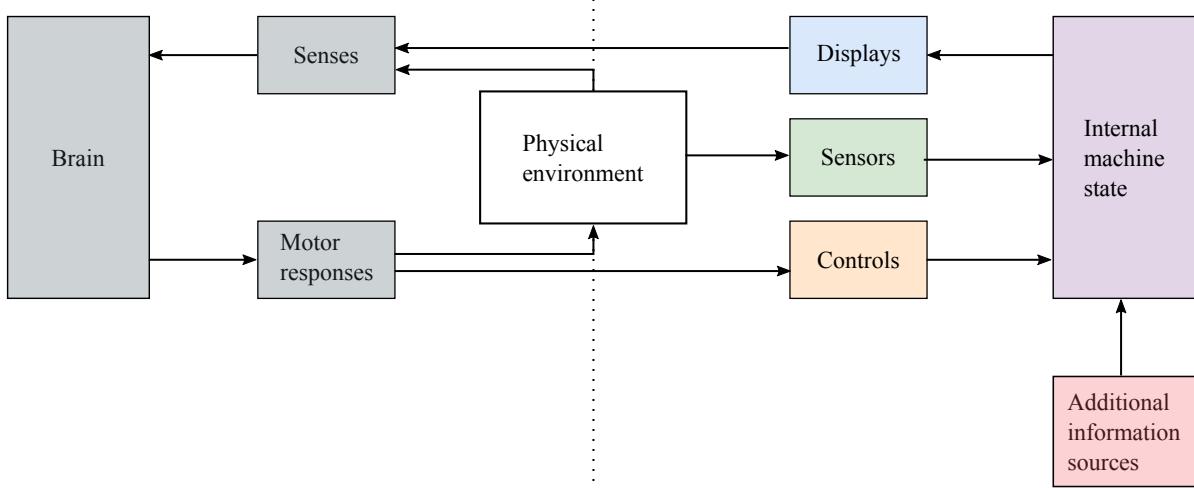


Fig. 2. Extended HMI model for ETAs

of its origins in mobile robotics, it provides many algorithms and sensor drivers to address problems of environmental perception, navigation and orientation, problems that are also common in the field of mobility aids. ROS2 simplifies the development and testing of complex systems by providing debugging, visualization and, above all, simulation tools.

In ROS2, development is strictly based on the “divide and conquer” principle by providing the following architectural components (see ROS2 documentation<sup>1</sup>):

- 1) *Nodes*: Independent processes that communicate with each other through different mechanisms.
- 2) *Topics*: Named event channels that allow nodes to communicate with each other. Nodes can publish messages to a topic, and other nodes can subscribe to that topic to receive those messages. Topics can have multiple publishers and subscribers, making it possible to build complex communication patterns between nodes.
- 3) *Services*: Remote procedure calls that allow nodes to request a specific task or information from another node in a synchronous way. Nodes that provide services and respond to requests are called servers, while nodes that request services are called clients.
- 4) *Parameters*: Parameters are used to store configuration data for nodes. Parameters can be set and retrieved by nodes, and they can be changed dynamically during runtime.
- 5) *Launch files*: Used to simplify the process of starting and configuring a ROS2 system by specifying a collection of ROS2 nodes, their parameters and other configuration details without having to start each node individually and configure it manually.
- 6) *Packages*: Collection of nodes, configuration and launch files and documentation, representing a subcomponent of a ROS2 system. They provide a modular and extensible

way to organize and distribute code, making it easier for developers to share and reuse code across different projects.

This architecture divides a system into a set of intercommunicating nodes, which are in turn organized into packages, providing a modular and extensible way to organize and distribute code, making it easier for developers to share and reuse code across projects. Beneath others, defining standard interfaces and the component-based development made it possible to build up a large and active community that constantly extends ROS’s vast array of code libraries, hardware drivers, documentation and support. The community supports a continuous exchange between scientists and new products.

## V. PROOF OF CONCEPT

### A. Indoor navigation system

Our proof of concept represents an indoor navigation system developed specifically for blind and visually impaired individuals. The following components were used in this particular use case.

- *bHapticsX40 vibration vest* from *bhaptics®* to provide haptic feedback for navigation instructions.
- *An ultra-wideband (UWB) real time location system (RTLS)* from *Pozyx®* to determine the indoor position and orientation of a person using anchors placed in the room and a tag attached to the person.
- *Smartphone App* for configuring the system and for recording and navigating along routes. Its compass feature can also be used as an alternative to the Pozyx tag for providing orientation information.
- *A Raspberry Pi 4* is used for computing operations such as handling services for route recording, providing heading correction for navigation instructions and feedback generation through vibration modes.

To operate the system, all components must be connected to the same network. The Raspberry Pi serves as the primary

<sup>1</sup><https://docs.ros.org/en/humble/index.html>

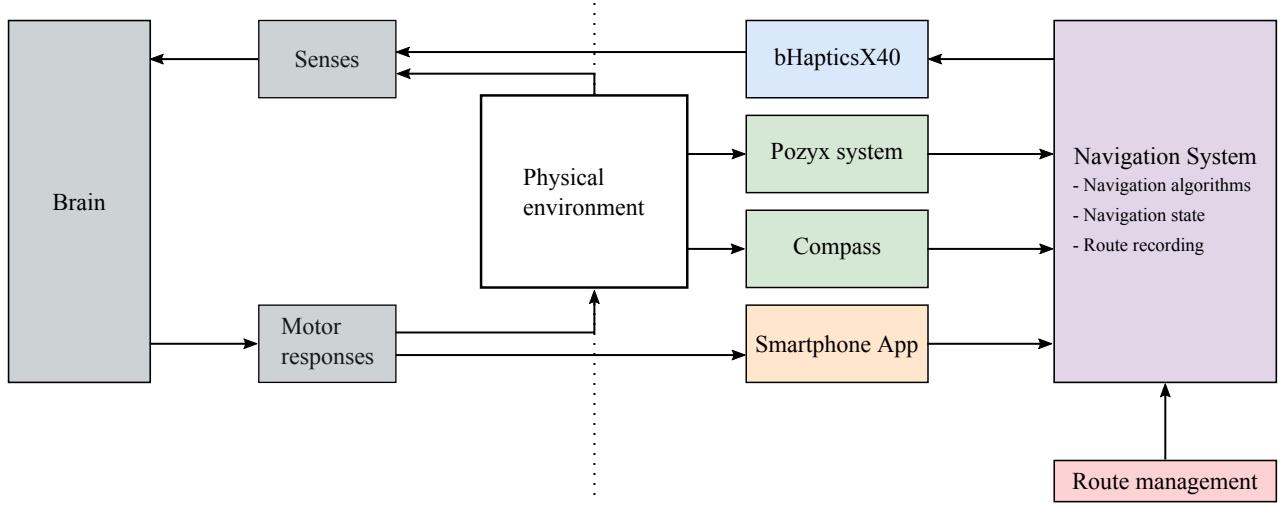


Fig. 3. Indoor navigation system according to Fig. 2

hub for most of the nodes required in the ROS2 ecosystem. The vibration vest, with a Pozyx tag attached, can transmit its current position and orientation data to the Raspberry Pi.

A smartphone app provides necessary communication interfaces to the ROS2 ecosystem, allowing the user to change the parameters of the system and so reconfigure it at runtime. In addition, he can record new routes and navigate along already recorded ones. When a route is selected, the navigation system running on the Raspberry Pi estimates the nearest navigation point available on the route and calculates a heading correction based on the real-time data from the Pozyx tag. This heading correction is translated into an appropriate vibration pattern on the vest to indicate the direction in which the user should move for safe navigation along the predefined path. As an alternative, audio feedback displayed over the headphones connected to the smartphone can be used for navigation instructions.

The system can be adapted to the model presented in section IV by breaking it down into its components. Here the vest takes on the role of the *display*, the Pozyx tag or the smartphone compass corresponds to the *sensors* and the remaining features of the smartphone application represent the *controls* part. The *internal machine state* is formed by the navigation algorithm and business logic running on the Raspberry Pi. The part of the business logic responsible for recording, persisting and retrieving routes can be seen as an *additional source of information* that enriches the internal machine state and the digital environment model it contains (see Fig. 3).

To demonstrate the practical use of a simulation environment in relation to the development of ETAs in general and specifically with ROS2, the simulation tool *CARLA*, which is widely used in autonomous driving research, was used. It is also open source and, in addition to existing maps, actors and assets, allows the creation of custom scenarios and the free configuration of environmental factors such as weather and

lighting conditions. It also offers a range of different virtual sensors such as LIDAR, cameras, GPS, etc. However, the biggest advantage for the concept proposed in this paper is CARLA's built-in integration with ROS2 via a bridge. Using predefined ROS2 topics, it is possible to both read simulated sensor data and control the movement of virtual actors such as pedestrians. In the use case presented here, CARLA replaces the indoor environment and the Pozyx system for determining position and orientation (see Fig. 4). This makes it possible, for example, to test the display components separately without having to reckon with sensor inaccuracies or the influence of a test person's behaviour.

Now we will look at the development process and architecture of this system and how ROS2 supports it and enables to fulfil the properties of component-based reusability and interchangeability.

#### B. Development process

Starting with the core functionality, navigation, the necessary nodes, inputs and outputs were defined. The central node provides a single output, a heading correction value. To provide correct and up-to-date values, it requires the route to be followed and the current position and orientation of the user. Inputs and outputs lead to the definition of their respective interfaces and the nodes that provide the necessary inputs. This means that the navigation logic consists of three nodes and has five interfaces (see Fig. 5).

- 1) *Navigate route* (action), provided by the navigation and called by the user over the smartphone app
- 2) *Position* (topic), provided by the Pozyx RTLS or the CARLA simulation
- 3) *Orientation* (topic), provided by the Pozyx RTLS, the smartphone compass or the CARLA simulation
- 4) *Load route* (service), provided by the Route Management and called by the navigation logic

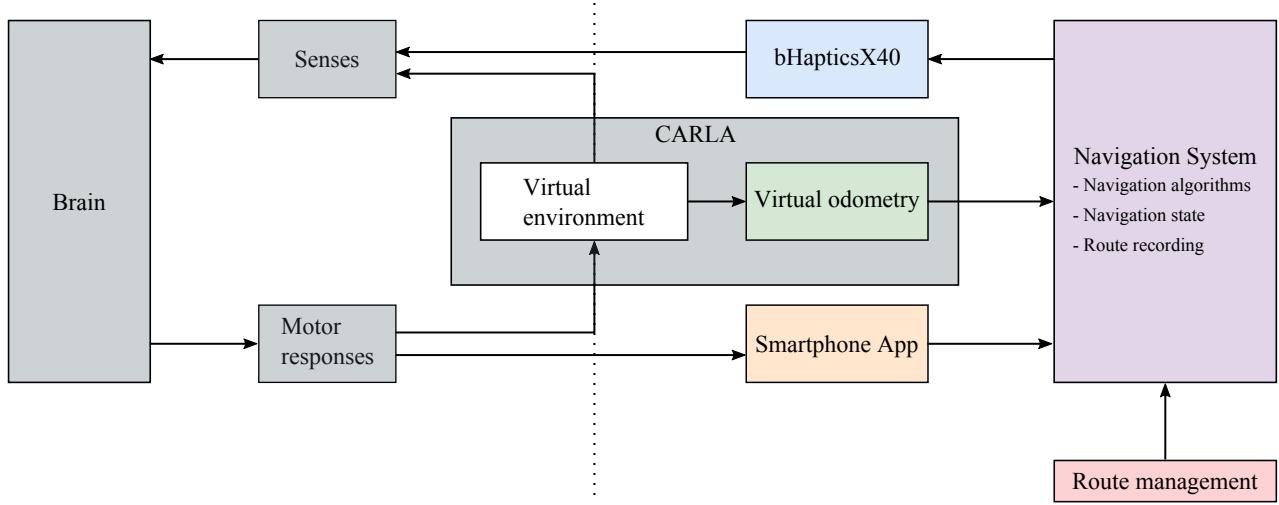


Fig. 4. Indoor navigation system with CARLA simulation as environment and sensors substitution

- 5) *Heading correction* (topic), provided by the navigation system and consumed by the feedback device (bHapticsX40 or headphones)

The result is a fully functional navigation system with a freely configurable setup of sensing and user interface devices – even swapping devices on the fly is possible. Each device requires its own node or set of nodes to transfer data to and from the ROS2 ecosystem and to satisfy the interfaces owned by the navigation service. For example, the software for the bHapticsX40 vest currently consists of two nodes: A driver node responsible for connecting to the vest via Bluetooth, and a feedback node that translates the heading correction feedback into different motor patterns (see Fig. 6).

To enhance usability beyond direct control via command line terminals, a user interface application must access a service client node. The interaction between the user interface and the service client node is the least clean implementation detail, as ROS2 does not inherently support direct user interaction.

As the manual creation of routes as sets of coordinates was rather tedious and error-prone, the second service, for route recording, was conceived. It allows the user to record their current location and save it as a route for later retrieval by the navigation service. This route recording service was easily implemented using the existing nodes for the navigation service and proved to be a significant improvement over manually entering coordinates. At this stage, control of both services was limited to launching the required nodes with a set of parameters. To increase control and make it more dynamic, separate control nodes with additional user interfaces were next designed and implemented. As the number of nodes and possible configurations increased, it became necessary to organize the startup configurations using a modular system of ROS2 launch files. A semi-automated deployment method allowed different distributions of nodes between hardware components to be tested. The actual (graphical) user interfaces

in the form of the smartphone app were the last components to be implemented.

### C. Architecture

The resulting architecture follows a microservices approach. For example, the existing system with two services, the navigation itself and a utility for recording the route, can be easily extended, both by adding new types of services and by redundancy of existing ones. This guarantees the degree of scalability and elasticity required by possible use cases, such as indoor navigation in public buildings.

The internal structure of the existing services has many similarities. Both consist of controller, business logic and helper components realized by ROS2 nodes. The controller nodes provide the user-facing interfaces necessary to control the services and translate ROS external user input for the ROS2 system. The business logic nodes produce the service functionality, possibly with the help of utility nodes. They interface with the controller nodes via ROS 2 interfaces, i.e. actions and services. By structuring services as a collection of nodes, a single service can be distributed across several separate hardware systems if a specific use case requires it. If this flexibility is not required, the nodes of a service can be run on a single system and configured to run in shared-memory mode to optimize performance. The trade-offs can be considered on a case-by-case basis without changing the node implementation.

The general trade-offs of the chosen architecture can be summarized as follows: Future requirements for new additional functionality, scalability and elasticity can be easily met. Components, especially sensing and user interface devices, can be added and replaced at low cost. Performance is limited by the degree of distribution chosen for a particular deployment. Even with only two services, the actual implementation is structurally and operationally complex.

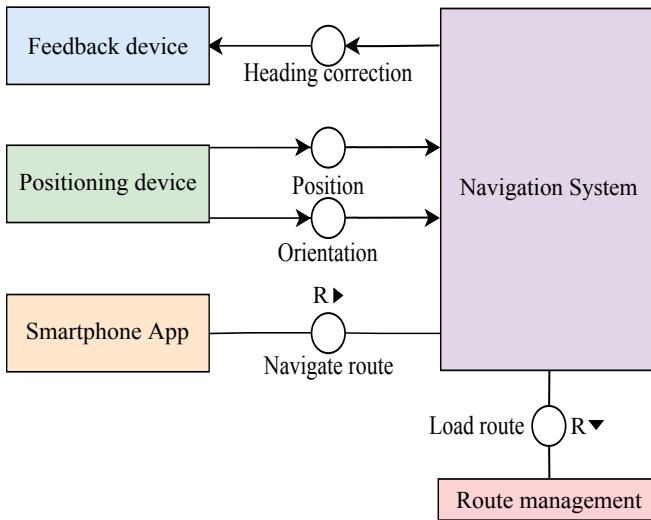


Fig. 5. Abstract FMC<sup>3</sup> model of a navigation system according to Fig. 2, to show device exchangeability

## VI. RESULTS AND EVALUATION

Looking at the architecture of the indoor navigation system just presented, one can see the benefits of reusability and interchangeability of individual components presented in section IV for the HMI-ETA model. The bHapticsX40 vibration vest, which acts as a *display* component and is represented by a package in ROS2, will serve as an example. The navigation package provides an azimuth and elevation angle via the heading correction topic, which is consumed by the bHapticsX40 package. By defining this asynchronous data channel independent of the display component in the form of a ROS2 topic, a high degree of loose coupling is achieved between the package providing the navigation feedback and the package consuming it. This loose coupling allows interchangeability on both sides of the data channel. On the one hand, the display component can be replaced by a headset package, for example, which communicates the feedback to the user acoustically using a text-to-speech algorithm. In this case, both the topic and its message format, as well as the navigation package, could be reused. On the other hand, the indoor navigation of pre-recorded routes could be replaced by any other navigation package (e.g. outdoor navigation using GPS and an external map service), as long as it respects the heading correction topic as an interface to the display component. Again, neither the data channel nor the display component (whether vest or headphones) needs to be touched.

However, ROS2 supports modularized development of reusable components not only at the level of entire components of the HMI model, but also within the individual components. Fig. 6 illustrates this clearly. It shows the structure of the bHapticsX40 component as a composition of two ROS2 nodes

and the physical vibration vest. The separation into a ROS2 driver node, which handles the actual Bluetooth communication with the vest, and a feedback generation node, which transforms the received heading correction into a concrete vibration pattern, again promotes loose coupling of the software components. While the former is independent of the concrete overall system and can therefore be reused at any time, the latter can be exchanged in the presented project depending on which of the two feedback representation modes is used. If, on the other hand, you were to use a similar vest made by a different manufacturer that uses a Wi-Fi connection instead of Bluetooth, replacing the driver node would allow you to quickly reuse the entire system.

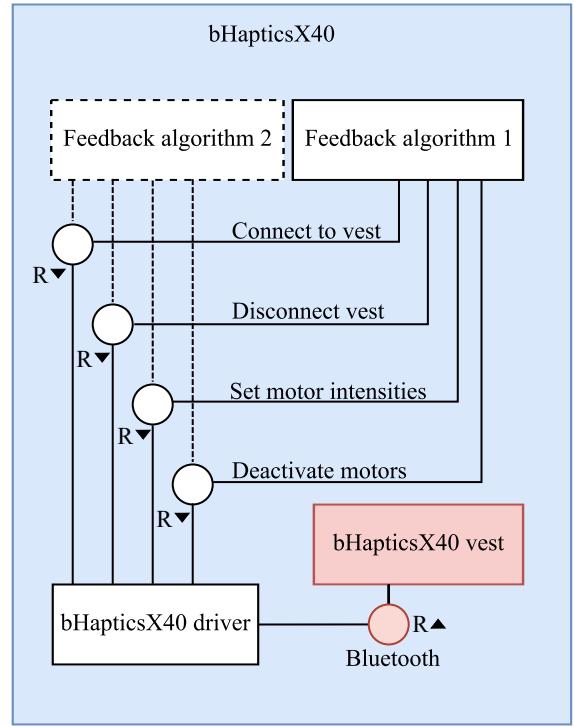


Fig. 6. FMC model of the vibration vest implementation regarding exchangeable algorithms. The red parts are visualized for a full overview and not part of the software system. The bHapticsX40 component is a display device according to Fig. 2

In addition to the simple definition of generic communication interfaces and the resulting loose coupling, the interchangeability of components in ROS2 is also made possible by the definition of launch files. This is where the entire system is assembled and configured using so-called *launch arguments*. Components in the form of packages and nodes can be added to or removed from the system as needed and can be adjusted by specifying node parameters.

Generally speaking, ROS2 proved to be very accessible. The first few tutorials provided enough knowledge to design and implement the whole navigation system with the ROS2 Python API. Designing a distributed system did not require any additional work thanks to the node structure and the topic, service, and action interfaces. This pre-structuring also

<sup>3</sup>Fundamental Modelling Concepts (FMC), see <http://www.fmc-modeling.org/>

assisted with the definition of clean interfaces and division of labour within the team. Deployment, together with launch configurations, was less accessible and considerably less well documented. Only the myriad of existing ROS2 projects and the associated launch files provided any orientation in this regard.

The lack of documentation in some cases may be due to the fact that ROS2 is an open-source framework. Although the ROS2 community is usually very active and helpful, there is no guarantee of support compared to proprietary systems, which can make the lack of documentation all the more problematic. However, the open-source status does have some advantages, including complete transparency in the provision of the source code. This means that issues or vulnerabilities can be discovered and addressed more quickly by the community. It also allows everyone to contribute to the development and to share knowledge and expertise, features that could drive forward ETA research. However, it must be recognized that building up a community can be a long and arduous process. Even ROS, which was developed at Stanford University in 2007 and evolved into its now well-known successor ROS2 in 2015, did not immediately have the reputation it has today and took years to build such a large community.

The types of problems encountered in robotics have many similarities with those encountered in the indoor navigation project. This means that many of the robotics-oriented packages created for ROS2 could be adapted accordingly. An example of this is the *tf2* package provided by the ROS2 community, which makes it possible to track the temporal evolution of several interdependent coordinate systems and to perform transformations between these frames in a simple and efficient way. This is an essential component in robotics, as such calculations are the basis for calculating the individual joints of a robot arm, for example. In the indoor navigation project presented here, *tf2* was able to help transform coordinates from the global coordinate system of the Pozyx system to that of the person being navigated, and thus determine a heading correction.

For the same reason, there are already some packages for hardware components for ROS2 that allow the integration of different sensors from different manufacturers, although this is not visible in the proof of concept. Examples include camera, LIDAR or ultrasound drivers that can be used in robotics as well as ETA development without much expertise or training.

Simulation in ROS2 is also well-supported. Nodes are configurable for a simulated environment without the need for any code changes. The debugging tools within the ROS2 ecosystem proved to be extremely helpful and easy to use, as well. Not surprisingly, GUI functionality is an aspect not supported within the ROS2 ecosystem, but various types of bridge tools provide the possibility to access ROS2 interfaces.

In summary, ROS2 provides the necessary building blocks for a high degree of loose coupling thanks to the provided architecture components such as topics, nodes, packages and launch files, thus supporting a modularized, component-based development of ETAs from the ground up. The challenges

and work areas known from (mobile) robotics, which also need to be addressed in ETA development, such as navigation or environmental perception, are facilitated by the tools and drivers already available in ROS2, allowing most of the time to be spent on the actual development of innovative ideas.

## VII. CONCLUSION

While research into ETAs and mobility aids for the blind and visually impaired in general has produced numerous research papers and demonstrators over the past decades, reviews of these technologies show that the wheel is often reinvented. Both the individual hardware components and the algorithms used to generate feedback, among other things, are redeveloped instead of shared. A lack of exchange between research groups and the use of different development ecosystems means that these software and hardware components often have to be developed and integrated from scratch. This takes up valuable resources that are not available, e.g. for developing innovative concepts or testing them with visually impaired users.

This paper presented an approach to this problem by introducing a framework for a component-based development of ETAs that promotes the reusability and interchangeability of components across projects within a standardized ecosystem. To this end, a mode for identifying ETA component borders by using a human-machine interaction view was presented (see Fig. 2). The components were identified as displays, sensors, controls, a machine internal state and additional information services. It can be concluded that an ETA is generally suitable for decomposition into loosely coupled building blocks. This subdivision can also be seen in systems already known from the literature. Furthermore, individual components can be replaced by a simulation, allowing certain other components to be tested in a more flexible and risk-free manner.

ROS2 was proposed as an existing open-source framework to support the component-based development of ETAs. The development with ROS2 and the component-based development was shown in the form of an indoor navigation system. This example uses UWB technology for localization with a vibration vest taken from the virtual reality gaming domain, to present the advantages and disadvantages of such an ETA development.

Two features of ROS2 proved to be particularly important advantages. One is the background of ROS2, which is mainly in mobile robotics. The overlap between the problems addressed in robotics and ETAs, and the technologies used to address them, is remarkably large. Examples include real-time navigation and environmental perception, for which ROS2 already provides appropriate sensor drivers, standardized interfaces and algorithms, and tools for testing and visualizing the systems. The need for a simulation is also a common use case in robotics.

On the other hand, ROS2 is designed to support a component-based development. A loose coupling between ROS2 nodes and packages is enabled by the definition of custom asynchronous data channels and launch files, in which components can be configured and integrated. This creates

the reusability and interchangeability touted in this paper that could drive ETA development.

Although the fact that ROS2 is an open-source framework has limitations, such as a lack of documentation or support, it enables rapid results and innovation, not least because of the large and active community, especially for research.

Considering the possible implications for the future development of ETAs using ROS2, the framework we have started and presented would need to be extended with even more components and system compositions to further illustrate how generic and versatile it is. To facilitate exchange between different research groups, an open platform could be created where components, algorithms and complete systems could be published in the form of ROS2 nodes, packages and launch files. However, to ensure compatibility between components from different developers and systems, a more concrete policy for their creation needs to be formulated by defining rules and specifications. Then new components could be easily integrated. Although, experience with other open-source frameworks has shown that building a community to collaboratively share knowledge and expertise can be challenging.

#### REFERENCES

- [1] S. Khan, S. Nazir, and H. U. Khan, "Analysis of Navigation Assistants for Blind and Visually Impaired People: A Systematic Review", IEEE Access, vol. 9, pp. 26712–26734, 2021, doi: 10.1109/ACCESS.2021.3052415.
- [2] M. D. Messaoudi, B.-A. J. Menelas, and H. Mccheick, "Review of Navigation Assistive Tools and Technologies for the Visually Impaired," Sensors, vol. 22, no. 20, p. 7888, Oct. 2022, doi: 10.3390/s22207888.
- [3] B. Kuriakose, R. Shrestha, and F. E. Sandnes, "Tools and Technologies for Blind and Visually Impaired Navigation Support: A Review," IETE Technical Review, vol. 39, no. 1, pp. 3–18, Jan. 2022, doi: 10.1080/02564602.2020.1819893.
- [4] M. Hersh, "Wearable Travel Aids for Blind and Partially Sighted People: A Review with a Focus on Design Issues," Sensors, vol. 22, no. 14, p. 5454, Jul. 2022, doi: 10.3390/s22145454.
- [5] M. Quigley et al., "ROS: an open-source Robot Operating System", in ICRA workshop on open source software, 2009, vol. 3, no. 3.2, p. 5.
- [6] K. Wyrobek, "The Origin Story of ROS, the Linux of Robotics," IEEE Spectrum, Oct. 31, 2017. <https://spectrum.ieee.org/the-origin-story-of-ros-the-linux-of-robotics> (accessed Feb. 26, 2023).
- [7] B. H. Kantowitz and R. D. Sorkin, Human Factors: Understanding People-System Relationships, 1st edition. New York Chichester Toronto: Wiley, 1991.