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ENGINEERING · MANAGEMENT · LAW · SCIENCES · HUMANITIES · EDUCATION
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THINK MERIT | THINK TRANSPARENCY | THINK SASTRA

Autonomous Mobile Robots
MCT 308

Autonomous Mobile Robots

Introduction & History of Mobile Robotics



Introduction

- What is robotics? What is a robot?
- Why use robots?
- Who is involved in robotics?
- Where are robots?



What is a Robot?

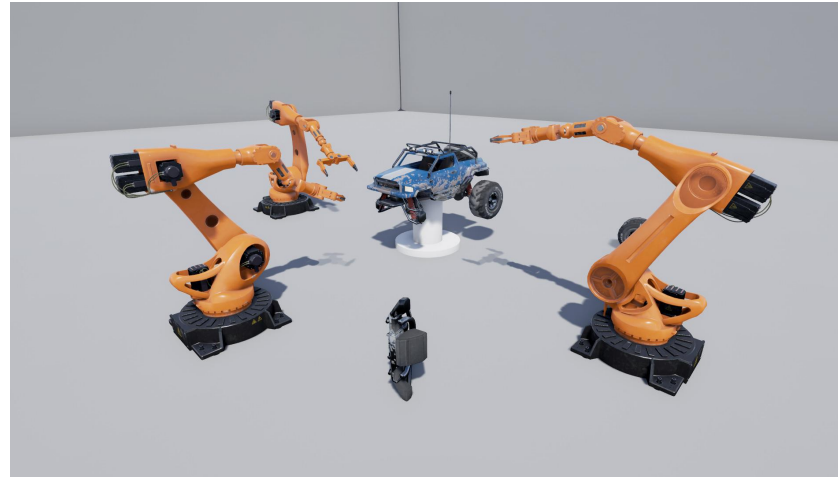
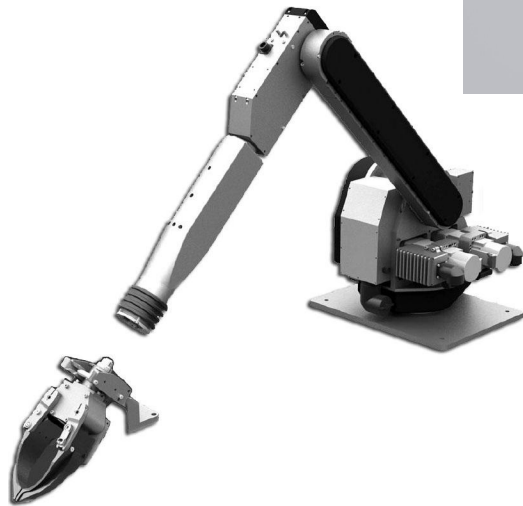
- Intuitively, a device that can replicate some human activity
- *Webster*: "an automatic device that performs functions ordinarily ascribed to human beings."
- *Oxford*: "A machine capable of carrying out a complex series of actions automatically, especially one programmable by a computer"
- *International Organization for Standardization (ISO)*: "An automatically controlled, reprogrammable, multipurpose manipulator programmable in 3 or more axes, which can be either fixed in place or mobile for use in industrial automation applications"
- *Robot Institute of America (1979)*: "An industrial robot is a **reprogrammable multifunctional manipulator** designed to move materials, parts, tools, or specialized devices, through variable programmed motions for the performance of a variety of tasks."
- " operating in the three-dimensional world as a machine endowed with the capacity to interpret and to reason about a task and about its execution, by intelligently relating perception to action."



Why use robots?

- 4Ds
 - Dangerous
 - Dirty
 - Dull
 - Difficult
- High precision and speed
- Market factors: driving low cost, efficiency

Industrial Manipulators





What are Autonomous Mobile Robots?

- Mobile: Move around in environment, such as manufacturing plant
- Autonomous:
 - Perform tasks with minimum instructions
 - Can make decisions and act independently

What is needed for Autonomy and Mobility

- Goal: to move unsupervised in an environment



Locomotion mechanism

- Wheels
- Track
- Legs
- Propellers (air, underwater)

Perception

- Vision
- Proximity
- Tactile

Localization & Mapping

Planning & Navigation

- Path
- Trajectory
- Tracking
- Obstacle avoidance

History of Mobile Robots

- 1967 – General Electric Co. produce 4 legged vehicle that was remotely operated
- 1968 – Stanford Research Institute makes **Shakey** intelligent mobile robot with vision, optical range finder and touch sensors, ability to understand and react to verbal English commands, moved in highly irregular jerky manner
- 1975 - Raibert - one legged hopping machine, first dynamically stable
- 1983 – Mobile robots – Odetics develops experimental 6-legged robot with gait based on humans and insects
 - Teleoperated – for use in nuclear power plants



Shakey: Photo – SRI International



Additional Material

- **Odex-1 Walking robot:** youtube.com/watch?v=EWX9iRw33OE
- **Robots from MIT-Leg Lab:** youtube.com/watch?v=AFXj81mvInc
- **Shakey:** youtube.com/watch?v=GmU7SimFkpU



History of Mobile Robots

- 1984 – French shipbuilding company – tested marine mobile robot for cleaning sides of ship
- 1990s – Diversified into walking robots at MIT, humanoids (Honda), rehabilitation robots, healthcare robots, defense and space applications
- 2000s – Development of micro and nano robots using smart materials, Unmanned aerial vehicles and Unmanned Underwater vehicles – Tesla, Roomba, Drones, ASIMO ...

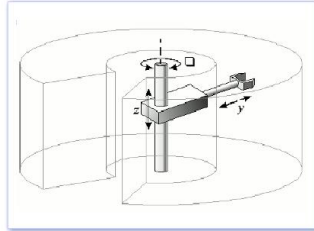
Classification of Robots – Based on Locomotion

STATIONARY ROBOTS

Cartesian Robots



Cylindrical



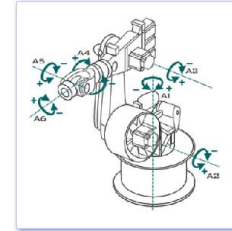
Spherical



SCARA



Articulated

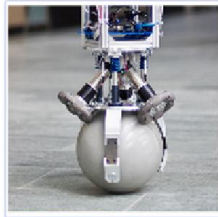


Parallel

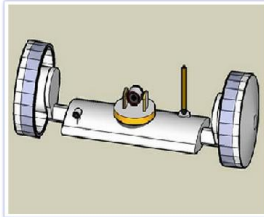


WHEELED ROBOTS

Single Wheel



2 Wheeled



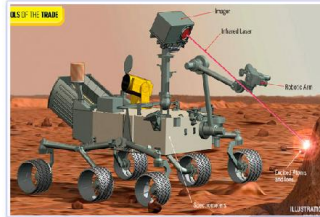
3 Wheeled



4 Wheeled



6 Wheeled



Tracked Robots



LEGGED ROBOTS

One Leg



Bipedal



Tripedal



Quadrupedal



Hexapod



Many Legs





Locomotion

- Locomotion mechanisms are needed to move through environment

Biologically-inspired locomotion mechanisms

- Walk
- Jump
- Run
- Slide
- Swim
- Fly
- Roll

Biological systems are very intricate and complex to replicate

Wheeled locomotion

Course will only focus on wheeled and legged systems



Legged locomotion v/s Wheeled locomotion

Legged Locomotion

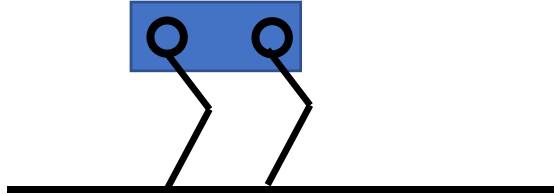
- Consider human legs
- High number of degrees of freedom
- Mass associated with leg and body
- Can adopt to variations in terrain

Wheeled Locomotion

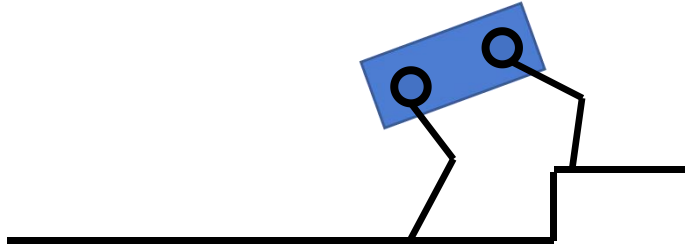
- Wheels most suited for flat terrains and ground
- Requires ground to be flat and hard
- Cannot handle uneven terrains easily

Legged locomotion v/s Wheeled locomotion

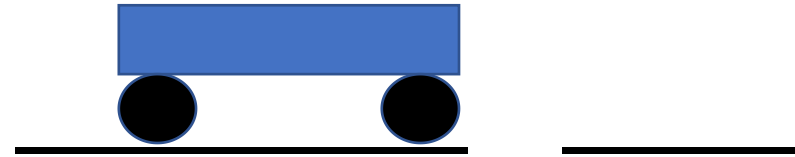
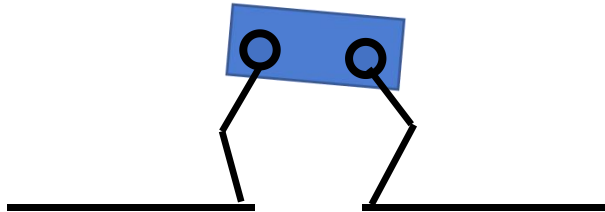
Flat Terrain



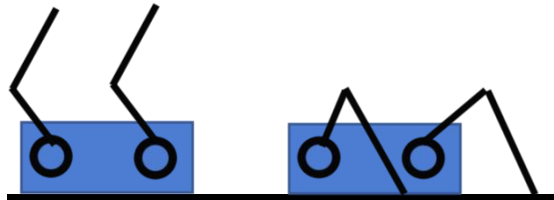
Steps



Gaps



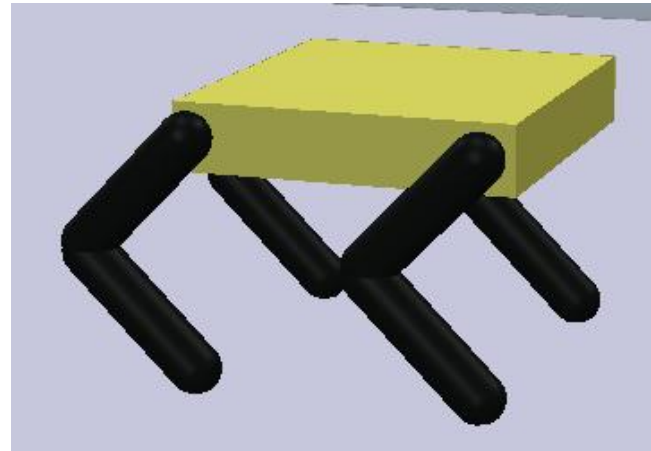
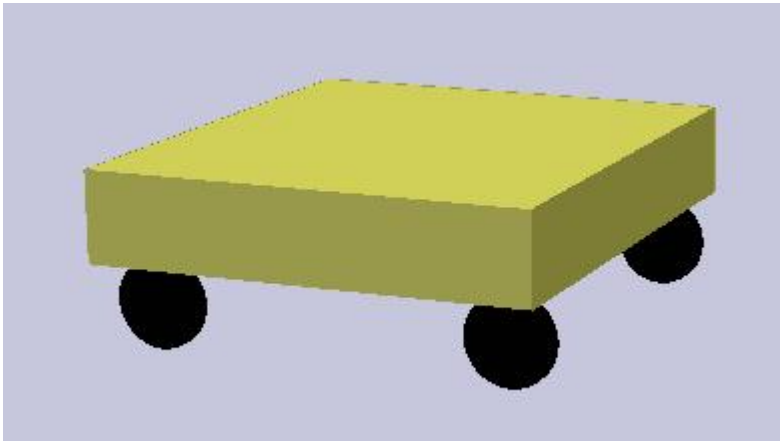
Flipped/Fallen



Legged locomotion can help overcome usual challenges in wheeled locomotion, but at cost of complexity

Locomotion – key issues

- Basic principle of locomotion: use actuators to generate interaction forces through contact

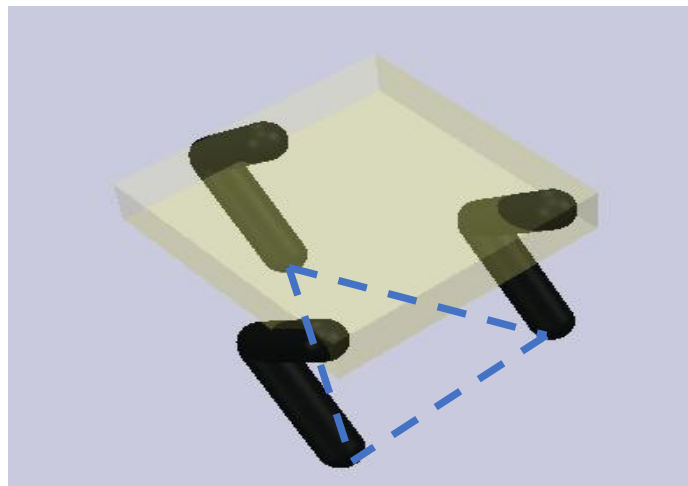
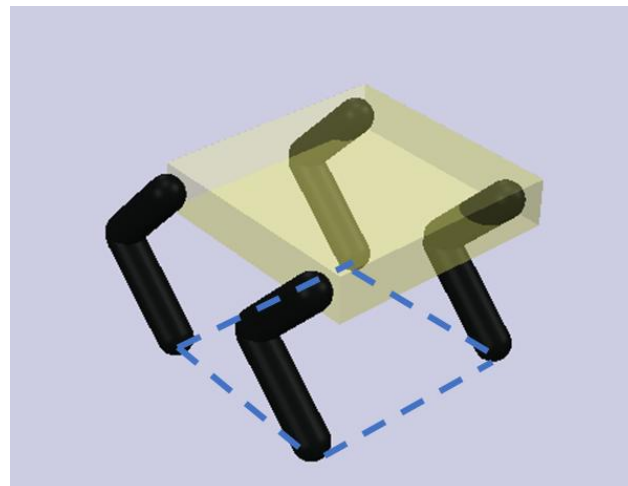
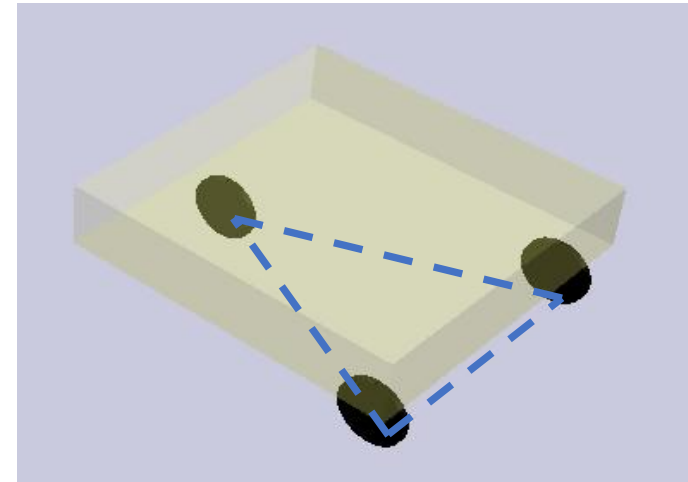
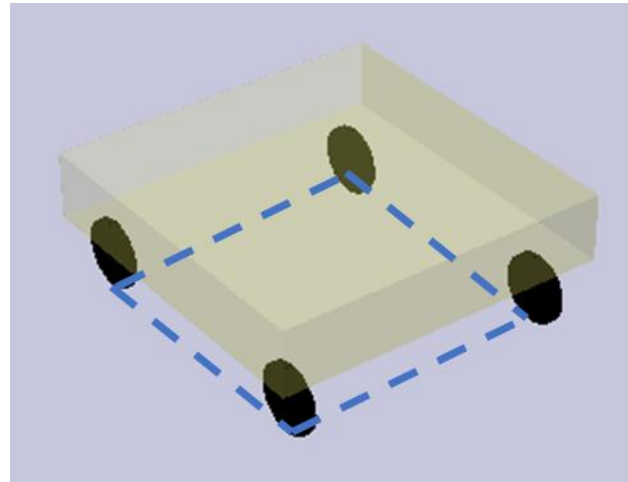


- Issues of **stability**, **contact characteristics** and **type of environment** need to be looked into

Key Issues in Locomotion - Stability

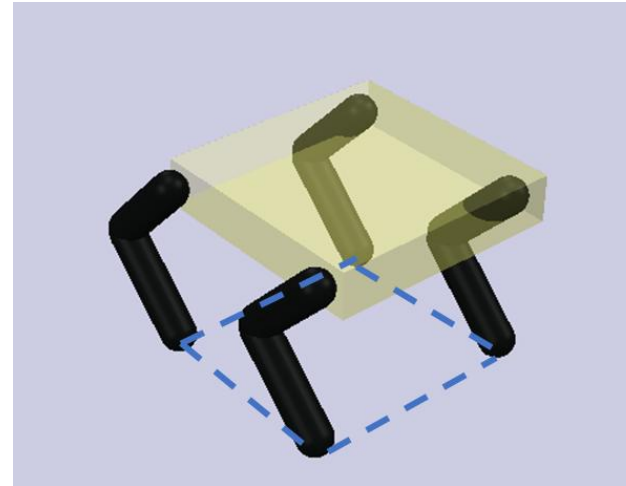
Stability

- Number of contact points
- Geometry of contact points
- Static/dynamic stability
- Inclination of terrain
- Centre of gravity



Key Issues in Locomotion – Contact Characteristics & Type of Environment

- Contact characteristics
 - Contact point size & shape
 - Angle of contact
 - Friction
- Type of Environment
 - Medium (ground, air, water, hard, soft)





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Module 5: Legged Locomotion



Characteristics

- Legged locomotion is characterized by a series of point contacts between robot and ground
- Advantage of this type of locomotion is adaptability and maneuverability in rough terrain
- Quality of ground between points does not matter
- Capable of crossing gaps, holes if reach exceeds width of hole
- Legs can also be used to manipulate objects in certain cases



Characteristics (contd.)

- Disadvantages :
 - Mechanical complexity is more
 - Power required is more
 - Each leg requires multiple degrees of freedom and therefore more motors and control
 - This also adds more mass to the system
 - Legs also need to be able to lift and lower the robot
 - High maneuverability is possible only if sufficient degrees of freedom exist to impart forces in a number of different directions

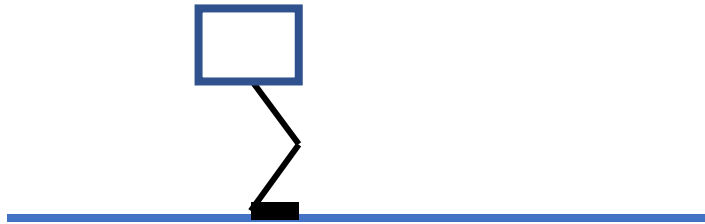


Leg configuration

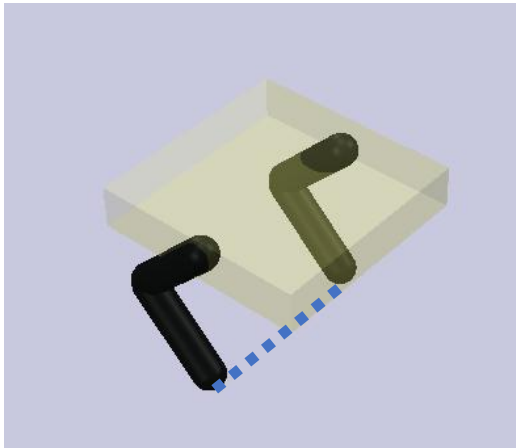
- In biological organisms:
 - 2 legs - humans
 - 4 legs - animals
 - 6 legs – insects
- In robots:
 - 1 leg
 - 2 legs - biped
 - 4 legs - quadruped
 - 6 legs - hexapod

Stability

- Stability of single-legged system:
 - Ankle and feet help increase contact area and improve stability



- Stability of a two-legged system





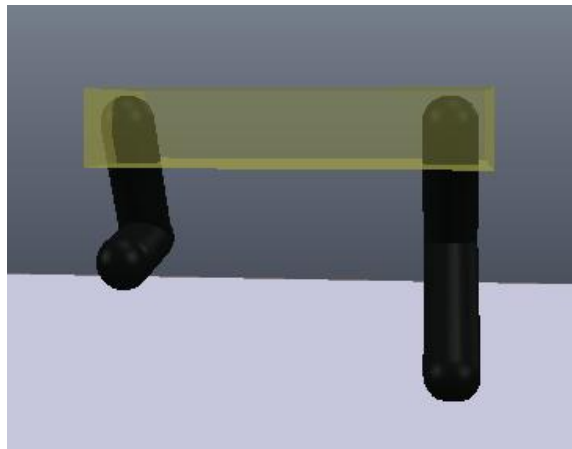
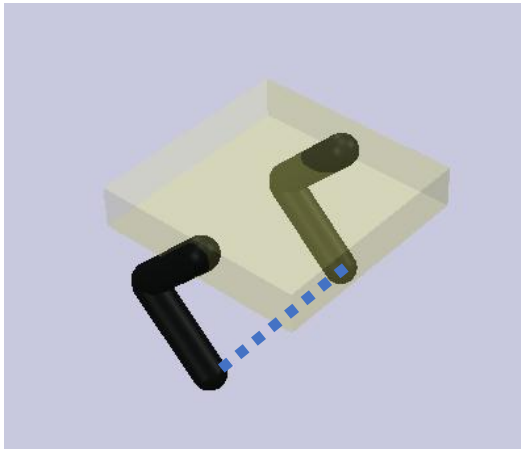
Static Stability

- When balance is maintained without need for motion, system is said to have static stability
- Think of two-, three- and four-wheeled vehicles
- Three points of contact on the ground ensure that an area is available for CG projection to fall within

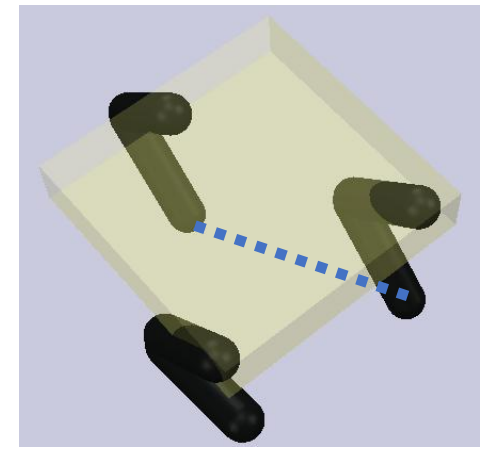
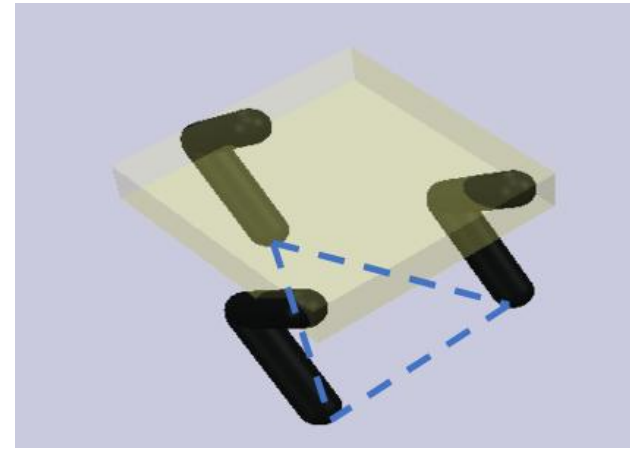
Stability

- Moving requires lifting of legs
- Stability is affected when leg is lifted

- Two-legged system



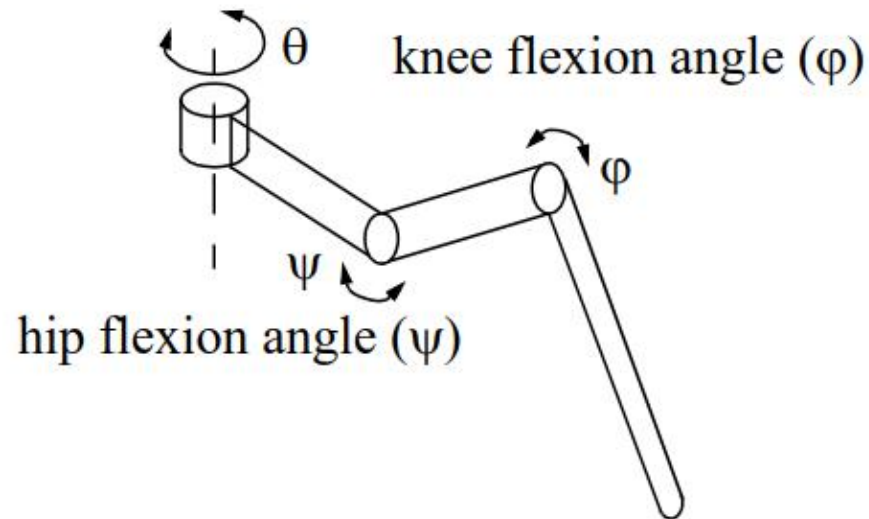
- Three-legged system



Legged locomotion

- Each leg can have multiple degrees of freedom
- Typically, legs for robots each have 3 degrees of freedom: hip abduction, hip-flexion and knee-flexion

hip abduction angle (θ)



Legged locomotion

- 3 degrees of freedom: hip abduction, hip-flexion and knee-flexion



Simulation in CoppeliaSim – Educational Version



Adding more DoFs

- Advantages:
 - Increases maneuverability
 - Increases range of terrains on which robot can travel
 - Can generate more variety of gaits
- Disadvantages
 - Need additional actuators
 - Need more power and control
 - Becomes heavier



Gait

- Pattern of limb movement during locomotion
- Walk, amble, pace, trot, canter, gallop
- The number of possible gaits depends on number of legs
- For robot with k legs, the total number of distinct event sequences (N) is given as

$$N = (2k-1)!$$

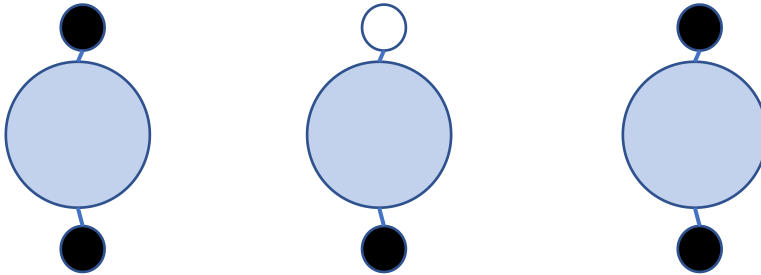
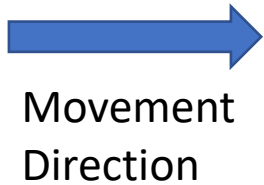


Gait

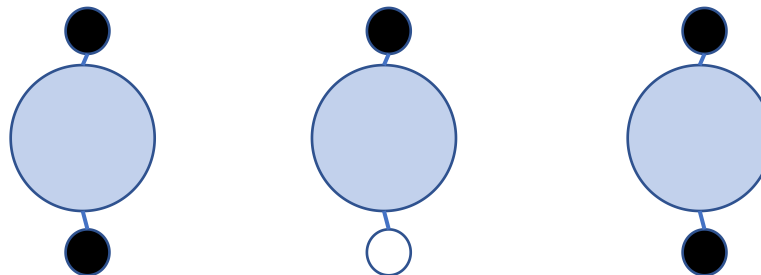
- For 2 legs, 6 distinct event sequences are possible
- 1) Both legs down – right down/left up – both legs down
 - 2) Both legs down – right up/left down – both legs down
 - 3) Both legs down – both legs up – both legs down
 - 4) Right down/left up – right up/left down – right down/left up
 - 5) Right down/left up – both legs up – right down/left up
 - 6) Right up/left down – both legs up – Right up/left down

Gait: movement from left to right →

1) Both legs down – right down/left up – both legs down



2) Both legs down – right up/left down – both legs down

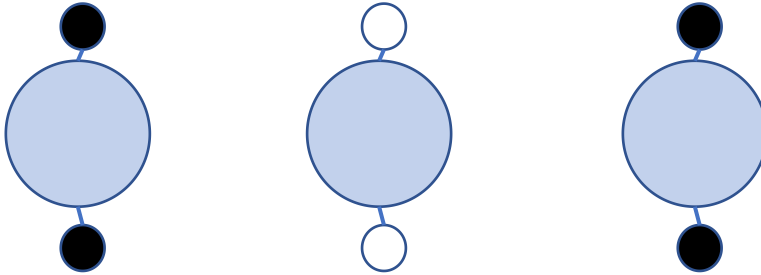


Gait: movement from left to right →

3) Both legs down – both legs up – both legs down



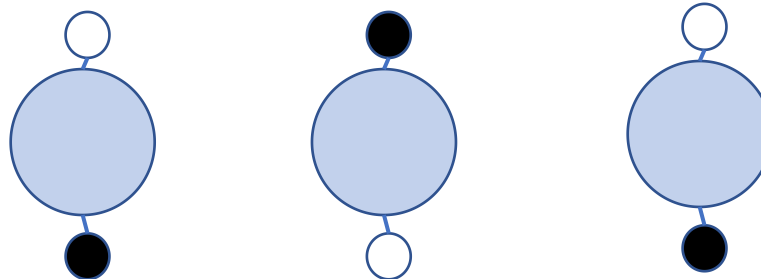
Movement
Direction



4) Right down/left up – right up/left down – right down/left up

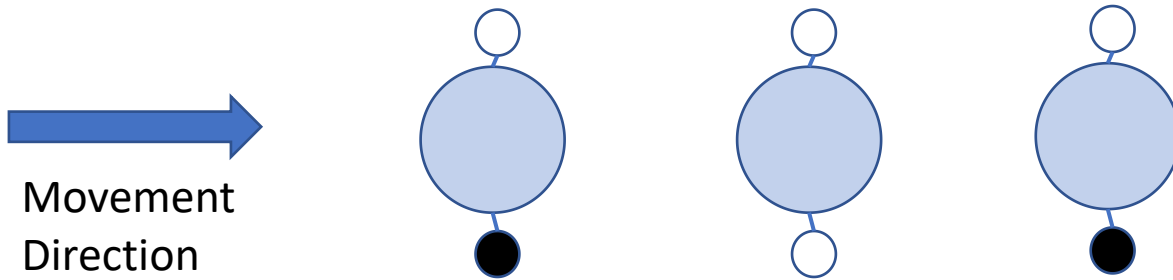


Movement
Direction

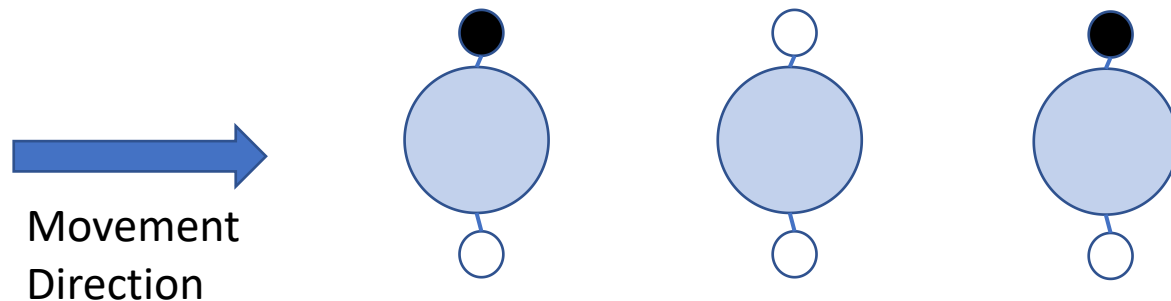


Gait: movement from left to right →

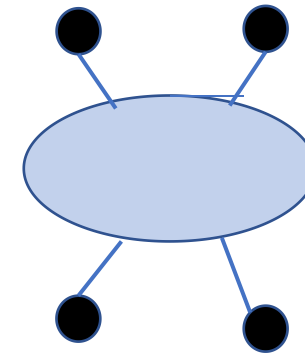
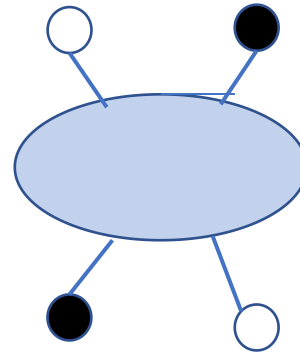
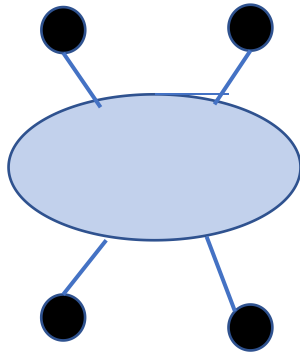
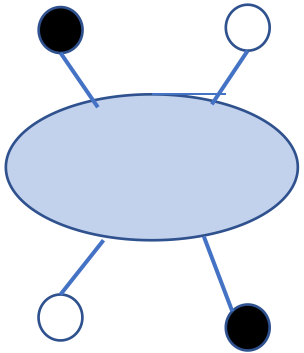
5) Right down/left up – both legs up – right down/left up



6) Right up/left down – both legs up – Right up/left down

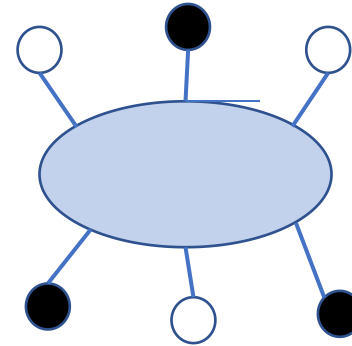
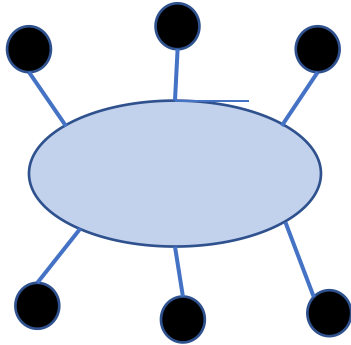
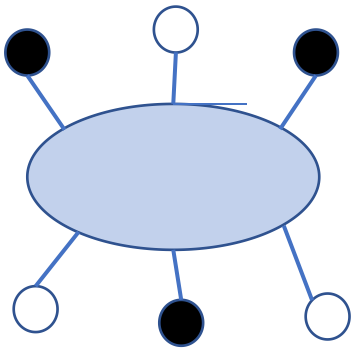


Trot Gait: movement from left to right →



Static Walking: movement from left to right →

3 points of contact must be maintained at all times





Additional Material

- **Animal Gaits for Animators:** youtube.com/watch?v=AZGNjKolAiQ
- **Robots from MIT-Leg Lab:** youtube.com/watch?v=AFXj81mvInc



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Module 6: Wheeled Locomotion



Characteristics

- Characterized by rotational motion of wheels in contact with the ground
- Very highly efficient mode of transport for flat terrains
- Balance is usually not a problem in flat terrains
- Wheels are usually in contact with ground at all times
- 3 wheels guarantee stable balance



Characteristics (contd.)

- Suspension system required to allow wheels to maintain ground contact in uneven terrains
- Need to study traction, stability, maneuverability, control



Characteristics (contd.)

- Advantages:
 - Optimized for movement on flat surfaces
 - Mechanically very simple
- Disadvantages:
 - Cannot address uneven terrains
 - Cannot address gaps in floor if size exceeds a threshold



Design Space for Wheeled Locomotion

- Wheel Design
- Wheel Geometry
- Stability
- Maneuverability
- Controllability

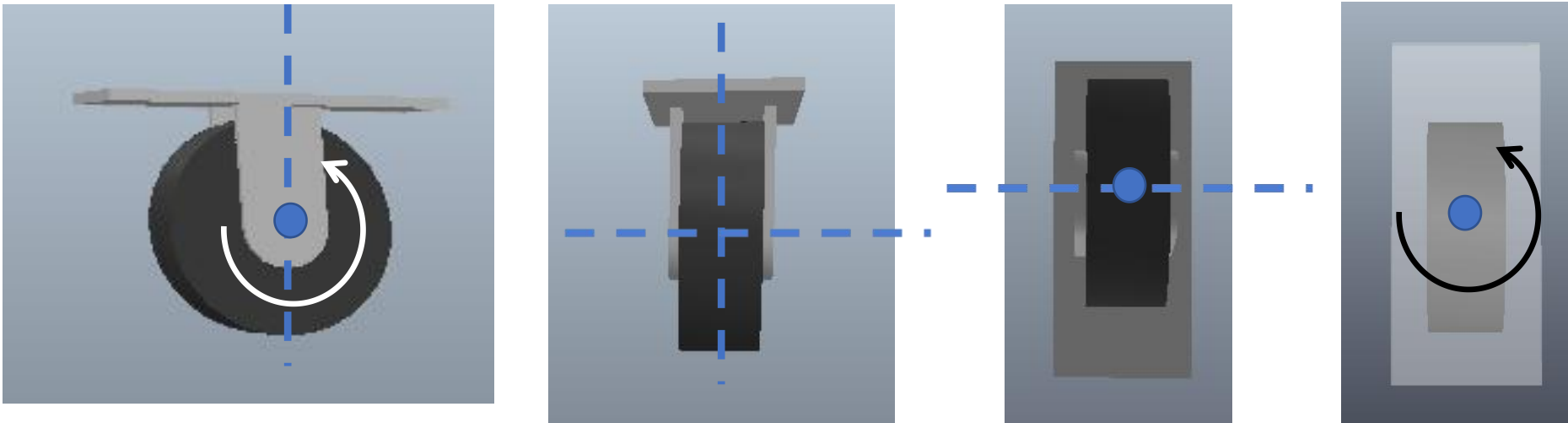


Design Space – Wheel Design

- 4 major classes of wheels
 - Standard wheel
 - Caster wheel
 - Swedish wheel
 - Spherical wheel
- Standard wheels and Caster wheels are highly directional in nature
- Swedish wheels and Spherical wheels are less directional in nature

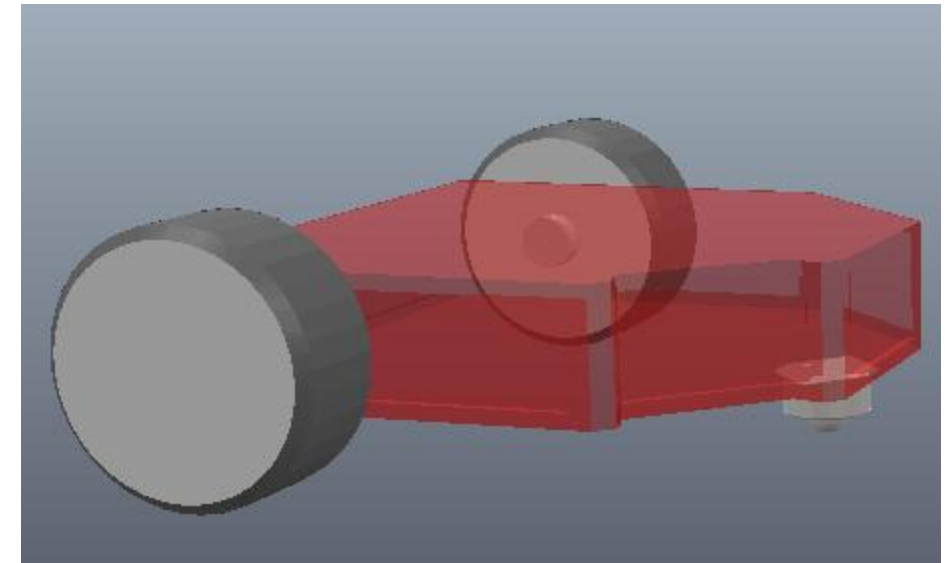
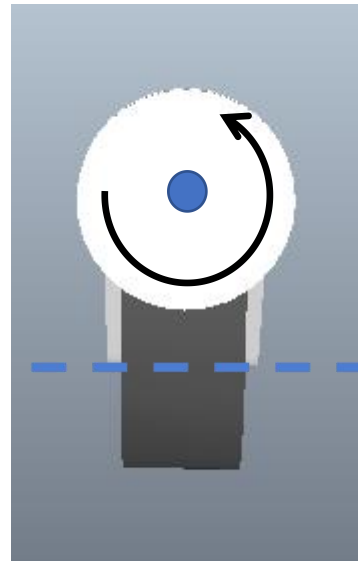
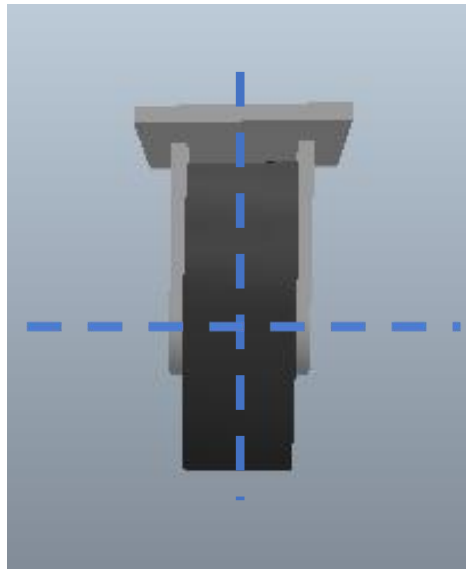
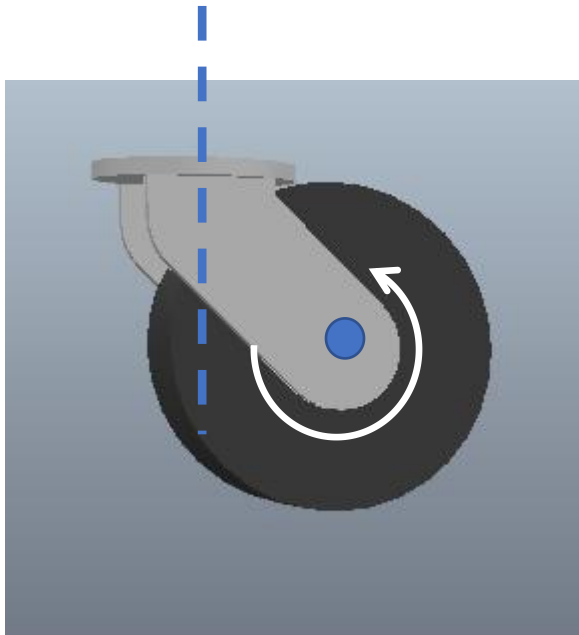
Wheel Design – Standard wheel

- Standard wheel is highly directional
- To change the direction, we need to steer about a vertical axis passing through the wheel
- This axis passes through the point of contact with ground
- Primary axis controls speed of motion
- Secondary axis controls steering
- 2-degrees of freedom



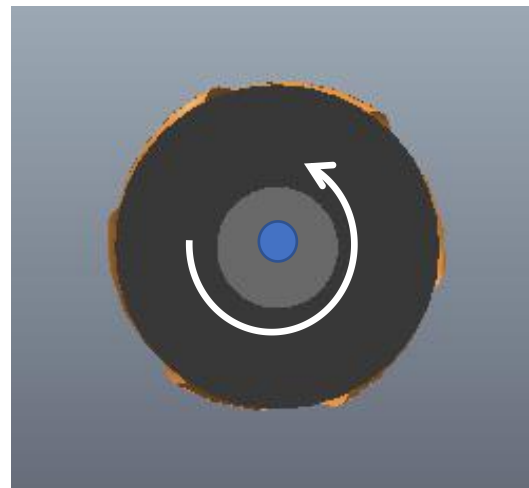
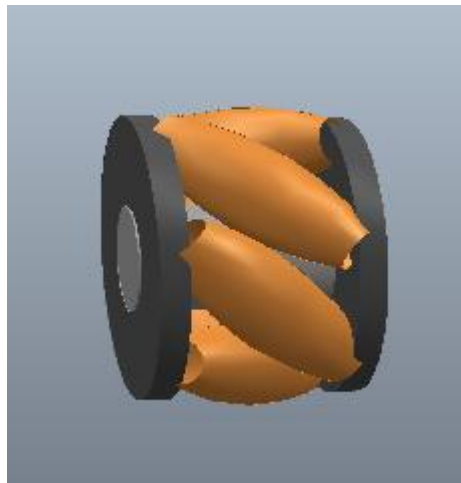
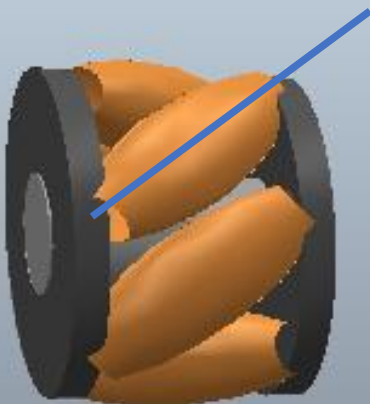
Wheel Design – Caster wheel

- Caster wheel is also highly directional
- Steering Axis is offset from the wheel contact point
- 2 degrees of freedom
- Spherical casters have a spherical ball instead of a cylindrical wheel



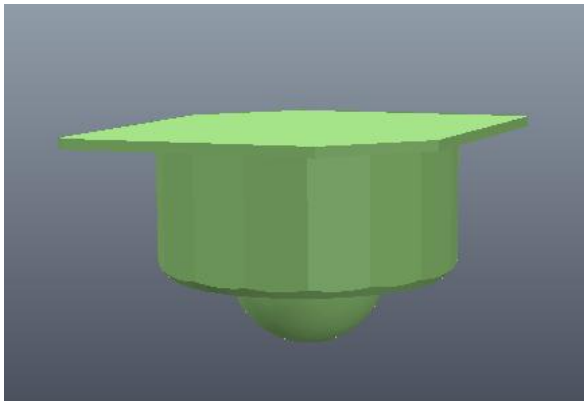
Wheel Design – Swedish wheel

- Swedish wheel consists of rollers which are distributed around the circumference of a cylinder
- The rollers can be at different angles, such as 45° or 90°
- Power is provided only to the wheel's primary axis
- The Swedish wheel functions as a normal wheel, but it has a low resistance in one another direction as well
- The rollers are not actuated, they are passive



Wheel Design – Spherical wheel

- Spherical wheel consists of a spherical ball for a wheel
- A standard wheel has less resistance in only one direction of movement
- A Swedish wheel has less resistance in one additional direction
- A spherical wheel is truly omnidirectional with same low resistance in all directions and can spin in any direction
- Actuating a spherical wheel is more complex than operating a standard or Swedish wheel





Design Space - Wheel Geometry

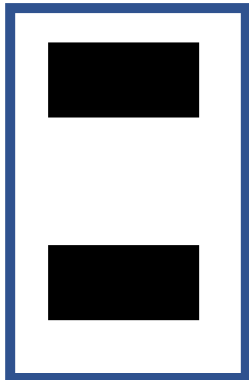
- Choice of wheel types and choice of wheel arrangement/geometry is tightly coupled
- Depending on the application, the number of wheels to be used and its configuration need to be determined
- Different wheel configurations are possible for vehicles with different number of wheels
- We will examine configurations for 2, 3, 4 and 6 wheeled systems

Wheel Geometry – 2 wheels

1) One steering wheel in the front, one traction wheel in the rear. E.g. bicycle, motorcycle

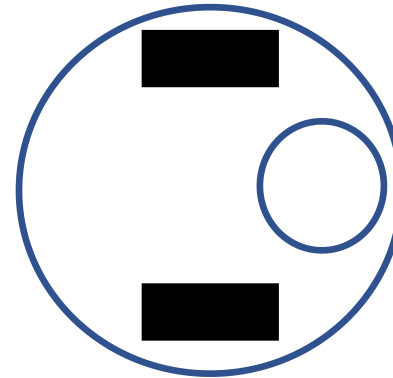


2) Two-wheeled differential drive with center-of-mass below the axle.

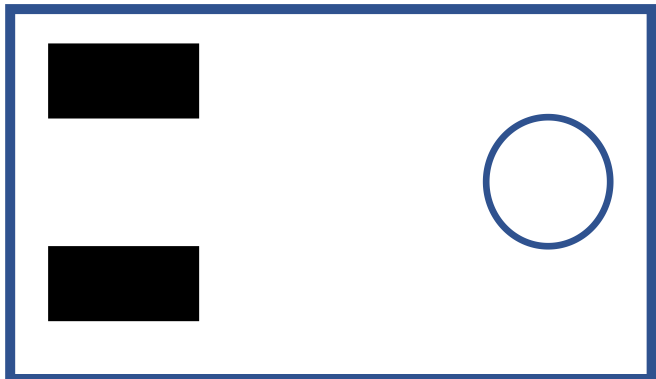


Wheel Geometry – 3 wheels

1) Two-wheeled centered differential drive with third point of contact

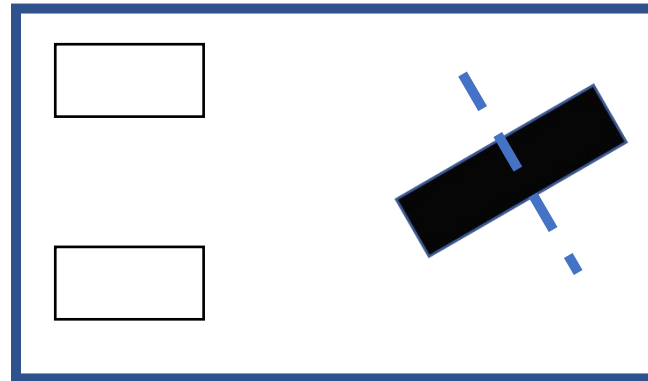


2) Two-wheeled differential drive in the rear or front and one passive omnidirectional wheel at the other end

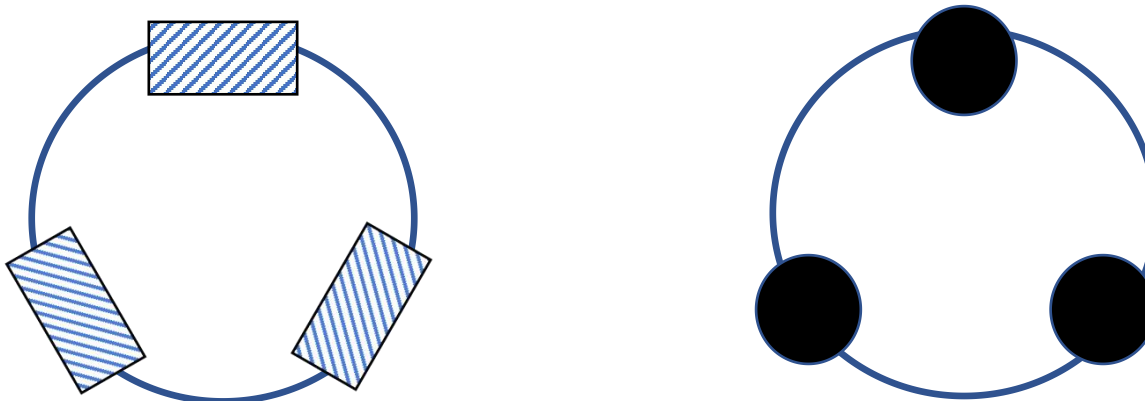


Wheel Geometry – 3 wheels

3) Two free wheels in rear, one steered traction wheel in front



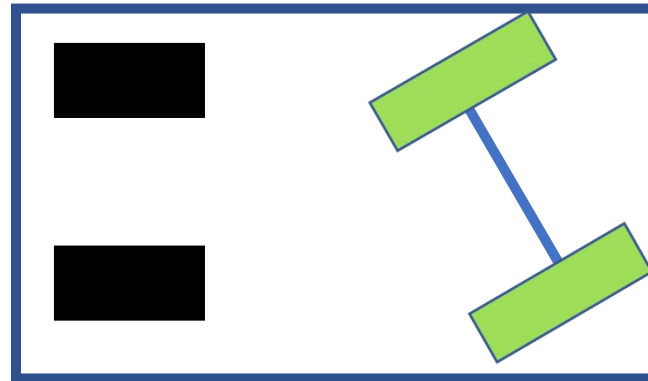
4) Three motorized Swedish or spherical wheels arranged in a triangle configuration providing omnidirectional motion



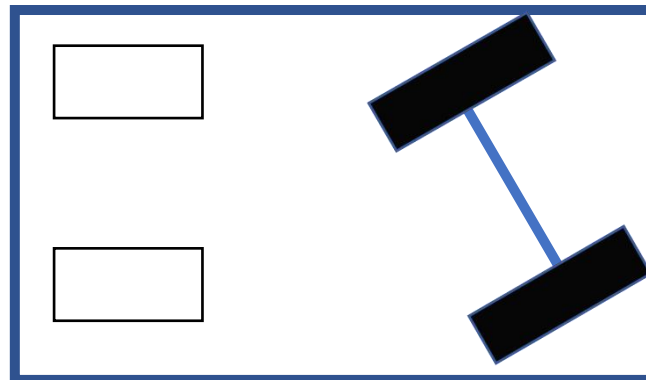
5) Synchro Drive

Wheel Geometry – 4 wheels

1) Two motorized wheels in the rear, two steered wheels in the front. E.g. car with rear-wheel drive

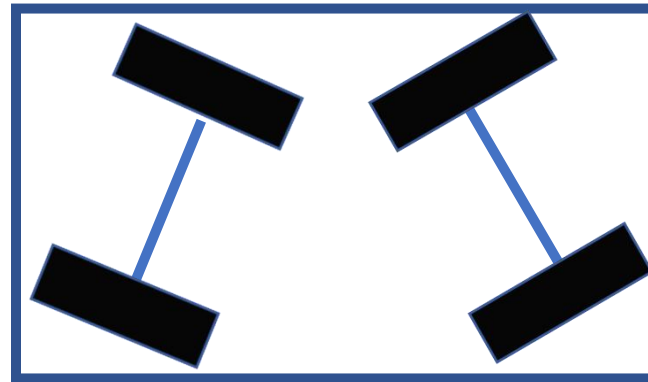


2) Two motorized and steered wheels in the front, two free wheels in the rear. E.g. car with front wheel drive

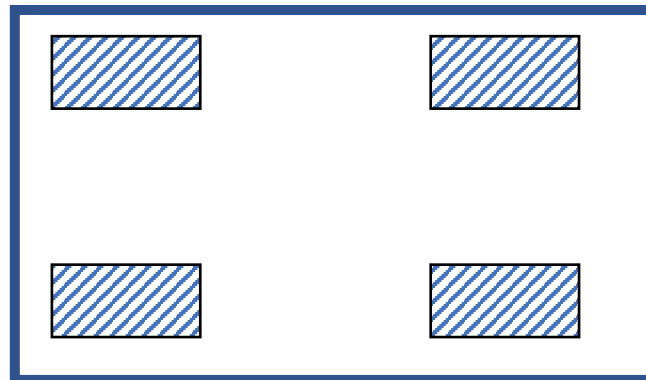


Wheel Geometry – 4 wheels

3) Four steered and motorized wheels

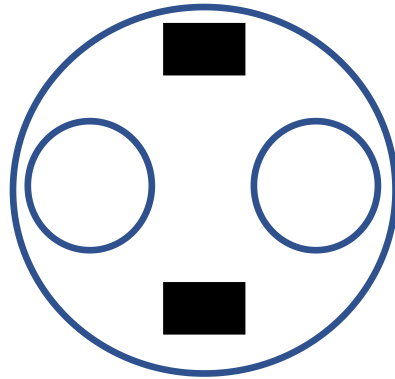


4) Four omnidirectional wheels



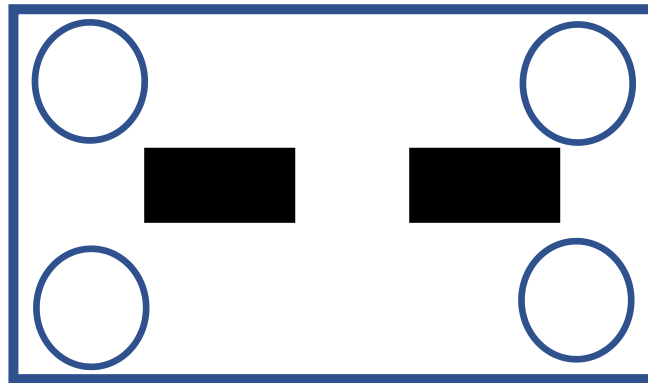
Wheel Geometry – 4 wheels

5) Two-wheel differential drive with two additional points of contact

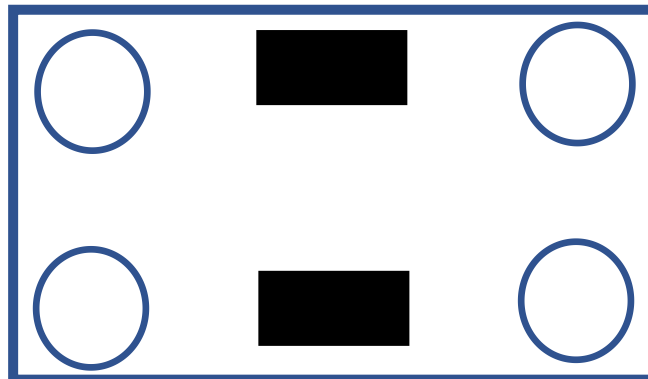


Wheel Geometry – 6 wheels

1) Two motorized and steered wheels aligned in center, omnidirectional wheels at corner

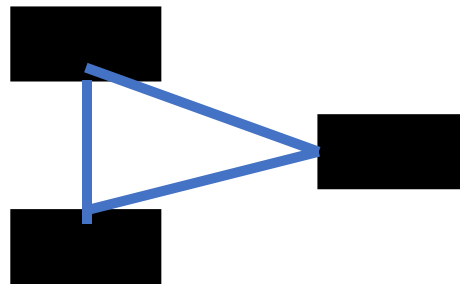
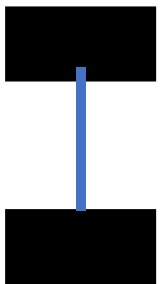


2) Two differential drive wheel in center, omnidirectional wheels at corner



Design Space - Stability

- 1) Minimum number of wheels required for static stability is 2
- 2) For a two-wheeled system, the centre of mass needs to fall below the wheel axle
- 3) Conventionally, static stability requires a minimum of 3 wheels and centre of mass needs to fall within the triangle formed by contact points





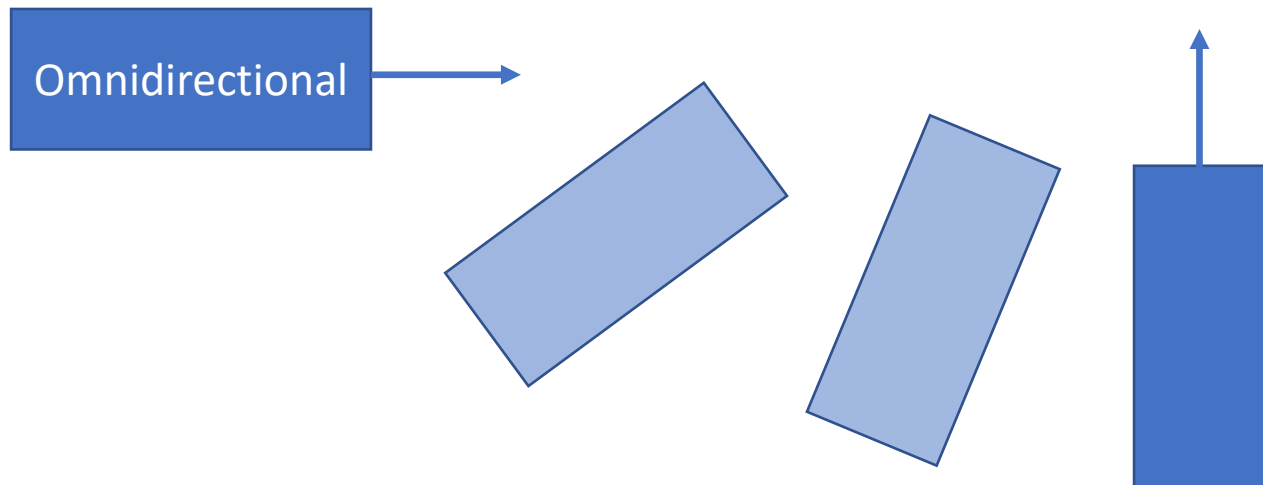
Design Space - Maneuverability

- 1) The level of maneuverability that a robot has indicates how easily it can move in any direction at any time, regardless of its current state
- 2) Higher levels of maneuverability requires that wheels can move in more than just one direction
- 3) A robot made with omnidirectional wheels has a higher level of maneuverability in comparison to robots with standard wheels alone or some other configurations

Design Space - Maneuverability

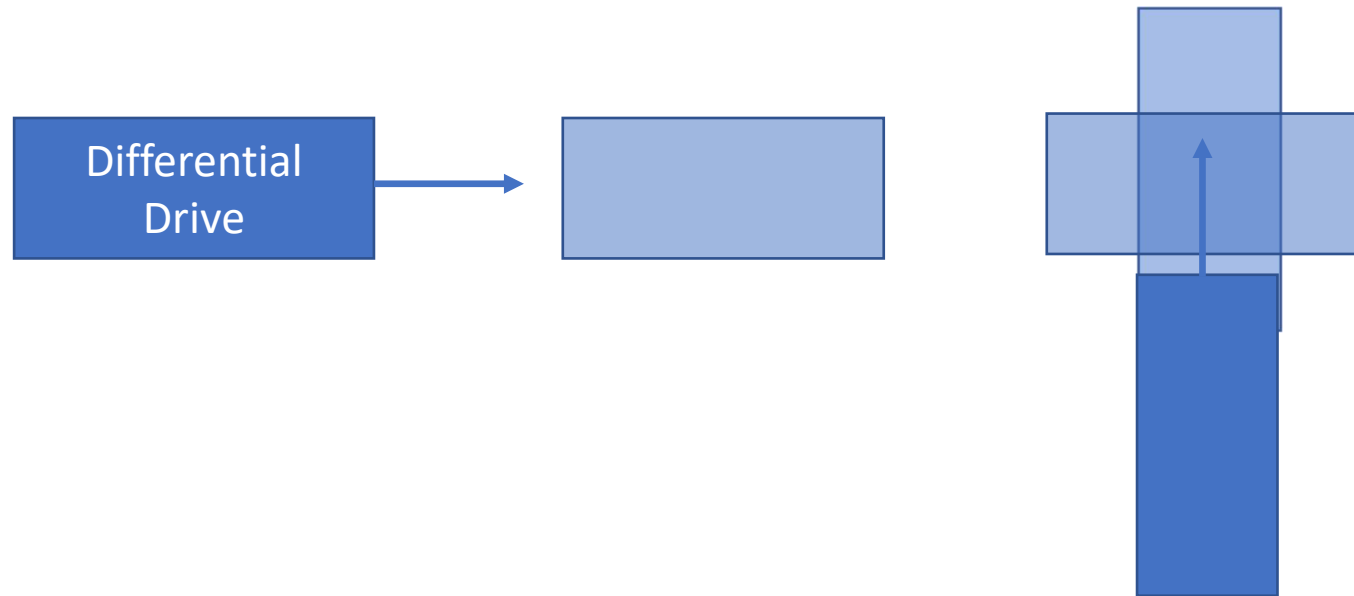
4) A robot with omnidirectional wheels can translate and rotate in any direction at any given point of time

Compare the movements required of an omnidirectional robot and a differential drive robot to reach a goal point



Design Space - Maneuverability

Differential drive robot to reach a goal point



Independent translation and rotation is possible in Omnidirectional robots, but not in differential drive



Design Space - Controllability

- 1) There is an inverse correlation between maneuverability and controllability.
- 2) An omnidirectional robot is highly maneuverable, but it requires some complexity in processing to convert desired rotational and translational velocities to wheel commands
- 3) Omnidirectional wheels using Swedish or Spherical wheel are also more susceptible to slippage in different directions due to more degrees of freedom, hence controlling needs to be tighter
- 4) The more the degrees of freedom, the more likely there is variability in different directions and lower controllability



Design Space - Controllability

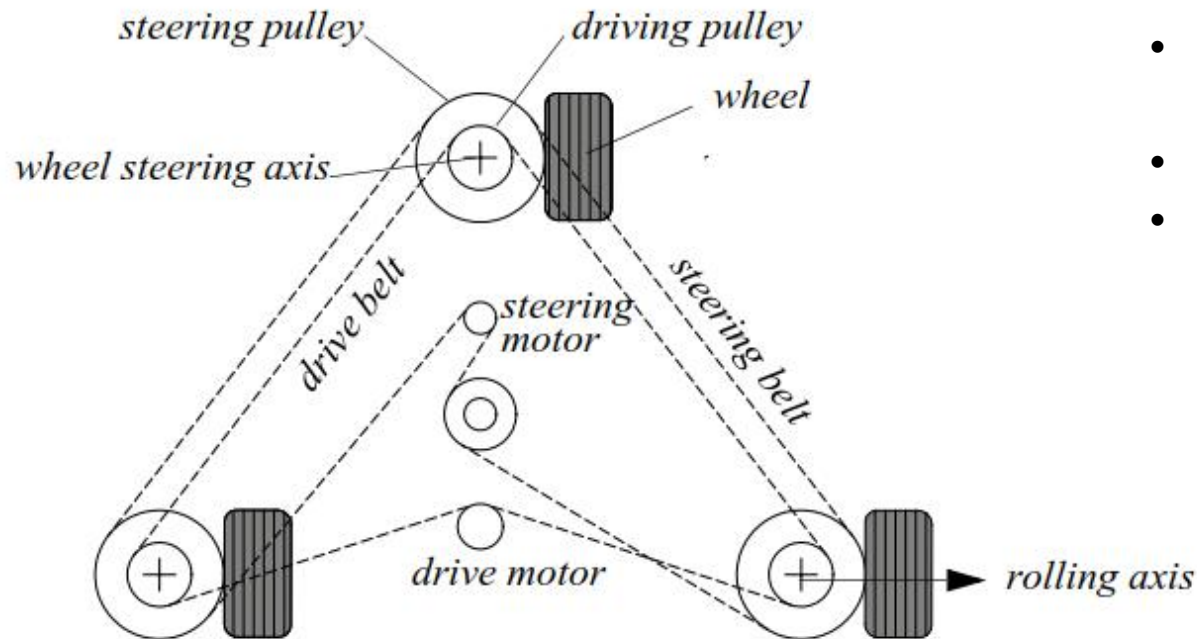
Suppose a vehicle needs to travel in the forward direction

- If the vehicle uses an Ackerman steering, if steerable wheels are locked, the drive wheels will move in sync and move the vehicle straight ahead
- If the vehicle uses differential drive, with independence control of two motors for the two wheels, the motors must operate exactly identically to ensure straight movement
- If the vehicle uses 4 Swedish wheels, all 4 wheels need to move exactly at the same speed to ensure straight movement

Wheeled Locomotion – Case Studies

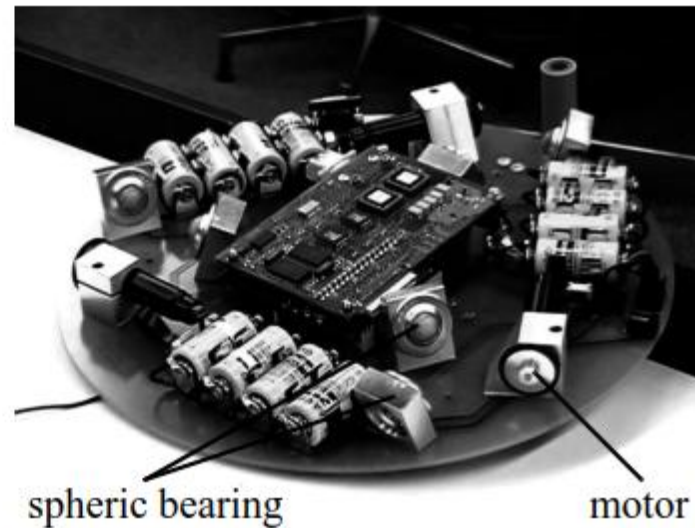
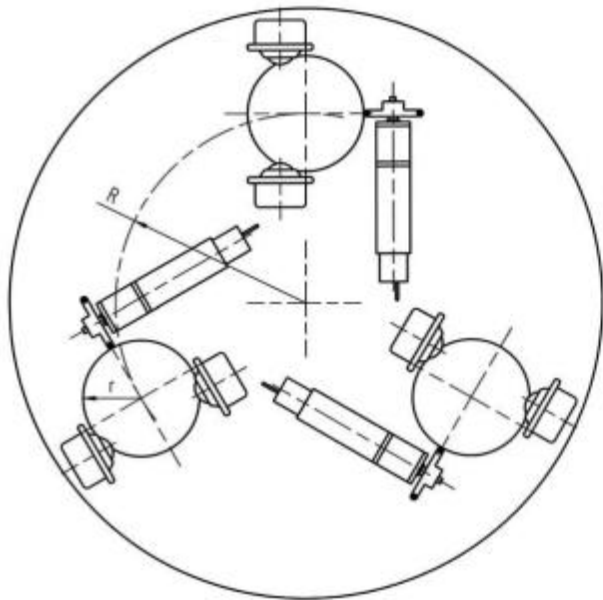
Synchrodrive

- There are 3 wheels which are driven and steered
- But it uses only two motors for this purpose
- The drive motor sets the speeds of all the three wheels together
- The steering motor makes all wheels rotate together about a vertical steering axis
- Vehicle is omnidirectional in nature
- **Examine its controllability and maneuverability**



Wheeled Locomotion – Case Studies

Tribolo



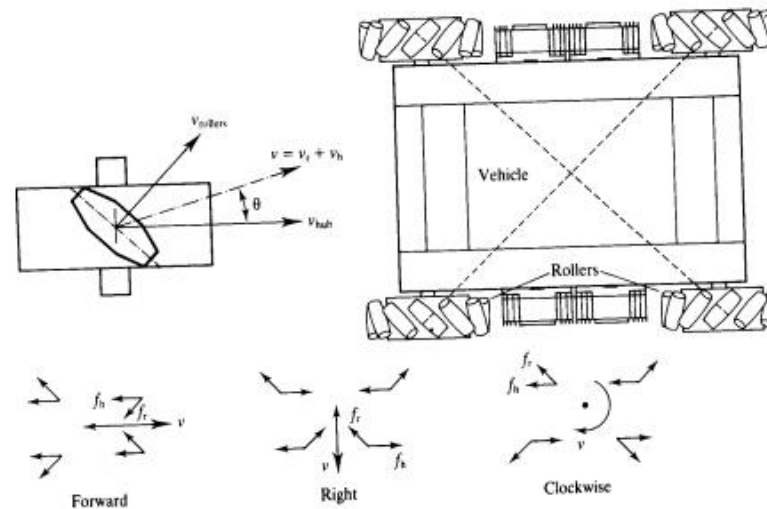
Tribolo, Copyright EPFL

Reproduced from: Siegwart, Roland, Illah Reza Nourbakhsh, and Davide Scaramuzza. Introduction to autonomous mobile robots. MIT press, 2011.

- Omnidirectional robot based on three wheels and three motors
- Two spherical bearings are used along with a motor drive to create three contact points for the spherical wheel
- Excellent maneuverability, but difficult to create round wheels with high friction coefficient

Wheeled Locomotion – Case Studies

Uranus Robot

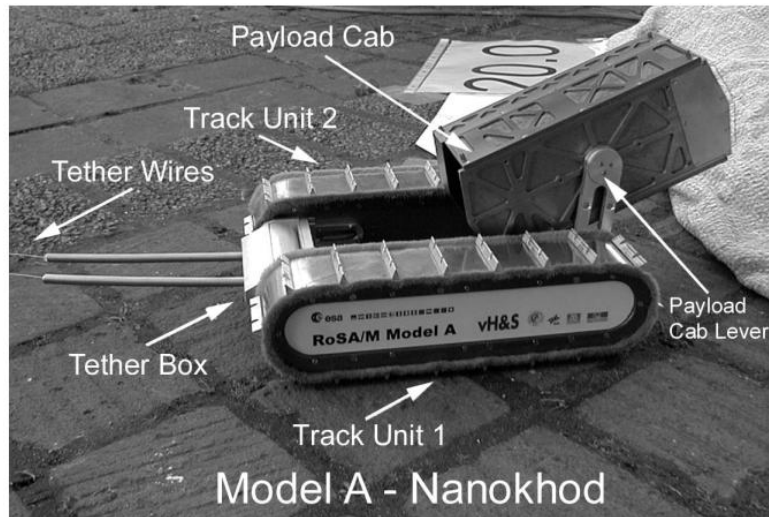


Uranus Robot, Copyright Carnegie Mellon University
Reproduced from: Siegwart, Roland, Illah Reza Nourbakhsh,
and Davide Scaramuzza. Introduction to autonomous mobile
robots. MIT press, 2011.

- Omnidirectional robot based on four 45° Swedish wheels each driven by separate motor
- By varying the direction of rotation and relative speeds of the 4 wheels, robot can move in x, y axes and rotate about z-axis
- When all 4 wheels spin forward/backward => robot goes forward/backward
- When one diagonal pair is spun in one direction and other pair spun in opposite direction => robot moves laterally

Wheeled Locomotion – Case Studies

Tracked slip/skid locomotion



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Shrimp, Copyright EPFL
Reproduced from: Siegwart, Roland, Illah Reza Nourbakhsh, and Davide Scaramuzza. Introduction to autonomous mobile robots. MIT press, 2011.



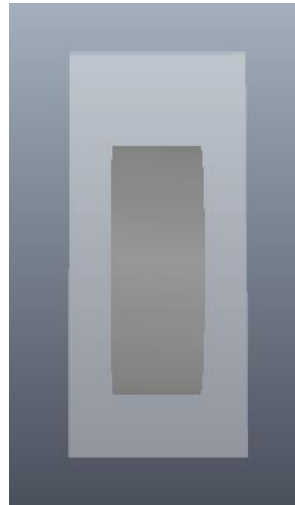
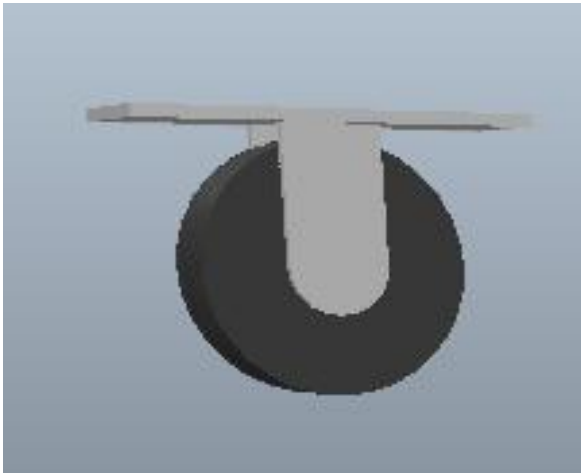


Mobile Robot Maneuverability

- Kinematic mobility of a robot is its ability to move directly in the environment
- Each wheel introduces some form of constraint in its motion
- One such constraint is the sliding constraint
- Each wheel will introduce its sliding constraint to the robot
- The overall maneuverability of a robot is also dependent on steering ability of the robot

Mobile Robot Maneuverability

- If we consider a standard wheel, it cannot slip in the lateral direction
- The fixed and steerable standard wheels both impose this constraint in motion
- Maneuverability depends on both mobility and steerability
- Constraints affect the degree of mobility



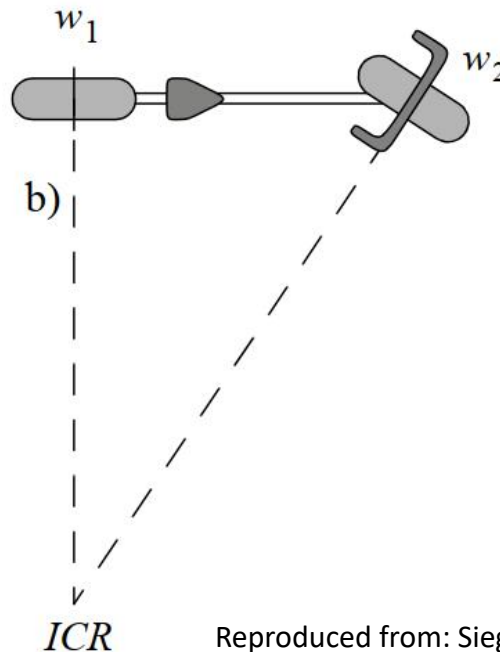
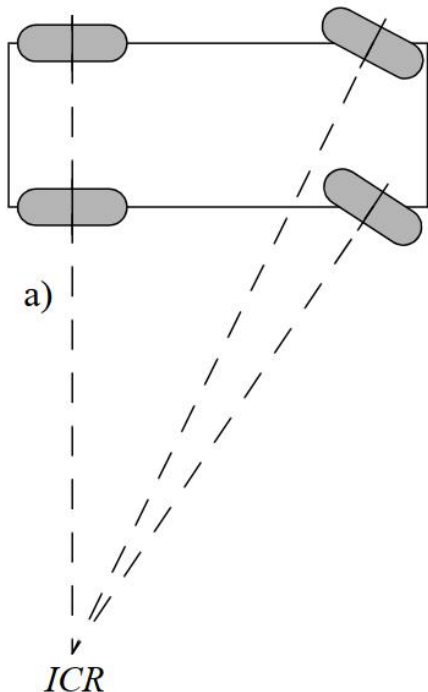


Mobile Robot Maneuverability

- The overall degrees of freedom that a robot can manipulate is called the *degree of maneuverability*: δ_M
- If the degree of mobility is given as δ_m and the degree of steerability is given as δ_s , then the degree of maneuverability is given as $\delta_M = \delta_m + \delta_s$
- Maneuverability captures degrees of freedom that robot manipulates through wheel velocity and through change in steering configuration

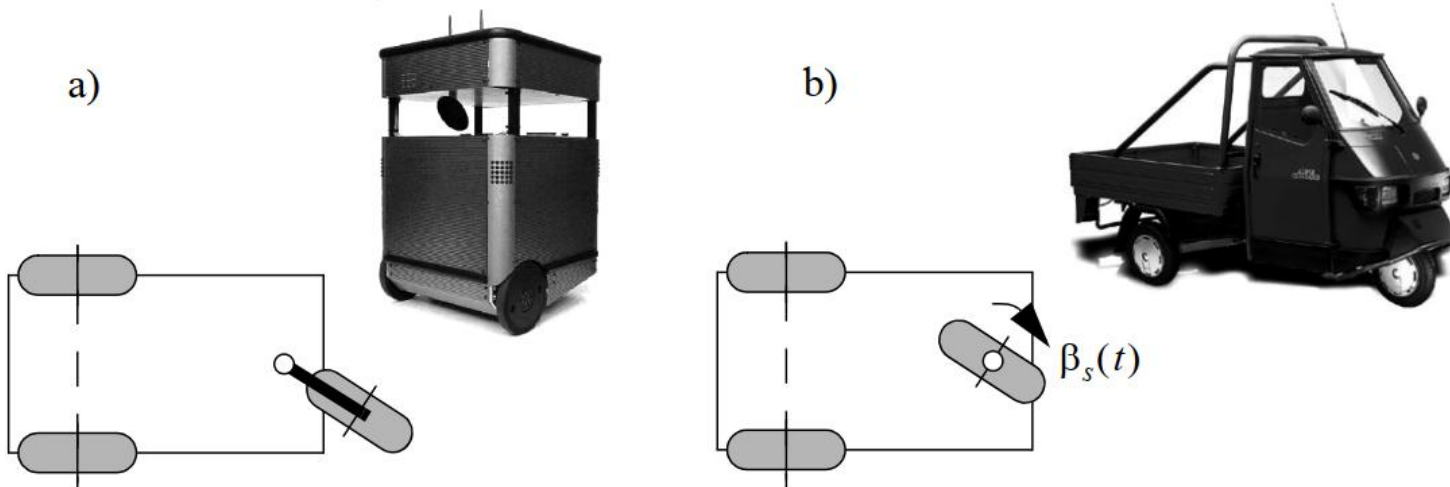
Mobile Robot – Degree of Mobility

- Zero-motion line for standard wheel based on sliding constraint
- Lines drawn for each intersect at Instantaneous center of rotation
- Even though many wheels may be present, constraints force vehicle to move in a circle with center at ICR



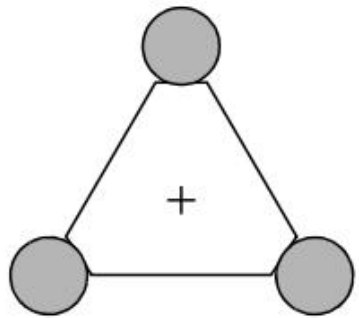
Mobile Robot – Degree of Mobility

- Differential drive robots have two wheels which have same line of zero-motion
- The second wheel does not impose any more additional kinematic constraints on robot motion
- Bicycle and differential drive robots have same number of wheels, but bicycle has two independent kinematic constraints while latter has only one



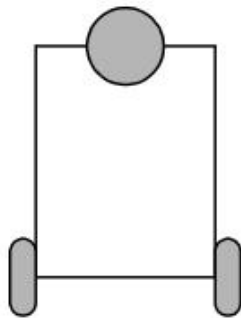
Mobile Robot – Degree of Steerability

- Steering also determines the eventual pose of the robot, by independently changing the angle of steering wheel



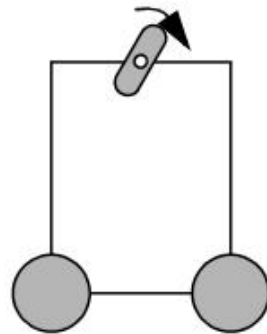
Omnidirectional

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



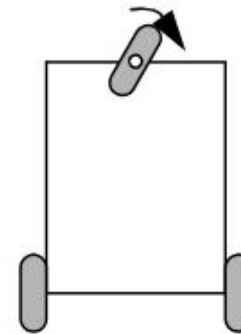
Differential

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



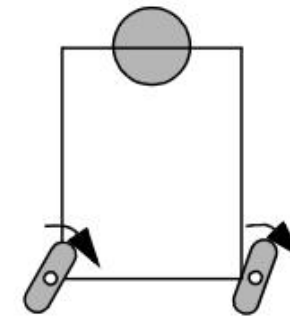
Omni-Steer

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



Tricycle

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

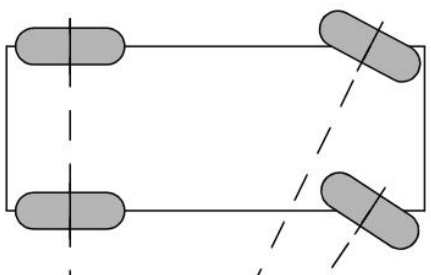


Two-Steer

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

Mobile Robot – Workspace

- The robot is situated in some environment, how can it control degrees of freedom to position itself in the environment.
- Considering the car-type robot, $\delta_M = 2$, one for steering and other for actuation
- The workspace is concerned with the total degrees of freedom of the vehicle in its environment – which is 3, referring to x, y location and orientation angle
- The workspace of a mobile robot refers to the space of possible configurations it can take





Mobile Robot – Motion Control

- Controlling the mobile robot so as to ensure it reaches specific pose configurations at specific time is an important task referred to as motion control
- This is necessary for executing trajectory following/tracking
- **Open-loop control:** If a robot needs to go from a start point to a goal point, divide the trajectory into segments of lines and curves and precompute a smooth trajectory (vehicle motor commands) based on the segments. In this case, position or velocity is not measured for feedback
- **Closed-loop control:** Divide the trajectory into a set of points and use sensor measurements to determine the positions of the robot and apply control to track the prescribed position