G54ARS Autonomous Robotic Systems Lecture 2

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Last week

- · What is an autonomous robot?
- · Foundations of robotics
 - agents, simulation and intelligence
 - robots and their components
 - tasks in robotics & general purpose robots?
 - environments (structured, unstructured, and partially structured)
- · Architectures and Behaviours
 - control models
 - · the sense-think-act control cycle
 - · model-based controllers
 - reactive robotics
 - · behaviour-based controllers
 - · other approaches, hybrid controllers & learning robots

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This week - Overview

- Background
 - the behaviour based approach revisited
 - behaviour arbitration
- · Subsumption architecture
 - Brooks' assumptions about mobile robot design
 - levels of competence
 - · example competences
 - layers of control
 - subsumption
 - structure of layers
 - Extensions / finite state machines

- · Robot Hardware
 - Sensors
 - · Sensor Characteristics
 - · Sensor Types and categories
 - Actuators
 - · Effectors and actuators
 - · DC motors and Servo Motors
 - DC motors how they work
 - · Degrees of Freedom
- G54ARS Assignment

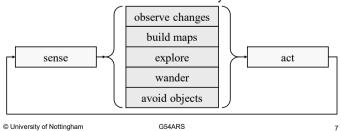
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Background

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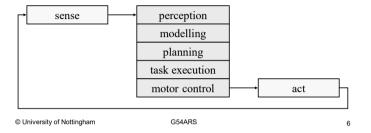
Recall - Behaviours

- The control system is broken down into a vertical stack of horizontal modules, or *behaviours*, that run in parallel
 - each behaviour has direct access to sensor readings and can control the robot's motors directly



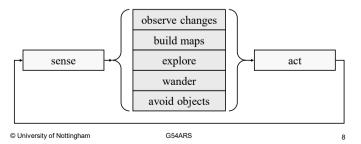
Model-based Approach to Control

Note the sequential processing / flow of information



Recall - Behaviours

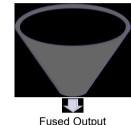
- Behaviour-based architectures enable multiple behaviours in parallel.
- BUT : how do we decide which behaviour to execute?
 - how do we coordinate multiple behaviours?



Behaviours Coordination

There are two main approaches to behaviour coordination.

Behaviour Fusion



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Behaviour Arbitration



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· Behaviour Fusion:

output behaviour.

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 Challenge: a suitable aggregation method needs to be defined AND all behaviours need to be suitable for

Behaviour Coordination Continued

- Combination of multiple behaviours into one single

- Based on some form of aggregation (e.g., sum of

motor outputs from all behaviours)

combination (e.g., same outputs)

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Behaviour Coordination Continued

- Behaviour Arbitration:
 - Selection of ONE behaviour from the pool of behaviours as overall output behaviour.
 - Also referred to as "competitive behaviour coordination" as behaviours can be said to compete for the output.
 - Two main subtypes:
 - Fixed priority hierarchy (priorities are known/fixed at run-time)
 - Dynamic hierarchy (priorities change at run-time)

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Behaviour Coordination Continued

- Behaviour Fusion or Behaviour Arbitration?
 - Both strategies have their respective advantages and disadvantages.
 - Behaviour arbitration excels at:
 - · Complexity management
 - · Simple design
 - · Simple debugging
 - · Good robustness
- In the labs we use Brook's subsumption architecture which is an example of behaviour arbitration using fixed behaviour priorities.

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Subsumption Architecture

A Robust Layered Control System for a Mobile Robot

Rodney A. Brooks

IEEE Journal of Robotics and Automation Vol. RA-2, No. 1, March 1986

(http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/document/1087032/)

→ Remember you can access articles when not at the university by logging in via Shibboleth and your normal username/password

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Brooks' Assumptions - 2

- The real world is not constructed of exact shapes
 - models may be useful, but should not be used alone
- Sonar data, while easy to collect, does not lead to rich descriptions of the world
 - visual data is much better
 - But sonar data may be useful for fast responses (e.g., Obstacle Avoidance)
- For robustness, the robot must be able to function when one or more of its sensors fail(s) or start(s) giving erroneous readings
 recovery should be quick (self-calibrating)
- Robots should be autonomous and self-sustaining (able to survive weeks without human assistance)

Brooks' Assumptions - 1

- Complex and useful behaviour need not necessarily be a product of an extremely complex control system (remember Braitenberg vehicles)
- · Things should be simple
 - if a single module is getting too big: rethink the design
 - unstable or ill-conditioned solutions are not good
- Ability to wander in real environments (populated by other agents, e.g., humans) is crucial
- · The real world is three dimensional
 - the robot must model its environment in 3D
- Absolute coordinate systems are a source of error
 - relational maps are more useful to a mobile robot (think landmarks)

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Levels of Competence

- Autonomous Robotics is a complex challenge: "Divide et Impera":
 - Any (real) robotics problem must be broken down (decomposed) into a number of sub-problems
- Brooks chose to decompose problems vertically
 - the problem is 'sliced' as a vertical stack on the basis of the desired external manifestations of the control system
- · A number of levels of competence are defined
 - an informal specification of a desired class of behaviours for a robot over all environments it will encounter
- A higher level of competence implies a <u>more specific desired</u> class of behaviours

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Example Competences

- 7 reason about the behaviour of objects in the world and modify plans accordingly
- 6 formulate and execute plans that involve changing the state of the world in some desirable way
- 5 reason about the world in terms of identifiable objects and perform tasks related to certain objects
- 4 notice (observe) changes in the "static" environment
- 3 build a map of the environment and plan routes from one place to another
- 2 explore the world by seeing places in the distance that look reachable and heading for them
 - 1 wander aimlessly around without hitting things
- 0 avoid contact with (stationary or moving) obstacles

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notes

each level of competence includes as a "subset" each earlier level of competence

higher levels of competence provide additional constraints on the lower levels

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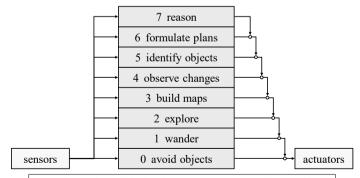
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Layers of Control

- The key idea of levels of competence is that layers of a control system can be built to correspond to each level
 - a control system can be built to achieve level zero competence (avoid obstacles)
 - it is programmed, debugged and then fixed in operation
 - another layer is then added (first-level control)
 - it is able to examine data from the level-0 system
 - it is able to inject output, to suppress the level-0 output
 - level-0 is unaware of the suppression and continues to run
- This is called Brooks' subsumption architecture

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Subsumption



Control is layered, with higher level layers subsuming the roles of lower level layers when they wish to take control. The system can be partitioned at any level, and the layers below form a complete operational control system.

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Subsumption Architecture Properties

- Multiple Goals
- · Multiple Sensors
- Robustness
- Extensibility



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Structure of Layers

- · How is each level built?
 - does each have to be structured in horizontal manner?
- This is true to a certain extent, but the key difference is that not all desired perceptions need to be processed by each competence
 - different decompositions can be used for different sensor-set task-set pairs
- · Layers can be built on a set of small processors
 - each one sends (small) messages to others
 - no message acknowledgement is required
 - there is no need for central control (or synchronisation)

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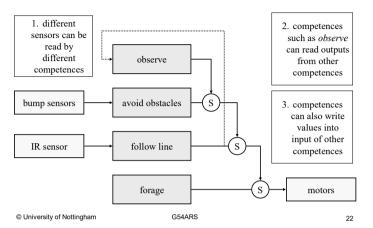
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Finite State Machines

- In Brooks' original work, each module was implemented as a finite state machine
 - augmented with some instance variables
- · A finite state machine has
- a set of states
 a start state; (one or more stop states)
 a set of symbols
 a set of transitions
 For example
 an FSM for a light switch
- An FSM can be implemented in C
- using a state variable and switch statement

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Extensions



Robot Hardware

Sensors

- Sensors are physical devices that measure physical quantities (e.g., light, distance, etc.)
- · Some examples:

Sensing Technology: **Physical Quanitity:**

- Contact • Bump sensors, switches · Ultrasound, Infra Red. - Distance Laser Range Finder

· Photocells. Cameras - Light Level Thermal, Infra Red - Temperature Microphones Sound Level

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Sensors & Complexity

- Sensors vary in the amount of information they produce.
 - A bump sensors produces one bit of information (on/off). (By the way: Bit comes from Binary digit)
 - A camera produces a huge amount of information. E.g., consider outdated VGA (640x480 pixels) which results in 307200 pixels. We are not talking about color yet... (A phone camera like on the iPhone 8 has 12 million pixels...)
- More information is not always a good thing as it results in higher processing requirements.
- Signal-to-Symbol problem:

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- symbols (e.g., "Tom") are useful (e.g., "find Tom").
- But sensors provide data, not symbols
- Translation from data to symbols is HARD and requires computation (e.g., how do you know it is Tom?)

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- Thus often symbols are not used (remember reactive robotics?) G54ARS

Sensors & Uncertainty

- As physical devices operating in the real world, sensors are subject to noise and errors.
- Uncertainty refers to the fact that a robot cannot be certain about the properties of the environment or even its own state in respect to this environment.
- There are many sources of uncertainty in robotics, includina:
 - Sensor noise and errors, sensor limitations (e.g., max distance)
 - Effector and actuator noise (e.g., a bent axle)
 - Changing/Dynamic environments

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Sensor Exercise

- How would you detect Tom?
 - (Note: Cameras are obvious but highly complex, so try other means)
 - Some approaches: temperature, movement (what moves is alive, well, unless it's a robot (clothes, skin), distance,...
- These are examples what is important is that there are many ways to achieve the task and they all have their specific combination of advantages/drawbacks.

Sensor Types

- Active Sensors
 - Generate an active signal and measure the interaction of this signal with the environment.
 - E.g.,: active light sensor, others?

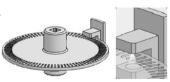


- Passive Sensors
 - Measure a physical property of the environment
 - E.g.: thermal sensor, others?
- Let's look at some categories of both types...

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Shaft/Position Encoders

- · Shaft Encoders detect the rotation of a shaft by counting the number of times an optical switch is closed/opened.
- · Can Shaft encoders be used to measure direction of rotation?



Source: http://www.vexforum.com

Switches

- · Switches are either open or closed.
 - We noted 1 bit of information.



- · Many types of switches exist on robotics:
 - Bump Switch
 - Limit Sensors
 - Whiskers
- · Switches can be used to gather a wealth of information, e.g.,:
 - Shaft/Position Encoders



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Light Sensors

- · Light sensors are based on photocells.
 - Photocells convert light into a voltage.
 - The voltage (analogue) is converted to digital by an A2D converter.
- Many different types of light sensors exist, measuring different properties of light:
 - Light intensity (e.g., as in the Lego case)
 - Differential intensity (differences in light)
 - Break-beam sensors
- · Light sensors can either be active or inactive
 - Why is calibration often required when light sensors are used?
 - How can light sensors be calibrated?

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Distance Sensors

 Most distance sensors work by measuring Time of Flight (*ToF*) of the signal travelling at speed S.

Distance = (ToF * S)/2

- Ultrasonic Sensor Example: Sound travels at 340.29 m/s (at about 15 degrees Celsius, etc.)
 - If ToF = 0.005s, Distance = $(0.005*340.29)/2 \approx 0.85$ m
- Other distance sensors include:
 - Laser Range Finder, e.g., by SICK (based on ToF)
 - Infra-red distance sensors, e.g.: Sharp GP2Y0A21 (based on IR reflection)



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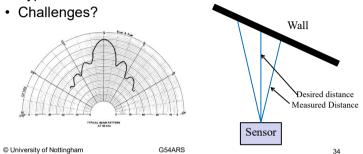
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Actuators Less sensing, more doing!

Ultrasonic Sensors in Detail

- Ultrasonic Sensor or Sonar (*originally an acronym for SOund Navigation And Ranging*)
- Typical Beam Pattern of a sonar sensor



Actuators

- · Some Vocabulary:
 - Effector:
 - any device that has an effect on the environment. E.g.: grippers, wheels, arms, etc.
 - Actuators:
 - from to actuate, i.e. to put into motion. The mechanism that drives an effector. E.g.: DC motors, hydraulics, etc.

– Passive Actuation:

 energy for the actuator/effector is delivered through interaction of the effector with the environment (E.g., a helium-filled balloon)

– Active Actuation:

 energy for effector is actively generated by the actuator (E.g., a DC motor)

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Passive Actuation Example

- 4-legged passive-dynamic walker:
- http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=rhu2xNlpgDE



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A closer look at motors

- DC (direct current) motors are the most common type of actuator in robotics
 - DC motors produce a continuous rotational motion (useful for example in a fan).
 - In robotics, a more controlled motion is generally desirable and servomotors are employed.
- Servo motors are used to move the drive-shaft of the motor to a specific position.
- Servo motors <u>are</u> DC motors with additional components (gears, a position/shaft encoder (i.e. a sensor!) and electronics to control the motor)
- Servo motors allow accurate position control but it makes the actuators also very stiff.

Active Actuators

- Electric Motors
- Hydraulics
- Pneumatics
- Shape memory polymers (SMPs)





slideshow-0406.html
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DC Motors – How they work

 Motor speed ω is proportional to induced voltage (energy carried by charge) V:

$$\omega = k_V * V$$

• Motor torque t is proportional to applied current (rate of flow of charge) *I*:

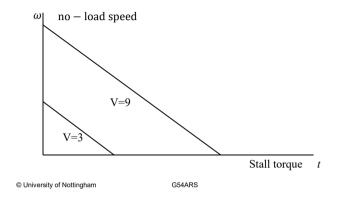
$$t = k_I * I$$

- Motors have a maximum speed (the no-load speed) and a maximum torque (the stall torque)
- DC motors have commonly high speed (9000+ RPM) but low torque.

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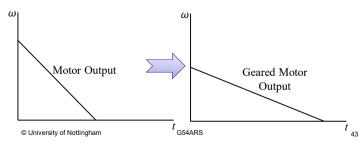
Speed – Torque Relationship



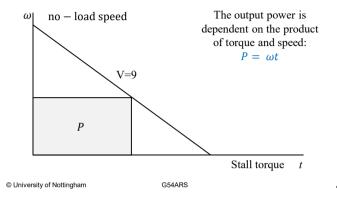
Motor Gearing

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· In robotics we generally need low speed and high torque, i.e. to make use of DC motors we need gearing to alter the relationship between torque and speed:



Speed – Torque Relationship



Gearing - Basics

- The Linear Speed v at the edge of a gear with radius r is: $v = \omega r$
- The Force F at the edge of a gear with radius r
- Two meshed gears have the SAME linear speed, i.e. for Gears 1 and 2, we have $v_1 = v_2$
- What is the output speed ω of gear 2, knowing the output speed of gear 1?

$$\omega_2 = (r_1/r_2)\omega_1$$

• What is the output torque t of gear 2 knowing the output torque of gear 1?

$$t_2 = (r_2/r_1)t_1$$

• r_2/r_1 is the Gear Ratio

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Gear 1 Gear 2



Gearing continued

- · Using gears, different combinations of speed and torque can be achieved using the same motor.
- Gearing up, for example:

 $-r_1=2, r_2=1$

Note: "Gearing up" -Input gear has more teeth than output gear

reverse is true.

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- Ratio: 1:2 - Halves the torque, doubles the speed

· Gearing down, for example: "Gearing down" - the

 $-r_1 = 1, r_2 = 2$

- Ratio: 2:1

- Halves the speed, doubles the torque

• Many different types of gears, see for example:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gear

• $\omega = k_V V_{average}$

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DC Motor Control

- The speed of DC motors is generally controlled using PWM (Pulse Width Modulation)
- · The direction of rotation is controlled using an Hbridge (implemented in electronics)

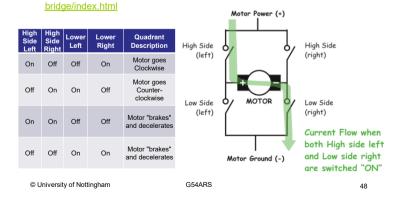
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PWM

 $V_{average}$ 0Vtime V+ $V_{average}$ 0Vtime V+ $V_{average}$ 0Vtime pulse width G54ARS © University of Nottingham

H-bridge

See source: http://www.mcmanis.com/chuck/robotics/tutorial/h-



We have motion! Which way do we apply it?

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DOFs Examples

- A car has three DOFs (x, y and orientation (theta))
 - two Controllable DOFs (CDOFs)
 - 1 uncontrollable DOF (UDOF))
- · A helicopter has 6 controllable DOFs





1 know

this is not

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Degrees of Freedom (DOF)

- DOF = ?
 - In mechanical terms, the DOF is the number of variables that determine the state of a physical system.
 - Informally, think about in what directions a system can move.
- In 3D space an object has generally six DOFs, split into two groups:
 - Translational DOFs (x, y, z)
 - Rotational DOFs (roll, yaw, pitch)
- Effectors can have 1 or more DOFs, e.g., a motor (0 DOFs makes no sense...)

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DOFs continued

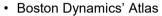
- If the total DOFs of a system (TDOF) is smaller than the controllable DOFs of a system, this can make control complicated (think about parallel-parking a car).
- · Three main possibilities are differentiated:
 - Holonomic: CDOF = TDOF
 - e.g., a helicopter
 - Nonholonomic: CDOF < TDOF</p>
 - e.g., a car
 - Redundant: CDOF > TDOF
 - e.g., the human arm:
 - seven degrees of freedom (shoulder: 3, elbow: 1, wrist: 3)
 - But in 3D space there are at most 6 DOFs! → ability to move arm/its parts in different ways to the same position, i.e. redundancy.

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Putting it all together...

- Virginia Tech's "Charli-2" humanoid robot
 - # of Servo Motors?
 - # of DOFs?
 - Sensors?
 - http://www.youtube.com/watch?v =kmeJvkN4ntl



– E.g.:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6zpuHr7t8xl



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Summary

- Background
 - The behaviour based approach revisited
 - Behaviour arbitration
- · Subsumption architecture
 - Brooks' assumptions about mobile robot design
 - levels of competence
 - layers of control
 - structure of layers
 - extensions; finite state machines

- Sensors
 - Sensor Characteristics
 - Sensor Types and categories
- Actuators
 - Effectors and actuators
 - DC motors and Servo Motors
 - DC motors how they work
 - Degrees of Freedom
- Next week: PID Control & DARPA Grand Challenge

Assignment

- · Assignment see on Moodle:
 - http://moodle.nottingham.ac.uk/pluginfile.php/3495658/ mod_resource/content/11/G54ARS%20Assignment%2 017-18.pdf

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