

A Heterogeneous Robotics Team for Large-Scale Seismic Sensing

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Abstract—Seismic surveying requires placing a large number of sensors (geophones) in a grid pattern, triggering a seismic event, and recording vibration readings. The goal of the surveying is often to locate subsurface resources. Traditional seismic surveying employs human laborers for sensor placement and retrieval. The major drawbacks of surveying with human deployment are the high costs and time, and risks to humans due to explosives and harsh climatic conditions. We propose an autonomous, heterogeneous sensor deployment system using UAVs to deploy mobile and immobile sensors. The proposed system overcomes these drawbacks of traditional systems. Detailed analysis and comparison with traditional surveying were conducted. Hardware experiments and simulations show promise for the effectiveness of automation in terms of cost and time. Autonomous aerial systems will have a substantial contribution to make in future seismic surveys.

I. Introduction

Seismic surveying is a geophysical technique involving sensor data collection and signal processing. A primary application of the method is in the search for subsurface resources. Traditional seismic surveying requires manual laborers repeatedly placing geophone sensors at specific locations connected by cables. Cables are bulky, and the length required is proportional to the area surveyed. Surveys routinely cover hundreds of square kilometers, requiring kilometers of cabling. Seismic surveying in remote locations has concomitant problems of inaccessibility, harsh conditions, and transportation of bulky cables and sensors. These factors increase the cost.

Nodal sensors, a relatively new development to seismic sensing, are autonomous units that do not require bulky cabling. They have an internal *seismic recorder*, a microcontroller that records seismic readings from a high-precision accelerometer. Because this technology does not require cabling, downtime and overall cost can be reduced. However, these sensors are still planted and recovered by hand.

We propose a heterogeneous robotic system for obtaining seismic data, shown in Fig. 1. The system consists of two sensors, the SeismicDart and the SeismicSpider. The SeismicDart is a dart-shaped wireless sensor that is planted in the ground when dropped from a UAV. The SeismicSpider is a mobile hexapod with three legs replaced by geophones.

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Fig. 1: The heterogeneous sensor system presented in this paper: wireless SeismicDarts and a SeismicSpider, both designed for UAV deployment.

This system is designed to automate sensor deployment, minimizing cost and time while maximizing accuracy, repeatability, and efficiency. The technology presented may have wide applicability where quickly deploying sensor assets is essential, including geoscience research [1], earthquake [2] and volcano [3] monitoring, defense operations [4], and wildlife monitoring [5], [6].

II. Overview and Related Work

This paper presents a *heterogeneous sensor system* for automatic sensor deployment. The goal is to overcome the drawbacks of manually deploying seismic sensors. In previous work [7], we demonstrated a UAV equipped with four geophone sensors as landing gear. This UAV automated sensor deployment by flying to GPS waypoints to obtain seismic data.

The geophones in [7] were connected to the UAV, causing four problems: (1) one UAV was required for each additional sensor, (2) the force for planting the geophone was limited by the weight of the UAV, (3) the platform required a level landing site, (4) the magnets in the geophones distort compass readings, causing landing inaccuracy when autonomous.

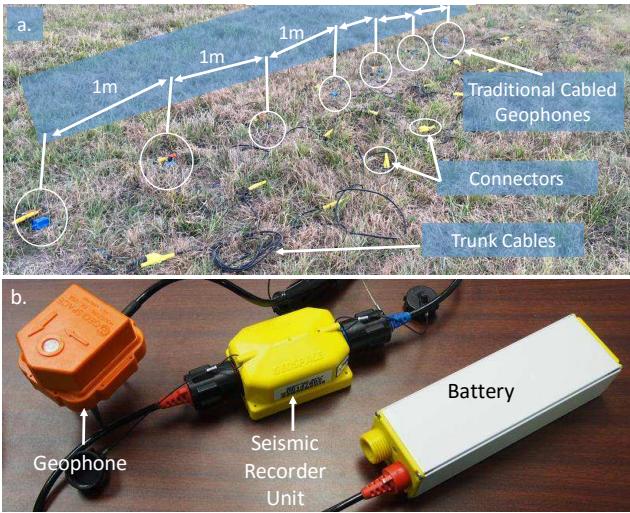


Fig. 2: Comparing state-of-the-art seismic survey sensors. a.) In traditional cabled system, the geophones are connected in series to the seismic recorder and battery. b.) In autonomous nodal systems, each geophone has its own seismic recorder and battery.

The proposed heterogeneous sensor system separates the sensing units from the UAV. This reduces the cost per sensor. The first solution, called a SeismicDart, are geophones dropped by the UAV. Dropping the geophones enables increasing geophone penetration by increasing drop height and eliminates the necessity for a level landing site. The new design also increases separation between geophones and the UAV.

Additionally, some survey locations are in regions inaccessible to UAVs such as forests or thin atmosphere environments, caves, or hard surfaces which the SeismicDart cannot penetrate. These challenging regions motivate the development of a walking ground robot, the SeismicSpider. The SeismicSpider can be deployed by UAV, but is a mobile platform with autonomy and sensing that enable it to move to desired locations and conduct seismic measurements.

A. Overview of Seismic Sensing Theory

During seismic surveys a source generates seismic waves that propagate under the earth's surface. These waves are sensed by geophone sensors and are recorded for later analysis to detect the presence of hydrocarbons. Fig. 2 illustrates the components of current sensors.

1) Geophones

Magnet-coil geophones contain a permanent magnet on a spring inside a coil. Voltage across the coil is proportional to velocity. Beneath the coil housing is a metal spike. Geophones are *planted* by pushing this metal spike into the ground, which improves coupling with the ground to increase sensitivity. The magnet-coil must be vertical. Misalignment reduces the signal proportional to the cosine of the error.

2) Cabled Systems

Traditional *cabled systems* are extensively used for seismic data acquisition in hydrocarbon exploration. A group of sensors (geophones) are connected to each other in series using long cables, and this setup is connected to a seismic

recorder and a battery. The seismic recorder consists of a micro-controller which synchronizes the data acquired with a GPS signal and stores the data on-board. This method of data acquisition requires many manual laborers and a substantial expenditure for transporting the cables. Rugged terrain makes carrying and placing cables labor intensive, and the local manual labor pool may be unskilled or expensive.

3) Autonomous Nodal Systems

Currently, *autonomous nodal systems* [8] are extensively used for conducting seismic data acquisition surveys. Unlike traditional cabled systems, autonomous nodal systems are not connected using cables. The sensor, seismic recorder, and battery are all combined into a single package called a *node* that can autonomously record data as shown in Fig. 2. Even in these systems the data is stored in the on-board memory and can only be acquired after the survey is completed. This is disadvantageous since errors cannot be detected and rectified while conducting the survey. Recently, wireless autonomous nodes have been developed. These systems can transmit data wirelessly in real time [9]. However, these systems still require manual laborers for planting the autonomous nodes at specific locations and deploying the large antennas necessary for wireless communication.

B. Related Work

Seismic surveying is a large industry. The concept of using robots to place seismic sensors dates to the 1980s, when mobile robots placed seismic sensors on the moon [10]. [11] and [12] proposed using a mobile robot for terrestrial geophone placement. Plans are underway for a swarm of seismic sensors for Mars exploration [13]. Additionally, [14] and [15] proposed marine robots for hydrophone deployment underwater. Other work focuses on data collection, using a UAV to wirelessly collect data from multiple sensors [16]. Autonomous sensor deployment and mobile wireless sensor networks have been extensively studied in [17]–[19]. Heterogeneous mobile robotic teams were used for mapping and tracking in [20]. This paper's main contribution is to implement a heterogeneous seismic sensing team, to perform a small-scale seismic survey, provide experimental data on geophone plant quality as a function of drop height and soil type, and present a tool for analyzing the survey logistics. Our multi-agent system approach is designed to quickly and efficiently perform a survey.

III. SeismicDarts

The SeismicDart combines a geophone (GS-100) with the fins and body of a lawn Jart™, using a 3D-printed chamber that encloses a WiFi-enabled microcontroller (particle.io Photon™) as shown in Fig. 3. The center of the chamber is slotted to fit a wooden plate holding an accelerometer that transmits data wirelessly through the microcontroller. The centered accelerometer card allows placing the microcontroller and battery on opposite sides, balancing the dart. Designs and instructions to build a SeismicDart are available at [21].

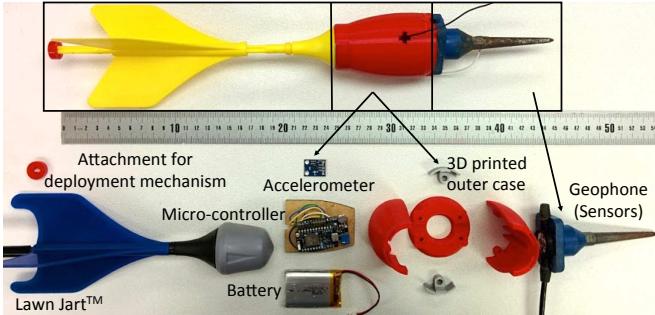


Fig. 3: Components of the SeismicDart sensor: a lawn Jart™ fin, particle.io Photon™ micro-controller, 3D printed protective casing, and a geophone.

A. Experiments

The following sections compare SeismicDart performance.

1) Drop tests in different soils

Proper planting of a geophone requires good contact with the soil and the geophone to be in a vertical position. Geophone protocol classifies a geophone as well planted if the angle of deviation is less than 10° and the spike has at least 40 mm of penetration.

To determine how SeismicDarts perform in different soils, this experiment measured penetration depth and angle of deviation in seven different soil types as a function of drop height. The soil types were categorized by their compression strength, in kg/cm^2 , measured using a soil pocket penetrometer (CertifiedMTP). Measurements for compression strength vary with small deviation in measurement location, so we repeated this measurement 10 times at 10 different locations in each soil type and computed the average.

Experiments were conducted using the SeismicDrone to autonomously drop a payload of four SeismicDarts at a desired drop height. Tests were conducted at drop heights of 10, 15, 20, and 25 m. We measured angle of deviation and penetration depth for each drop. The angular deviation was recorded using two protractors. To measure penetration depth, the buried darts were marked where the spike met the soil, the dart was then pulled from the soil, and the distance from the spike tip to the marking was measured with calipers. We repeated this measurement 12 times for each soil type at each drop height. The soil compression strengths in these experiments ranged from $0.056 \text{ kg}/\text{cm}^2$ for river sand, to $4 \text{ kg}/\text{cm}^2$ for a hard-packed soccer field.

The four soil types with the lowest soil compression strength could be well-planted with low drop heights, so these tests were performed manually. Testing was performed by holding a dart at the tip opposite to the spike in a vertical position and releasing it at varying heights into 19 liter (5 gal.) buckets of soil.

Experiment results plotting penetration depth as a function of drop height are displayed in Fig. 4, and angle of deviation as a function of drop height in Fig. 5. Both graphs annotated with values for soil compression strength.

If a SeismicDart is dropped from a sufficient height into penetrable soil, the spike will be buried into the soil, and the

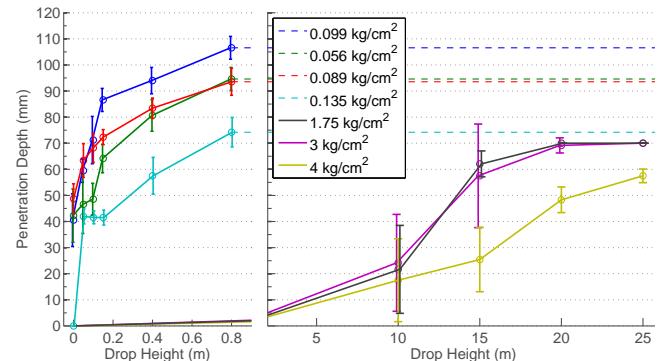


Fig. 4: Drop height vs. penetration depth in seven soil types. Drops were performed autonomously and each data point represents 12 trials. Increasing the drop height increased the penetration depth for all seven soil types.

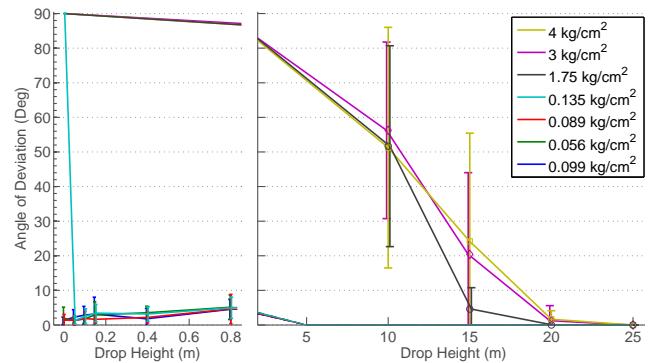


Fig. 5: Drop height vs. angle of deviation in seven soil types. Drops were performed autonomously and each data point represents 12 trials. Increasing the drop height reduced the angle of deviation for all seven soil types.

geophone will have small angular deviation from vertical. Soils with higher compression strength require higher drop heights. Error bars show that variance decreases with drop height for both angle of deviation and penetration depth. Geophone protocol classifies a geophone as well planted if the angle of deviation is less than 10° and the spike has at least 40 mm of penetration. All drops from heights 20 m or more achieved the goals of an angle of deviation less than 10° and a penetration at least 40 mm of penetration.

The autonomous tests were conducted with 16 km/hr winds, demonstrating that drop heights 20 m or higher were sufficient to counter disturbances from wind.

2) Shot gather comparison

Seismic explorations use thousands of geophones to conduct a seismic survey. As a proof-of-concept, this experiment ran a small-scale seismic survey to compare the performance of a traditional cabled four geophone system with readings from four autonomously deployed SeismicDarts. Flying autonomously at a drop height of 25 m, the SeismicDrone flew to GPS waypoints spaced 4 m apart and deployed one dart at each location. A seismic survey technician manually planted four traditional cabled geophones, each 10 cm from a deployed SeismicDart. A seismic wave was generated using a sledge hammer hitting a steel plate.

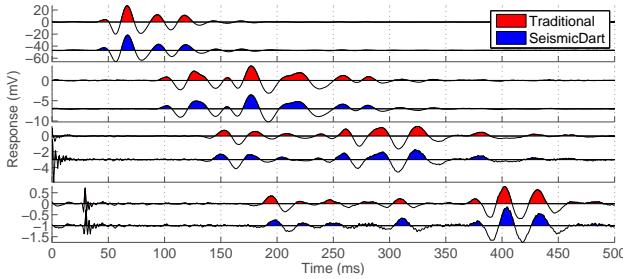


Fig. 6: Raw voltage data from shot gather comparison of four traditional geophones and four autonomously dropped SeismicDart sensors.

Results of the field test comparison between the traditional cabled geophone system and the SeismicDarts are shown in Fig. 6. Data were obtained using a *Strata-Visor*, a device that can obtain, store, and plot the sensed data. The *Strata-Visor* is extensively used with traditional geophone setups because the geophones can only sense vibrational waves and are dependent on other devices for storage and data processing. To allow a fair comparison, the SeismicDart's ability to store sensed data was not used in this experiment. The *Strata-Visor* records the geophone voltage at 2000 Hz, using an 24 bit ADC.

The readings from both systems are qualitatively similar, with no discernible phase or amplitude differences. Readings were compared using a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, which gives a correlation measurement between -1 and $+1$ where $+1$ is total positive linear correlation.

$$\rho_{X,Y} = \frac{E[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)]}{\sigma_X, \sigma_Y} \quad (1)$$

The correlation coefficients were $\rho_{4\text{ m}} = 0.9813$, $\rho_{8\text{ m}} = 0.9836$, $\rho_{12\text{ m}} = 0.8600$, $\rho_{16\text{ m}} = 0.8114$. These correlations decrease with distance. The SeismicDart is subject to low-amplitude noise, which is easiest to see in the fourth sensor because it was 16 m from the seismic source and thus had the lowest signal amplitude. This noise is potentially due to wind striking the SeismicDart's fin. The effect of noise can be mitigated by using larger seismic sources such as a vibration truck or explosives.

B. SeismicDart Deployment and Retrieval

First the SeismicDarts are loaded onto to a UAV. Currently a maximum of four sensors can be dropped in a single flight. The flight plan communicated to the UAV provides a GPS waypoint for each SmartDart. The UAV flies to and drops a SmartDart at each waypoint, then returns home.

However, deployment is only part of the problem. Large surveys require moving and reusing sensors. Moreover because SmartDarts are more expensive than standard geophones, rapid reuse is essential. The UAV has an underslung hook for picking up a SeismicDart. Retrieval is facilitated by attaching a wire loop to the SeismicDart tail, which provide a target 300 mm in diameter for the hook. Currently retrieval is performed by manually piloting the UAV, but this level of accuracy is within the accuracy of UAVS equipped with RTK



Fig. 7: SmartDart retrieval and redeployment See video attachment.

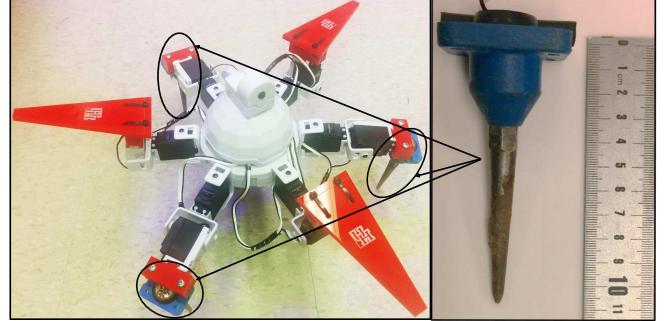


Fig. 8: The SeismicSpider is a six-legged mobile robot where three legs are replaced by geophones. It is drone deployable, can sense and record seismic data, and can move to desired locations, including terrain the SeismicDart cannot access.

GPS. Automating retrieval is out of the scope of this paper. Fig. 7 shows a SeismicDart being retrieved and redeployed.

IV. SeismicSpider

The SeismicSpider is built from the Six Hexapod kit designed by EZ Robots. Each of the six legs are powered by two 15 kg/cm lever servos. Three legs were replaced by three GS-20DM 14 Hz geophones from Geospace Technologies. The remaining three legs were designed to match the geophone dimensions.

Our initial plan to use three geophones required the spider to raise the three inactive legs while acquiring data. This lack of support caused excessive strain on the three servo motors responsible for holding the spider upright, introducing unwanted vibration into the system. Positioning the geophone legs at 20° to normal enhances stability and relieves the excessive stress on the servos. The three geophones were in series, so with each geophone leg angled inward, superposition replicates the signal from one vertical geophone.

Traditional geophones are mounted in an insulated shock resistive enclosure on a spike. The spikes, varying in length, are inserted into the ground to ensure a firm coupling with the environment. The design of our Seismic Spider prevents full depth insertion of the three inch spikes.

To overcome the coupling issue we are using three geophones per station compared to the typical one. Our immediate goals were to compare amplitude response to that of a standard single station.

A. Shot gather comparison

A line of twenty four geophones (GS-20DM 14 Hz) were laid out at one meter intervals with our inline source seven meters from the nearest geophone. Beginning from

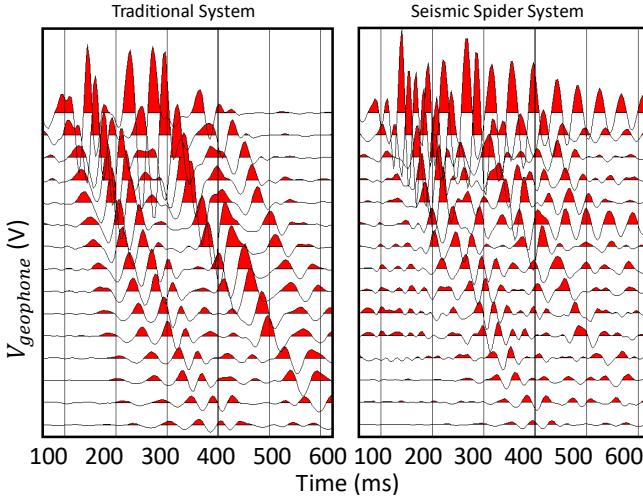


Fig. 9: Shot gather comparison of traditional geophones vs. SeismicSpider.

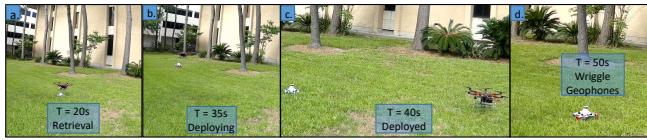


Fig. 10: SeismicSpider retrieval and redeployment. See video attachment.

the farthest offset of 31 meters we manually aligned the Spider with the corresponding geophone, fired the source, then moved one meter ahead.

Data from the shot gather comparison is shown in Fig. 9. The response for three geophones in series was 5 dB greater than a single geophone. The geophone wires proved insufficient to insulate against 60 Hz noise. Hence the raw data from the traditional setup as well as the SeismicSpider was processed with a (3-50) band-pass filter. Finally, the SeismicSpider data was attenuated by -5dB to level the comparison.

B. Deploying and Retrieving Hexapod

The Seismic UAV's purpose is to deploy sensors at desired GPS waypoint locations. The SeismicSpider is a mobile robot, but it is substantially slower than the UAV. Fig. 10 shows the SeismicSpider being retrieved and then redeployed by a UAV. The UAV carrying the SeismicSpider was manually piloted to a specific location. The deployment mechanism included a hook controlled by a servo attached to the UAV. The UAV lowered to the ground, then the servo was triggered to unhook the SeismicSpider. The SeismicSpider was then wirelessly powered on. After walking to the goal sensing location, the SeismicSpider was controlled to shake its three non-sensing legs to plant its geophone legs into the ground. The SeismicSpider has an onboard GPS to navigate to a specific waypoint. Currently autonomous deployment of sensors is implemented, but the retrieval is piloted. Combining the mobility of the SeismicSpider with the speed of the UAV enables reaching locations inaccessible by air or impossible to penetrate by SmartDarts.

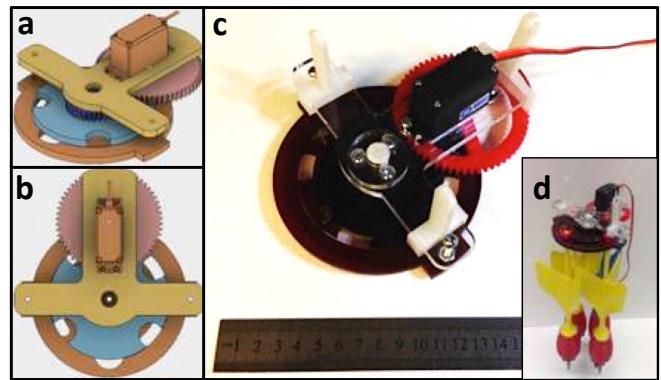


Fig. 11: Deployment system for dropping SeismicDarts from the UAV. Pictured design holds 4 darts, but can be scaled according to the UAV's carrying capacity.

V. UAV and deployment unit

The UAV is a custom-built, 177 cm wingspan hexacopter, controlled by a Pixhawk flight controller running ArduPilot Mega flight software. The UAV has a 3DR GPS module using the UBX NEO-7 chipset.

The deployment mechanism allows the UAV to carry four SeismicDarts in a circular array, and release them when it reaches the desired GPS location, one at a time. The rear of the dart has a circular tip that locks into the deployment mechanism, and rests on a rectangular slot-path. A servomotor rotates the dart tips through the rectangular slot-path, allowing darts to release from a circular opening, as shown in Fig. 11.

A. Autonomous drop demonstration and accuracy

The current UAV can place the SeismicDart within ± 1 m of the desired location. This range is within tolerances for seismic surveys because: (1) often features (rocks, water, etc.) exist that require this amount of error from theoretically assigned locations, (2) some survey designs include a random placement component to improve noise cancellation.

The critical factor is to know within ≈ 10 cm accuracy the geophone location. Such accuracy can be obtained through Real Time Kinematic GPS systems. Knowledge of the exact location compensates for placement inaccuracy.

For the accuracy test, six sets of darts, four darts in each set, were dropped on the same GPS waypoint. Between each drop, the UAV travelled to a nearby GPS waypoint to cancel out the flight controller's stable hover. This path is shown in Fig. 12a. The UAV then returned to the launch platform to be reloaded and data was recorded after each set.

To record data, one dart was picked from the first set as the reference point (the lower left in Fig. 12b), hence the first data point was (0,0). A 1-m T-square was placed with the origin at the dart's drop point to establish reference axes.

After the first set of data was recorded, the darts were collected and reloaded on the UAV for the next deployment set. A rod was placed in the position of the first dart to keep reference as shown in Fig. 12c. The T-square was kept in place and mason twine was suspended to lengthen the

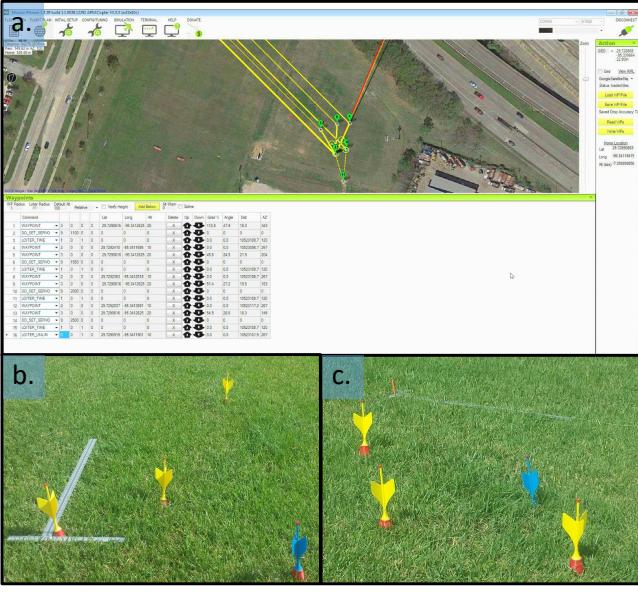


Fig. 12: a.) Flight plan of accuracy test. b.) First set of darts with reference axes. c.) Third dart set.

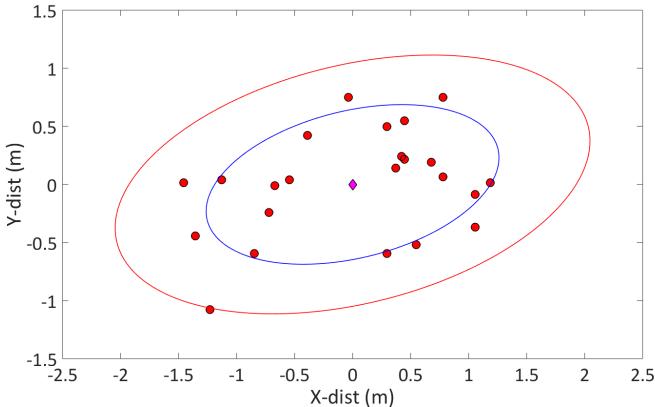


Fig. 13: Targeting accuracy. Circles show landing locations of 24 darts, each commanded to drop at the same GPS location. The mean position is marked by a diamond with covariance ellipses for σ and 2σ .

reference axes. Future deployments were measured using the reference point and axes. Results are shown in Fig. 13.

B. Height vs. penetration depth

FAA rules require that UAVs fly below 400 feet (122 m). Our highest drop tests were from 25 m, and resulted in well-planted geophones on a compacted field with density 4 kg/cm². Harder soils may require faster impact velocity, so this section examines possible impact velocities as a function of drop height. For ease of analysis we will assume the SeismicDart has a constant coefficient of drag C_d and that the drag force is proportional to velocity squared and equal to $\frac{1}{2}v^2\rho AC_d$, where v is the velocity, A the cross-sectional area and ρ the density of air. The tests were performed near sea level, so $\rho \approx 1.225\text{kg/m}^3$. The dart body is 0.06 m in diameter so $A = 0.028\text{ m}^2$. We will assume the dart C_d is between that of a streamlined body $C_d = 0.04$ and that of an arrow $C_d = 1.5$ [22], and choose that of a sphere $C_d = 0.47$.

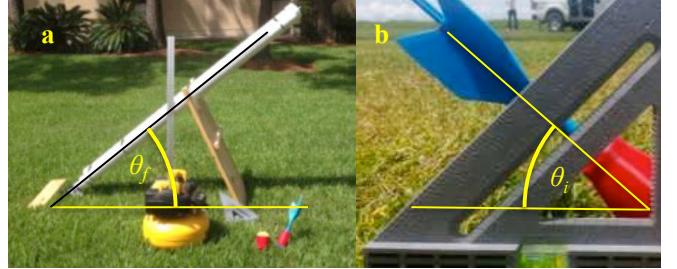


Fig. 14: A pneumatic launcher for SeismicDarts. Ballistic dart deployment has limited usefulness because the incident angle is equal to the firing angle.

The terminal velocity is then

$$v_T = \sqrt{\frac{2mg}{\rho AC_d}} \approx 59 \text{ m/s.} \quad (2)$$

The velocity at impact is a function of the drop height h .

$$v_{impact} = v_T \sqrt{1 - e^{-\frac{\rho AC_d}{m} h}} \approx 59 \sqrt{1 - e^{-0.008h}} \text{ m/s} \quad (3)$$

With $C_d = 0.47$, our drop from 25 m achieves only 43% the terminal velocity (21.1 m/s), and for $C_d = 0.04$ only 13% terminal velocity (22.0 m/s). This implies the SeismicDart is suitable even for much harder soils than tested thus far.

C. Robustness

The darts are robust. One of the darts used for the shot gather in Fig. 6 was a veteran of 120 drops. The most damage observed occurred when we dropped a SeismicDart 10 m onto a bed of rocks, each approximately 0.1 m in diameter. The steel spike of the dart was blunted, but this damage was quickly compensated by resharpenering with a hand file and the SeismicDart was ready to redeploy.

VI. Comparison

A. Ballistic Deployment

To compare an alternate deployment mechanism we built the pneumatic cannon shown in Fig. 14a. The pneumatic cannon is U-shaped, 2m in length, with a 0.1 m (4 inch) diameter pressure chamber and a 0.08 m (3 inch) diameter firing barrel, connected by an electronic valve (Rain Bird JTV/ASF 100). The cannon is aimed by changing the desired firing angle θ_f and azimuth angle, and filling the pressure chamber to the desired pressure. The reachable workspace is an annular ring whose radius r is a function of the firing angle and initial velocity v . Neglecting air resistance, this range is found by integration:

$$r = \frac{v^2}{g} \sin(2\theta_f) \quad (4)$$

Initial velocity is limited by the maximum pressure and size of the pressure chamber. The cannon used SCH 40 PVC, which is limited to a maximum pressure of 3 Mpa (450 psi).

We charged our system to 1 Mpa (150 psi), and achieved a range of ≈ 150 m. This is considerably smaller than the UAV's range, which when loaded can complete a roundtrip of ≈ 1.5 km.

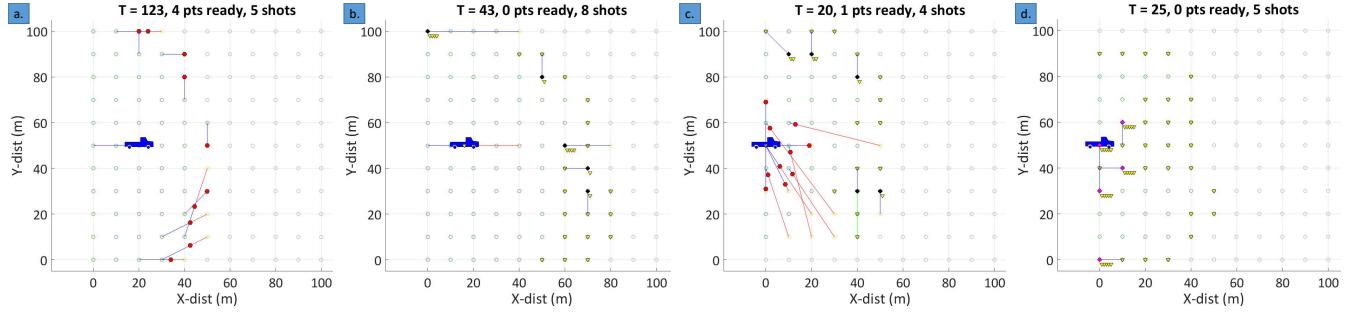


Fig. 15: Screen shots of simulations that were performed to estimate time take by different sensors surveying 100x100 m grid a.) Only SeismicSpiders b.) SeismicDarts and deployment system c.) Heterogeneous System d.) Human workers

| Test | Type | Numbers of Units | Survey Time (s) | Velocity (m/s) |
|------|--------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------|----------------|
| 1. | SeismicSpiders | 5000 SeismicSpiders | 73,893 | 0.2 |
| 2. | UAVs, SeismicDarts | 500 UAVs, 5000 SeismicDarts | 1,216 | 20 |
| 3. | Workers | 500 Workers, 5000 Sensors | 7,371 | 1.38 |

TABLE I: Comparison of different deployment modes highlights the efficiency of UAV deployment.

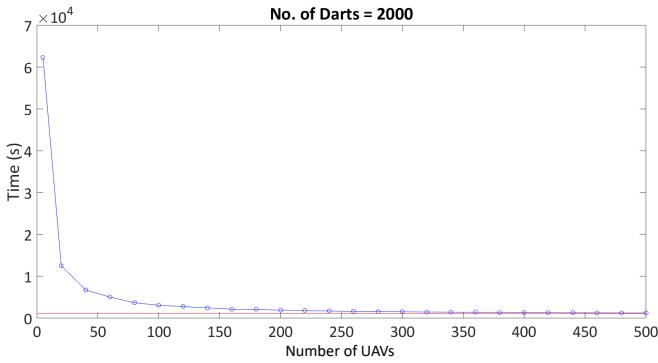


Fig. 16: Survey time for a 1km x 10 km region for different numbers of UAVs.

A larger problem, illustrated in Fig. 14, is that angle of incidence θ_i is equal to the firing angle θ_f . Maximum range is achieved with $\theta_f = 45^\circ$, but this angle of incidence reduces the geophone sensitivity to $\cos(\theta_f) \approx 0.7$. The placement accuracy of the cannon is lower than the UAV because a fired dart must fly over a longer distance than a dropped dart. Safety reasons also limit applications for a pneumatic launcher.

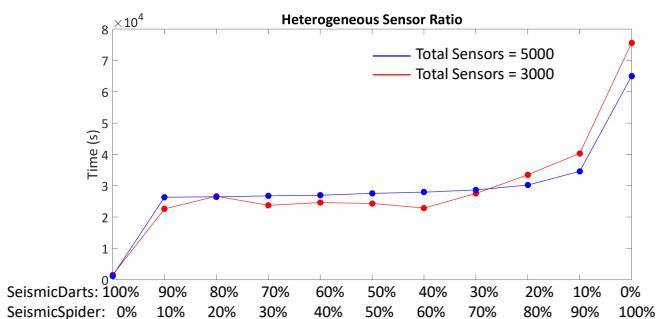


Fig. 17: Survey time for different sensor ratios. The total number of sensors {5000, 3000} were kept constant. Ten darts were provided for each UAV.

B. Simulation Studies

A scheduling system to compare time and costs for seismic surveys with varying numbers of UAVs, SeismicSpiders, SeismicDarts, and human laborers was coded in MATLAB, available at [23]. Frames from four different cases are shown in Fig. 15.

This tool allows us to examine engineering and logistic trade-offs quickly in simulation. For example, Fig. 16 assumes a fixed number of darts, and examines the finishing time with 5 to 500 UAVs. The time required decays asymptotically, but 140 UAVs requires only twice the amount of time required for 500 UAVs, indicating that 140 UAVs are sufficient for the task. Substantial cost savings can be obtained by selecting the number of UAVs required to complete within a certain percentage greater than the optimal time.

The tool is useful for comparing the effectiveness of heterogeneous teams. Table I compares surveying a 1 km x 10 km strip of land with teams of (a) 5000 SeismicSpiders, (b) 500 UAVs and 5000 SeismicDarts, (c) 500 humans and 5000 geophones. Team (b) completed 6 times faster than team (c). Since SeismicSpiders are slower than UAVs and humans, and are expensive compared to the SeismicDarts, their use is limited to special occasions. The Seismic UAV has the ability to deploy the SeismicSpider at a given waypoint. This attribute was not considered in the simulation but would improve deployment speed of SeismicSpiders.

In Fig. 17, the total number of mobile agents are constant, but the percentage of UAVs and SeismicSpiders are varied. The goal is to analyze ratios of different sensors to optimize cost and time. 10 SeismicDarts were provided for each UAV. Increasing the percentage of UAVs lowers the deployment time. This is obvious since UAVs move at 20 m/s whereas SeismicSpiders move at 0.2 m/s. The difference in velocities makes UAV deployment time efficient. The SeismicSpiders are ideal for hard surface sensing or regions difficult for UAVs to access such as forests.

Soil maps could be used to plan a survey, allocating seismic spiders to rocky or forested areas and SeismicDarts to penetrable soils. These maps can be made more accurate using drone-carried ground penetrating radar [24], however the SeismicDart's internal accelerometer also provides feedback on the quality of the plant. As shown in Figs. 5,

increasing angular deviations indicate a higher drop height is needed.

VII. Conclusion and Future Work

This paper presented an autonomous technique for geophone placement, recording, and retrieval. The system enables automating a job that currently requires large teams of manual laborers. Three components were introduced, SeismicDarts, a mobile SeismicSpider, and a deployment unit. Field and laboratory hardware experiments demonstrated the efficacy of the robotic team compared to traditional techniques. The SeismicDart's output were comparable to well-planted geophones. For hard surfaces where the SeismicDart could not penetrate, an autonomous alternative was presented, the SeismicSpider. The SeismicSpider is mobile, can actively adjust its sensors to ensure ground contact and vertical placement, and can be deployed and retrieved by UAVs.

Autonomous deployment was conducted using GPS, proving human involvement could be minimized by adopting the proposed technique. Hardware experiments compared the autonomous system to manual planting and ballistic deployment. Simulation studies show time and cost savings over traditional manual techniques.

Future systems should be weatherized and optimized for cost, robustness, range, and speed. To accurately perform a seismic survey, the sensors do not need to placed accurately, but their position must be known within 0.01 m. This can be achieved by placing a differential GPS in each dart. A lower-cost solution would use a differential GPS on the SeismicDrone and perform image registration with the downward facing camera. As shown in the multimedia attachment, even at a 25 m drop height a planted dart occupies dozens of pixels, enabling cm-level localization accuracy.

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