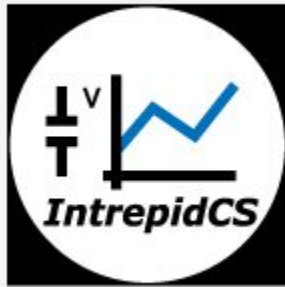


# DIY Robocars

## Day 2: The Embedded World



**INTREPID**  
**CONTROL SYSTEMS**

## The Integrated Development Environment (IDE)

- Compile - Before your program “code” can be sent to the board, it needs to be converted into instructions that the board understands. This process is called compiling.
- Stop - This stops the compilation process. (I have never used this button and you probably won't have a need to either.)
- Text Console - This shows you what the IDE is currently doing and is also where error messages display if you make a mistake in typing your program. (often called a syntax error)
- Line Number - This shows you what line number your cursor is on. It is useful since the compiler gives error messages with a line number

# LED

- An RGB LED is really three small LEDs next to each other. A Red one, a Green one, and a Blue one. (Hence, why it is called RGB). It turns out that you can make any color by mixing these three light colors together.

## OpenMV Cam M7 - OV7725

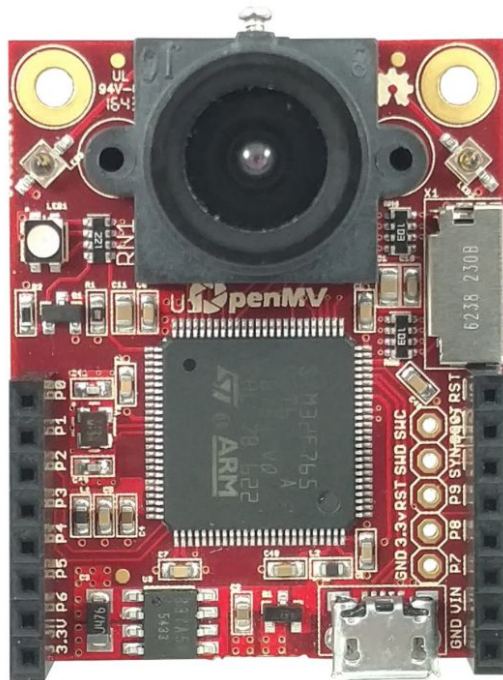


**OpenMV Cam**

By: Ibrahim Abdelkader & Kwabena W. Agyeman  
<https://openmv.io>

LED1 – Red  
 LED2 – Green  
 LED3 – Blue  
 LED4 – IR

Peripherals / Timers	CPU Name	Pin Name
UART 1 RX	TM1 CH0N	PB15 P0
UART 1 TX	TM1 CH0N	PB14 P1
CAN2 TX	TM1 CH1N	PB13 P2
CAN2 RX	SPI 2 SS	PB12 P3
TIM2 CH3	I2C 2 SCL	PB10 P4
TIM2 CH4	I2C 2 SDA	PB11 P5
TIM2 CH1	DAC	PAS P6
3.3V Rail (250 mA supply Max)		



All pins are 5V tolerant<sup>1</sup> with a 3.3V output  
 All pins can sink or source up to 25 mA<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> P6 is not 5V tolerant in ADC or DAC mode  
<sup>2</sup> Up to 120mA in total between all pins

Max current used w/o  $\mu$ SD card < 150 mA  
 Max current used w/  $\mu$ SD card < 250 mA

Micro SD Slot  
 SD < 2GB Max  
 SDHC < 32GB Max

Pin Name	CPU Name	Peripherals / Timers
Reset (Connect to GND to reset)		
BOOT 0 (Connect to 3.3V for DFU mode)		
Frame Sync (use to frame sync cams)		
P9	PD14	Servo 3
P8	PD13	Servo 2
P7	PD12	Servo 1
VIN (3.6V - 5V)		
GND Rail		









# Delay and timing

- It accepts a single integer as an argument. This number represents the time in milliseconds the program has to wait until moving on to the next line of code.
- `time.sleep(1)` your OpenMV stops on that line for 1 second.
- Blocking functions prevent a program from doing anything else until that particular task has completed. If you need multiple tasks to occur at the same time, you simply cannot use `delay()`.

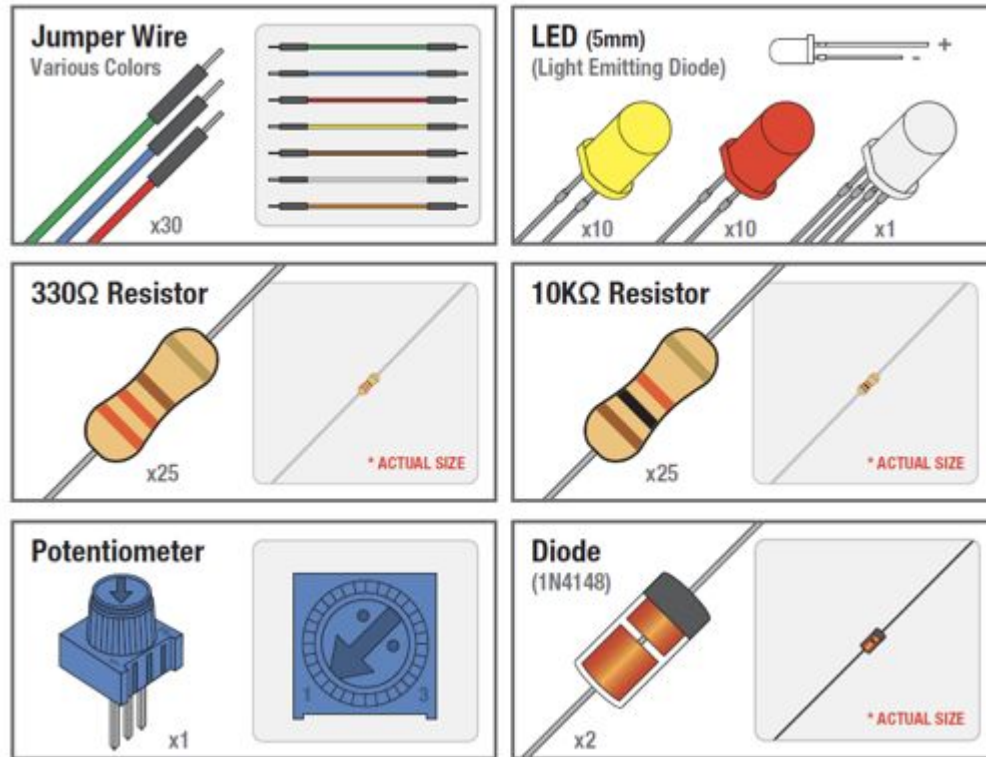
# Why

- Because by using some math, you can easily verify how much time has passed without blocking your code.

# SIK Components

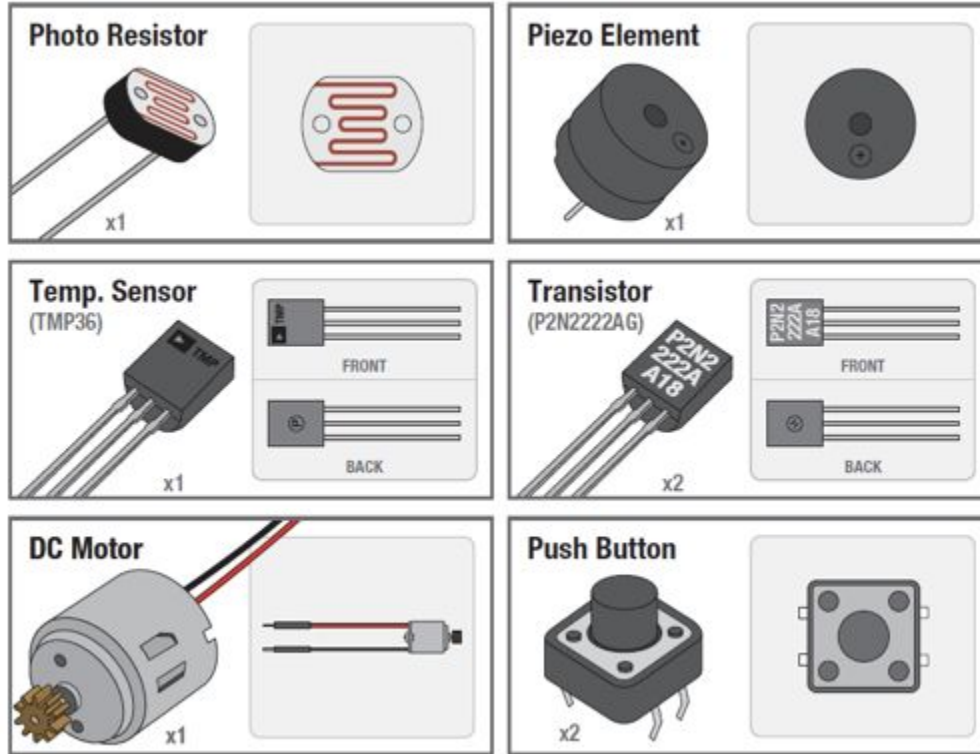
Name	Image	Type	Function	Notes
Push Button		Digital Input	Switch - Closes or opens circuit	Polarized, needs resistor
Trim potentiometer		Analog Input	Variable resistor	Also called a Trimpot.
Photoresistor		Analog Input	Light Dependent Resistor (LDR)	Resistance varies with light.
Relay		Digital Output	Switch driven by a small signal	Used to control larger voltages
Temp Sensor		Analog Input	Temp Dependent Resistor	
Flex Sensor		Analog Input	Variable resistor	
Soft Trimpot		Analog Input	Variable resistor	Careful of shorts
RGB LED		Dig & Analog	16,777,216	Ooh... So pretty.

# Components





# Components

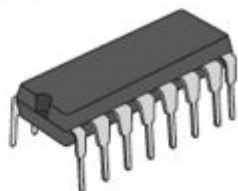


**Relay**



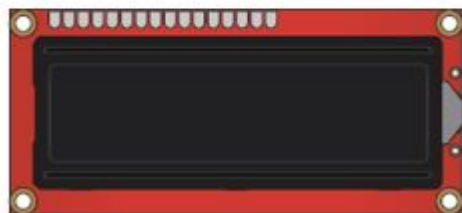
x1

**Integrated Circuit  
(IC)**



x1

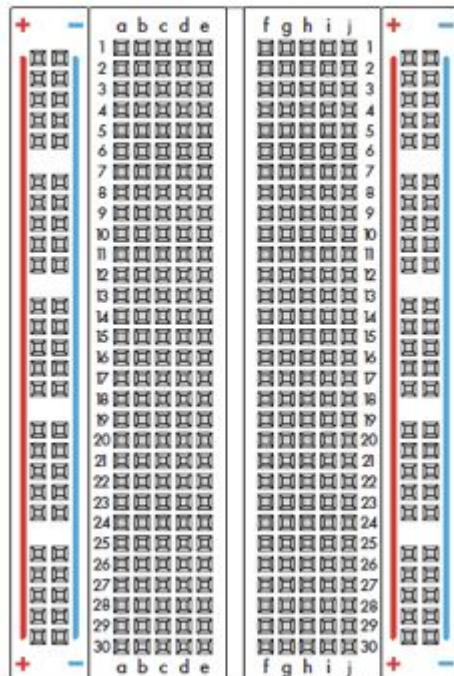
**LCD**



x1

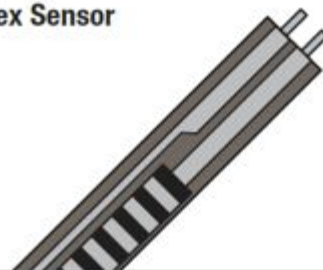
**Breadboard**

Standard Solderless (Color may vary)



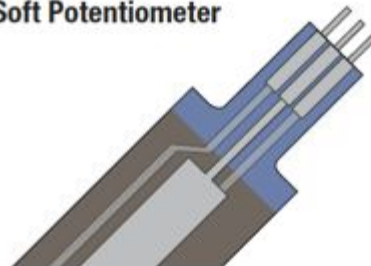
x1

**Flex Sensor**



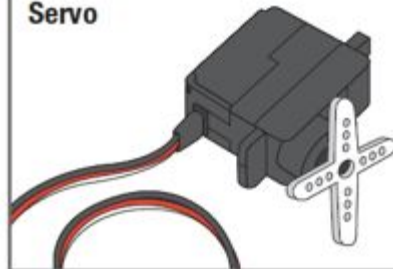
x1

**Soft Potentiometer**



x1

**Servo**



x1

# Electricity \ Electronics Basic Concept Review

- Ohms Law
- Voltage
- Current
- Resistance
- Using a Multi-meter

# Ohm's Law

- Ohms Law
- Voltage
- Current
- Resistance
- Using a Multi-meter

Ohm's Law describes the direct relationship between the Voltage (V), Current (I), and Resistance (R) of a circuit.

The three different forms of Ohm's Law are as follows:

$$\mathbf{V = I \cdot R} \quad \mathbf{I = \frac{V}{R}} \quad \mathbf{R = \frac{V}{I}}$$

## Voltage V

- Defined as the amount of potential energy in a circuit.
- Units: Volts (V)

## Current I

- The rate of charge flow in a circuit.
- Units: Amperes (A)

## Resistance R

- Opposition to charge flow.
- Units: Ohms ( $\Omega$ )

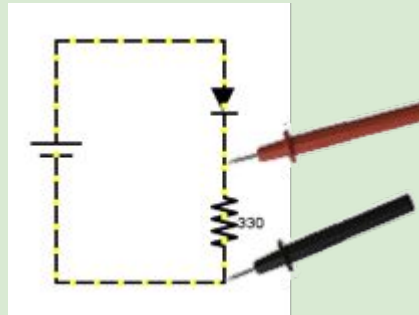
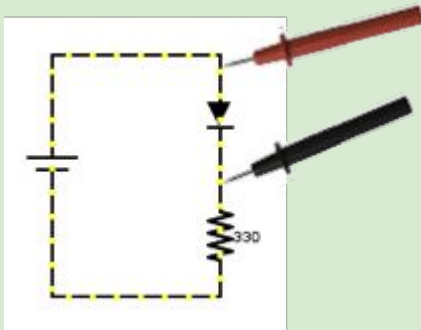
# Continuity – Is it a Circuit?

- The word “circuit” is derived from the circle. An Electrical Circuit must have a continuous LOOP from Power ( $V_{cc}$ ) to Ground (GND).
- Continuity is important to make portions of circuits are connect. Continuity is the simplest and possibly the most important setting on your multi-meter. Sometimes we call this “ringing out” a circuit.



# Measuring Electricity – Voltage

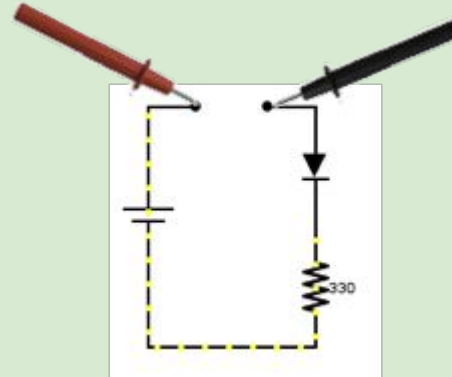
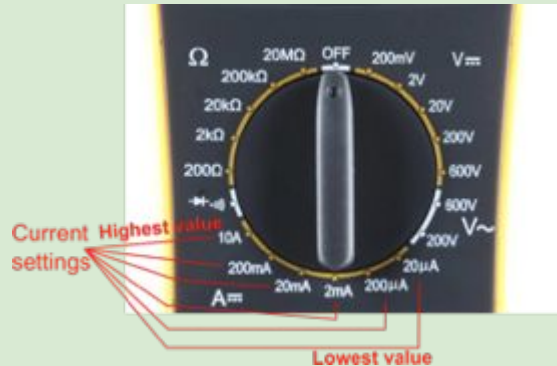
- Voltage is a measure of potential electrical energy. A voltage is also called a potential difference – it is measured between two points in a circuit – across a device.





# Measuring Electricity -- Current

- Current is the measure of the rate of charge flow. For Electrical Engineers – we consider this to be the movement of electrons.
- In order to measure this – you must break the circuit or insert the meter in-line (series).



# Measuring Electricity -- Resistance



- Resistance is the measure of how much opposition to current flow is in a circuit.
- Components should be removed entirely from the circuit to measure resistance. Note the settings on the multi-meter. Make sure that you are set for the appropriate range.

Resistance  
settings



# Concepts: INPUT vs. OUTPUT

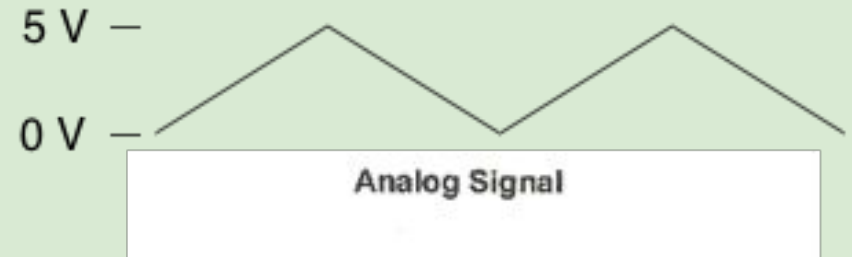
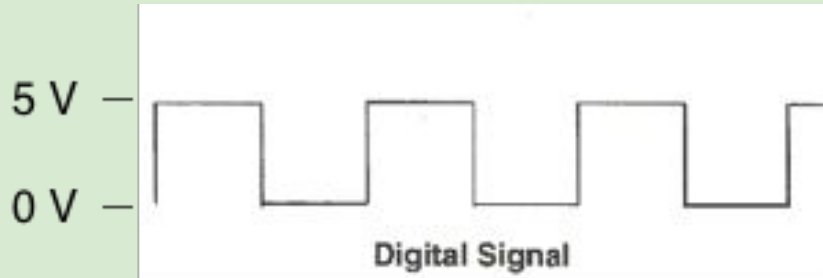
- Inputs is a signal / information going into the board.
- Output is any signal exiting the board.
- Almost all systems that use physical computing will have some form of output
- What are some examples of Outputs?

# Concepts: INPUT vs. OUTPUT

- Inputs is a signal / information going into the board.
  - Examples: Buttons Switches, Light Sensors, Flex Sensors, Humidity Sensors, Temperature Sensors...
- Output is any signal exiting the board.
  - Examples: LEDs, DC motor, servo motor, a piezo buzzer, relay, an RGB LED

# Concepts: Analog vs. Digital

- Microcontrollers are digital devices – ON or OFF. Also called – discrete.
- **Analog** signals are anything that can be a full range of values. What are some examples? More on this later...



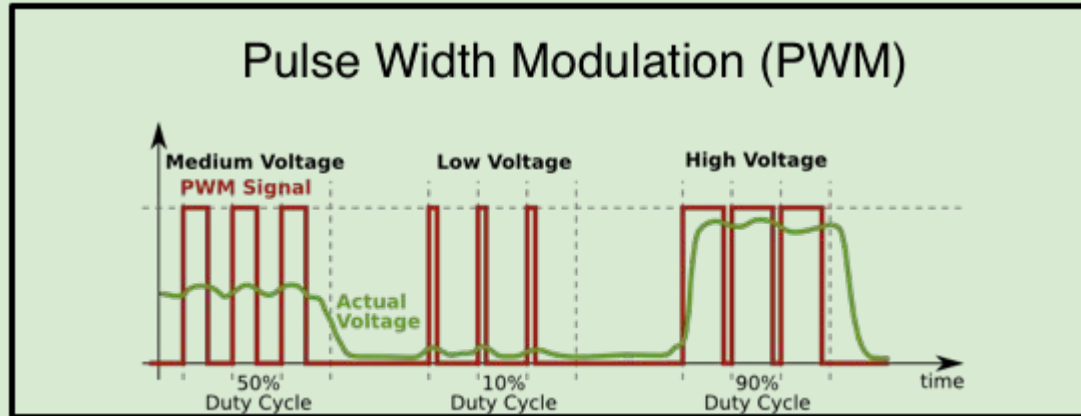
# Analog

- Analog signals are made up of continuously streaming data
- Analog clocks provide continuous data (as shown by the constant movement of the second and minute hands) just like analog signals provide continuous data.

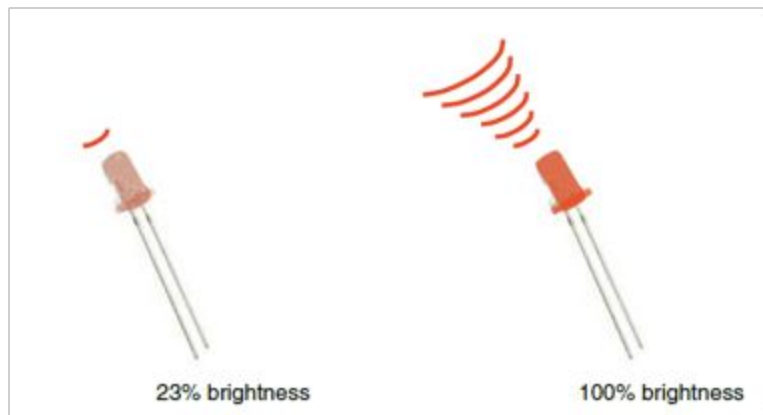


# Concepts: Analog vs. Digital

To create an analog signal, the microcontroller uses a technique called PWM. By varying the duty cycle, we can mimic an “average” analog voltage.



- Can a digital device produce analog output?



- Analog output can be simulated using pulse width modulation (PWM)

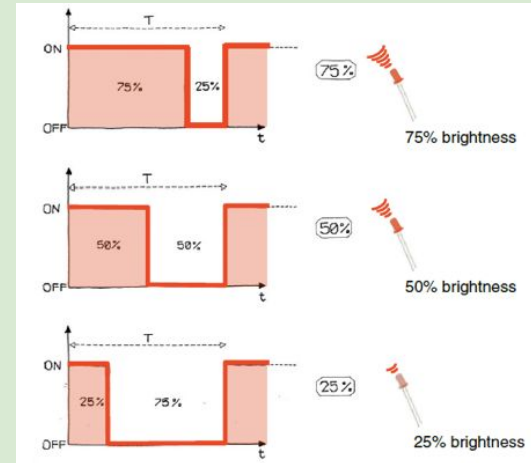


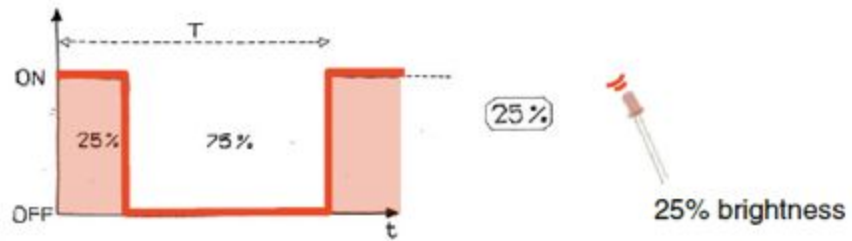
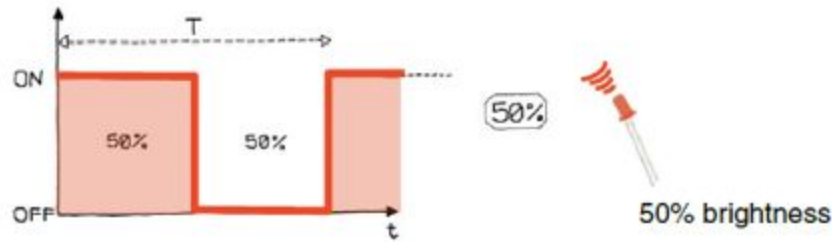
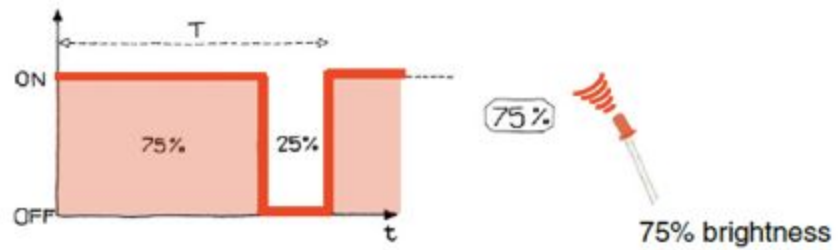
# Concepts: Analog vs. Digital

- Digital sensors are more straight forward than Analog
- No matter what the sensor there are only two settings: On and Off
- Signal is always either HIGH (On) or LOW (Off)

# Pulse Width Modulation

- Can't use digital pins to directly supply say 2.5V, but can pulse the output on and off really fast to produce the same effect
- The on-off pulsing happens so quickly, the connected output device “sees” the result as a reduction in the voltage





# Autonomous

For the last few years each game has started out with an autonomous period, in which the robots move based only on pre-programmed commands and sensor input.

# Timer Based

- Robot follows pre-programmed commands that each last for a given length of time.
- Time can be judged by either using the processors timers or by counting the number of cycles that have passed.

# Common Sensors

- Range Finders



# Common Sensors

- Range Finders
- Light Sensors



## TYPES OF LIGHT SENSORS

# Common Sensors

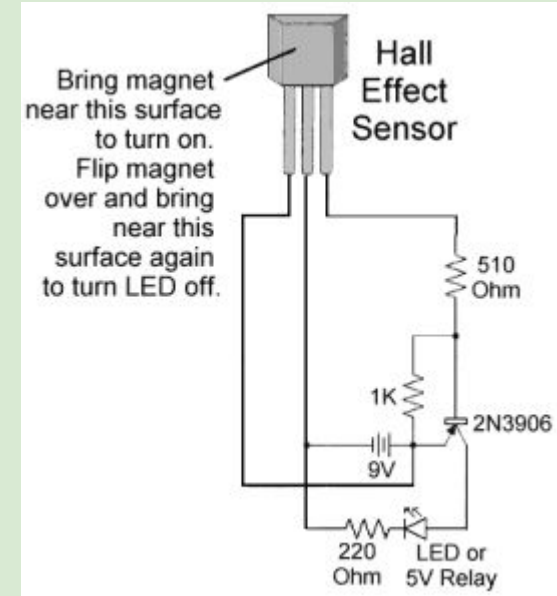
- Range Finders
- Light Sensors
- Limit Switches





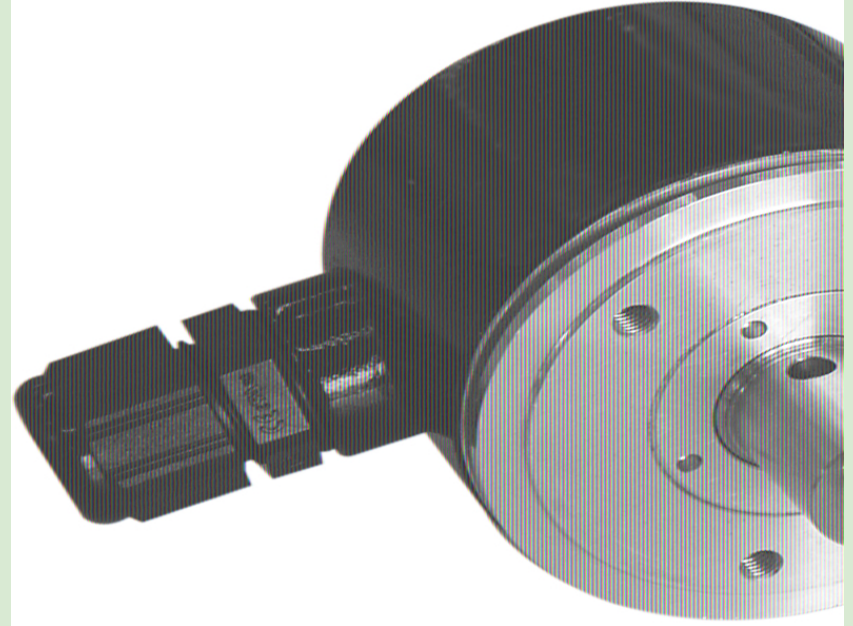
# Common Sensors

- Range Finders
- Light Sensors
- Limit Switches
- Hall Effect



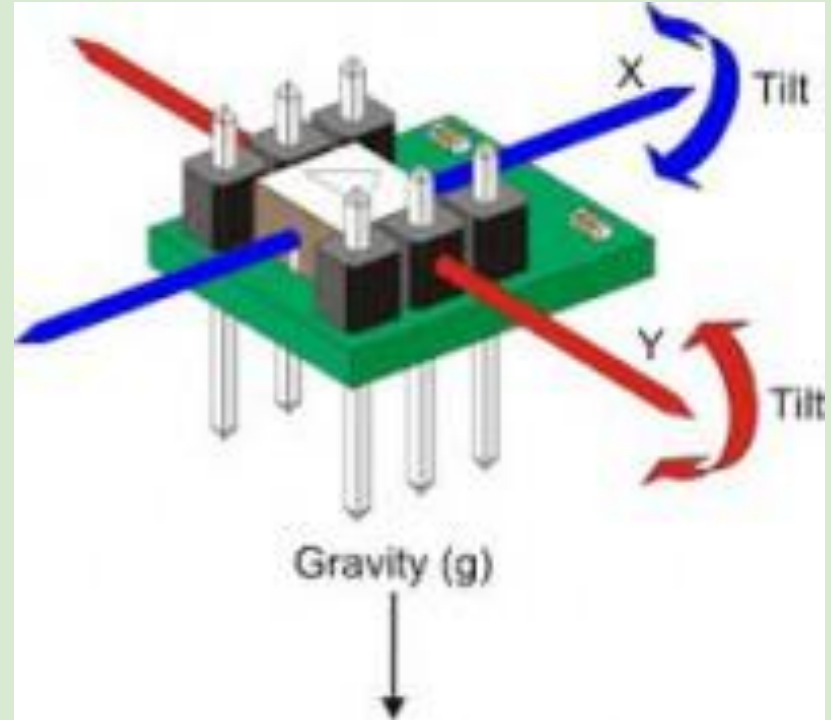
# Common Sensors

- Range Finders
- Light Sensors
- Limit Switches
- Hall Effect
- Encoders



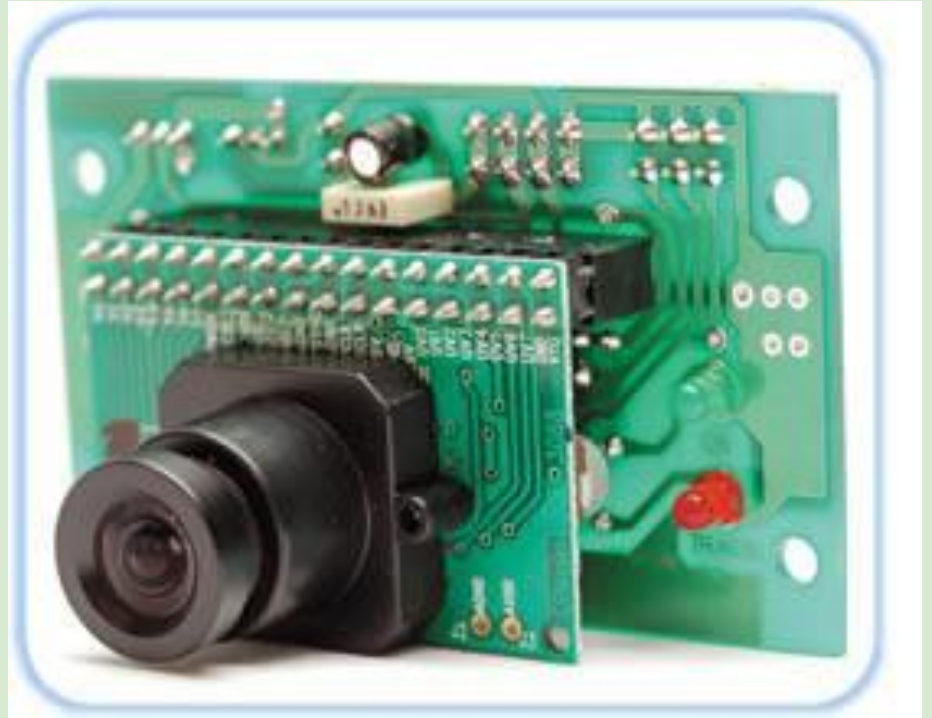
# Common Sensors

- Range Finders
- Light Sensors
- Limit Switches
- Hall Effect
- Encoders
- Gyros



# Common Sensors

- Range Finders
- Light Sensors
- Limit Switches
- Hall Effect
- Encoders
- Gyros
- CMU Camera
- etc



# Basic Sensor Use

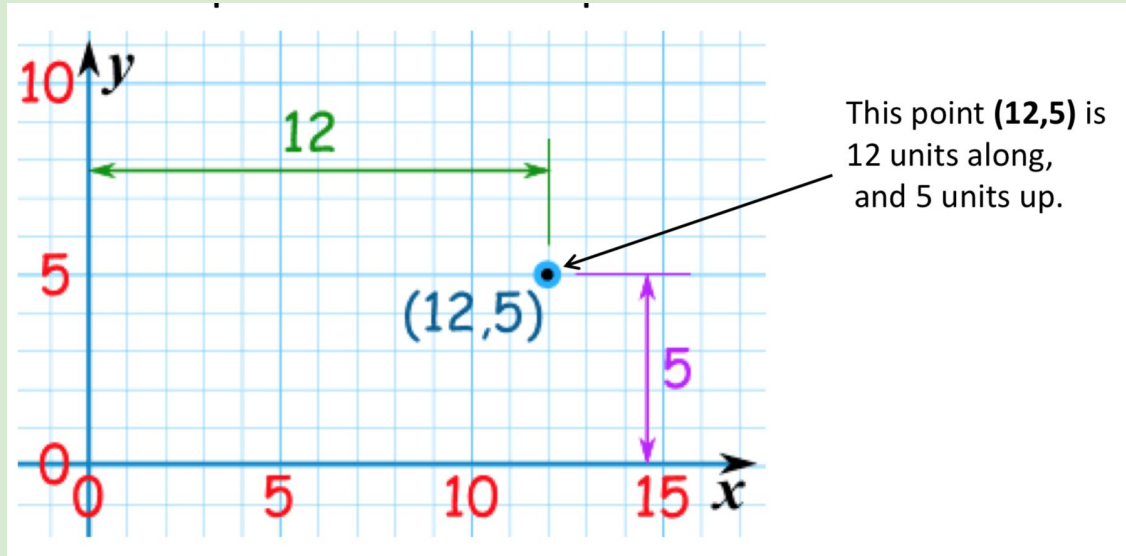
- There is always some value you are trying to “get” to.
- Go until you get to that value, then stop
- Problems: tends to overshoot the goal

# PID Control - Some Math Vocabulary

- In order to understand the math to come, it's important to review and/or learn a few math terms and math symbols:
  - Point
  - Infinity
  - Line
  - Tangent Line
  - Variable
  - Function
  - Change
  - Slope
  - Summation

# What's the Point?

- A point is an exact location. It is not a thing, but a place. It has no size or any dimensions, we just use a dot to represent where a point is.



# Infinite Wisdom

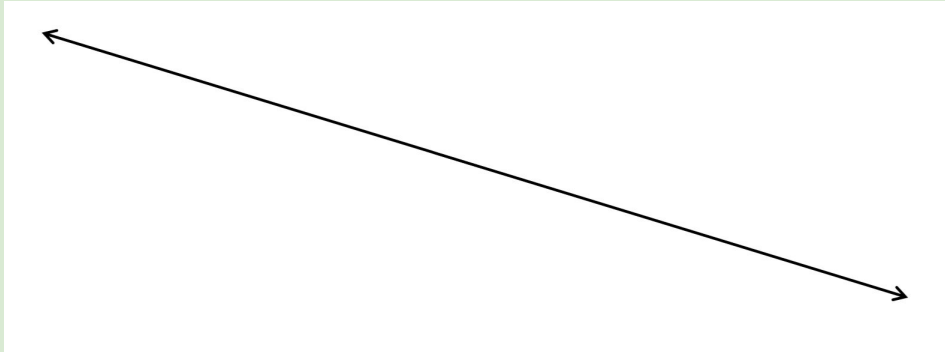
- Infinity is the idea that something has no end. If someone has read every single book about pyramids, you might say she has infinite knowledge about pyramids (that of course would be an exaggeration of “infinite”). She will surely stop talking about them at some point, right?

**Infinity Symbol:** 



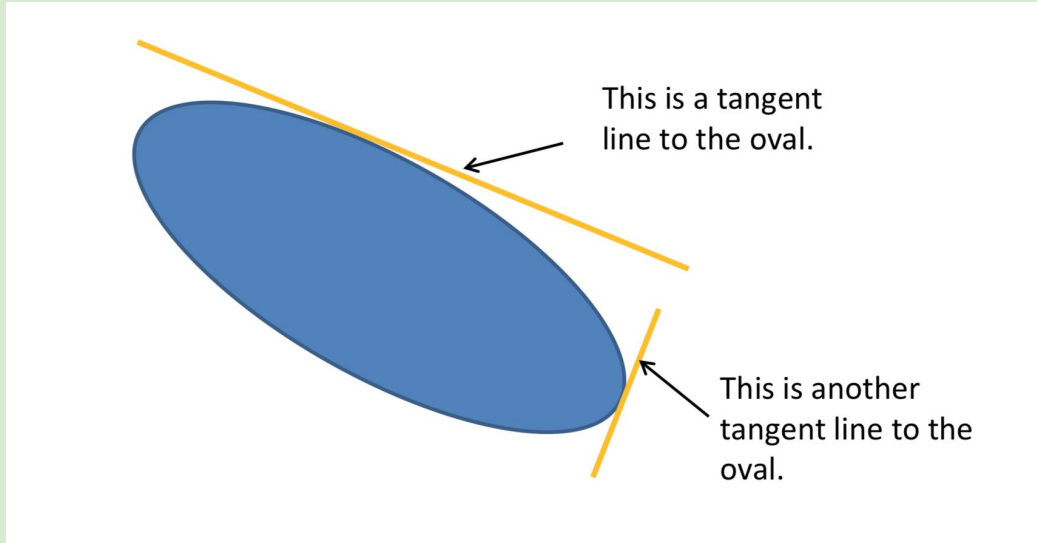
# Walk the Line?

- A line is a straight, one-dimensional string of infinite points. If you draw a line with a pencil, it just represents where the line is, because if you look at the line under a microscope it would show a line with a large width!



# Tangential Thinking

- A tangent line touches a curve at just one point (location). The “radius” of that curve is always perpendicular (right angle, 90 degrees) to the tangent line.



# Variables hold value

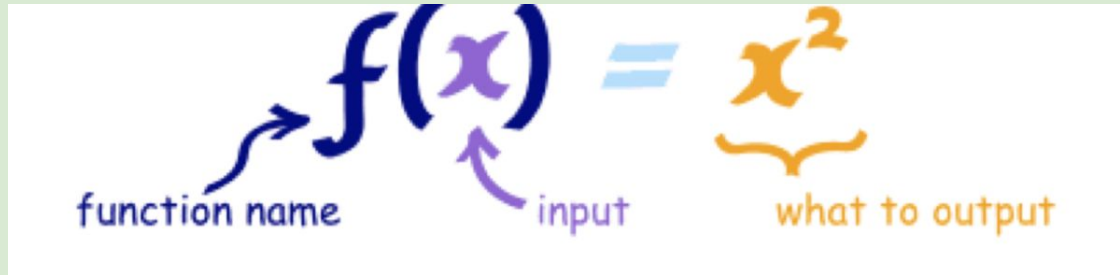
- A variable is simply a symbol, or letter, or word, or even a phrase (ThisIsALongVariableName) that can contain a value (an integer, real number, or even a color!).

The diagram shows the equation  $4x - 7 = 5$  with labels and arrows identifying its parts:

- Coefficient**: Points to the number 4.
- Variable**: Points to the letter x.
- Operator**: Points to the minus sign (-).
- Constants**: Points to the numbers 7 and 5.

# Functions: Math Machines!

- A function relates some input or inputs to some output. A function is like a machine that cranks on the input and generates an output.



The diagram illustrates the components of the function notation  $f(x) = x^2$ . On the left, the expression  $f(x)$  is shown in blue. A blue arrow points from the label "function name" to the  $f$ . A purple arrow points from the label "input" to the  $x$ . To the right of  $f(x)$  is a blue equals sign. Further right is the expression  $x^2$  in orange. A bracket underneath the  $x^2$  is labeled "what to output" in orange.

- A function gets a name, like “f”, or “g”, or “PIG”, or “AREA”. A function simply does some action on the input to make an output.

# The Change will do you good!

- A useful symbol used in math and engineering is the

Delta symbol: 

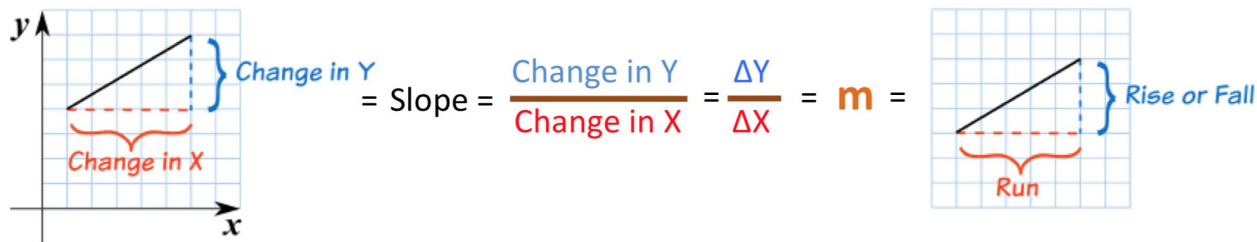
- It represents change in value (or the difference in value).

$\Delta$  = change in value

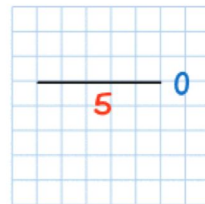
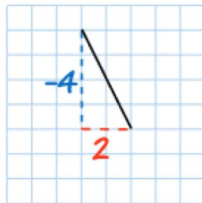
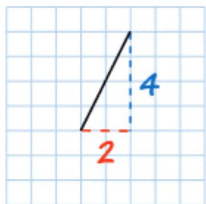
- If a value of a light sensor changes from 75 to 50 from one time we sample it to the next, we say it has a “Delta”, or  $\Delta$  of -25.

# Slope (or Gradient)

- Slope of a Line: We can find the slope of any line on a graph:



Examples:



**Flat!**

# In Summation...

- Another useful symbol used in math and engineering is the Summation symbol:  $\Sigma$
- It represents summing up, or adding together a bunch of values.

$\Sigma$  = summation of values

- For example, the  $\Sigma$  of all integers from 1 to 9 is  $1+2+3+4+5+6+7+8+9 = 45$ .

# What is PID?

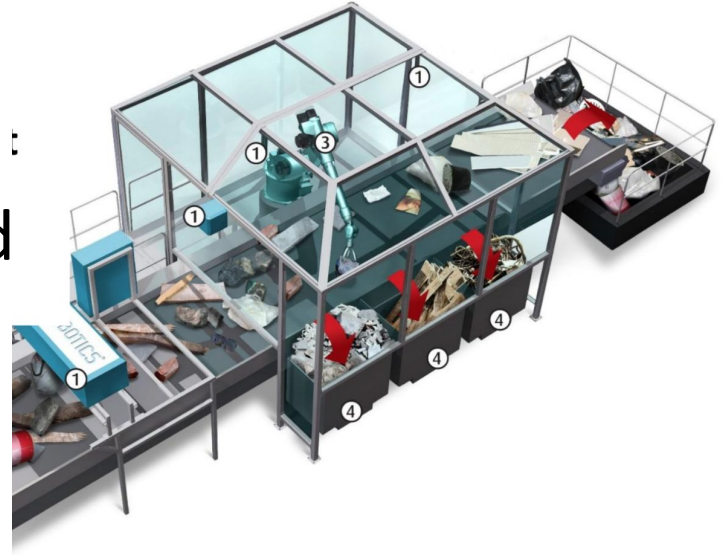
- PID stands for Proportional, Integral, and Differential (P-I-D). It is the most common closed loop control method used to control real-world things like temperature and cruise control speed of a car.
- For example, when your home is too warm, you turn down the thermostat, and a PID controller turns on and off your air conditioner to keep your home at the new temperature you set.



# Example of PID Control

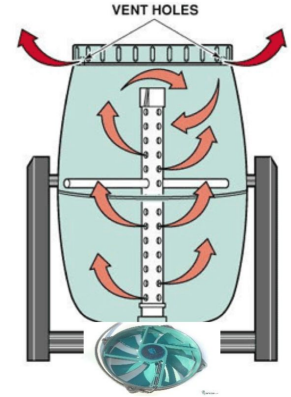
## A Trash Sorter Conveyor Belt Speed

- **Output**: Missed Sorted Trash
- **SetPoint**: Allowed Missed Trash Rate
- **Error**: Missed Sorted Trash Rate above Set Point
- **Output Process**: Belt Speed

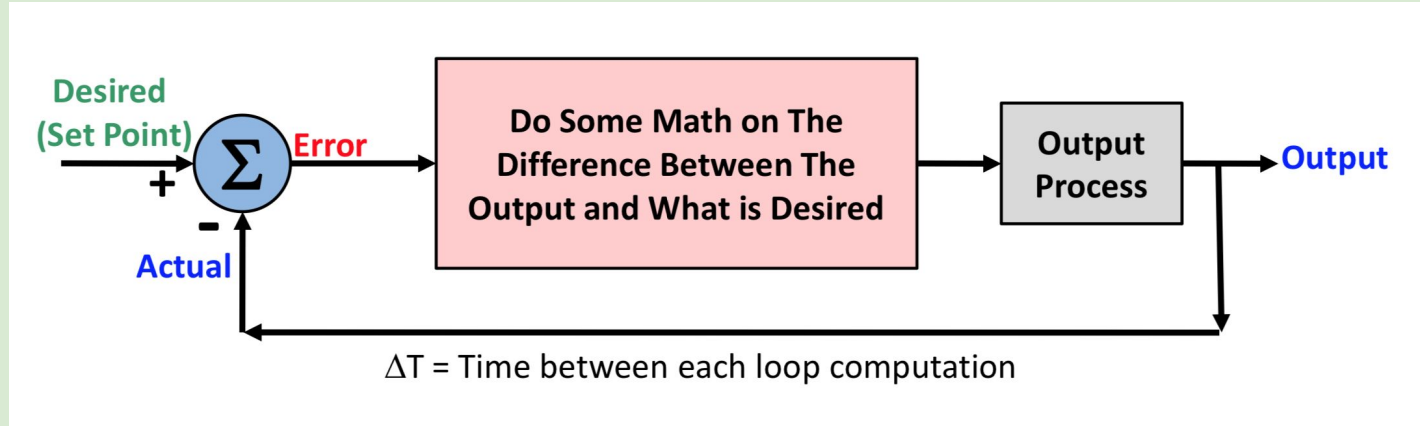


# An Aerator fan for composting

- **Output:** Temperature of Compost
- **SetPoint:** Ideal Compost Temperature
- **Error:** Difference in Temperature of Compost
- **Output Process:** Aerator Fan Speed

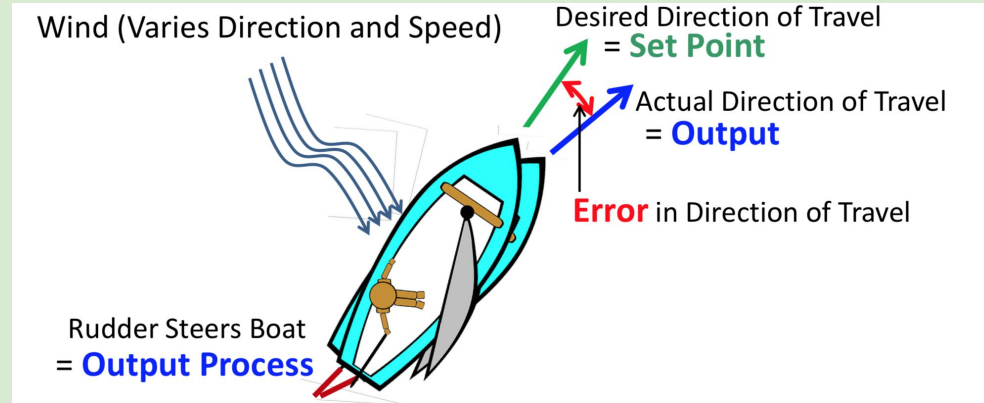


# A Feedback Control Loop



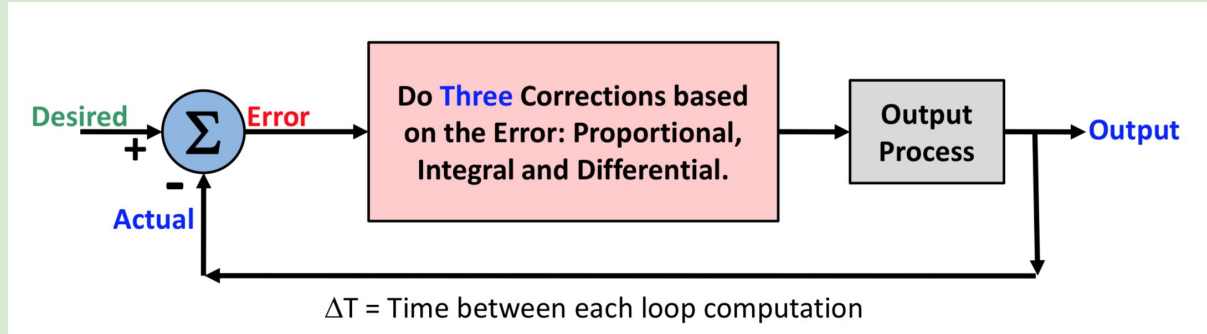
- A Feedback Control Loop takes the actual output and compares it to the desired output (finding the error) at some loop rate and tries to make the actual output match the desired.

# Consider A Sailboat



- In a sailboat, the human controlling the rudder is the feedback control loop process for steering the boat in the right direction. As the wind changes direction and speed the human compensates by changing the rudder position based on the error in the direction the boat is going.

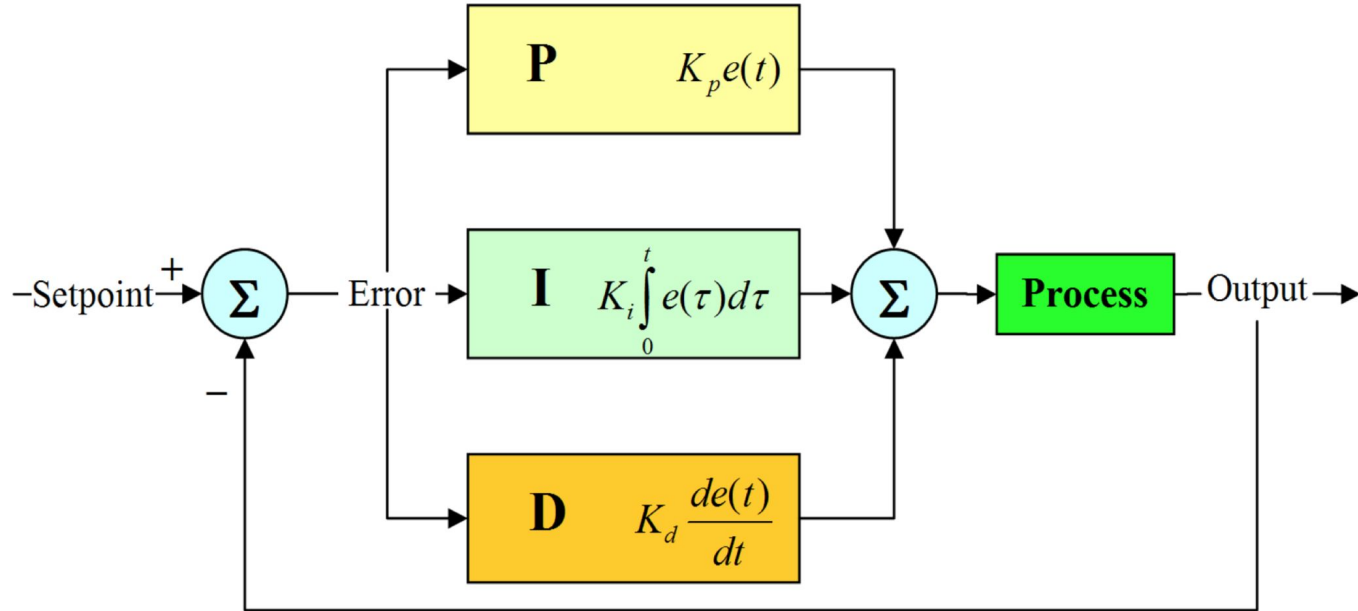
# PID Feedback Control Loop



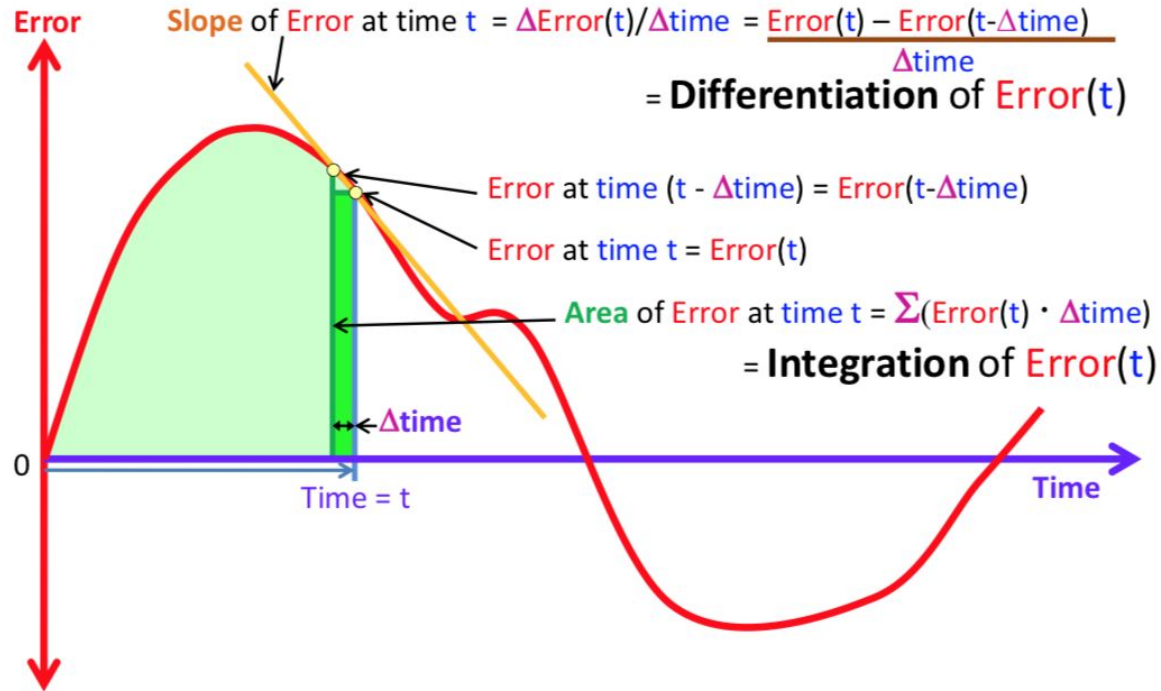
A PID Feedback Control Loop uses Error term three different ways:

- Proportional term changes output proportional to error
- Integral term sums all previous error (error area) and compensates output
- Differential term affects output based on last and current error (slope of error)

Yikes! What's all of this nonsense? Calculus!



# Graphic Representation of Error



# The Proportional Term

**Proportional**

$$= K_p \cdot \text{Error}$$

$K_p$  is the Proportional Gain Constant. It defines how much this component of the PID controller affects the output.

**Error** is the **error** in the **output** from what is **desired**. It is

computed as the difference of the **desired** set point and the **current** actual point.



# The Differential Term

$$\text{Differential} \\ = K_d \cdot (\Delta \text{Error} / \Delta T)$$

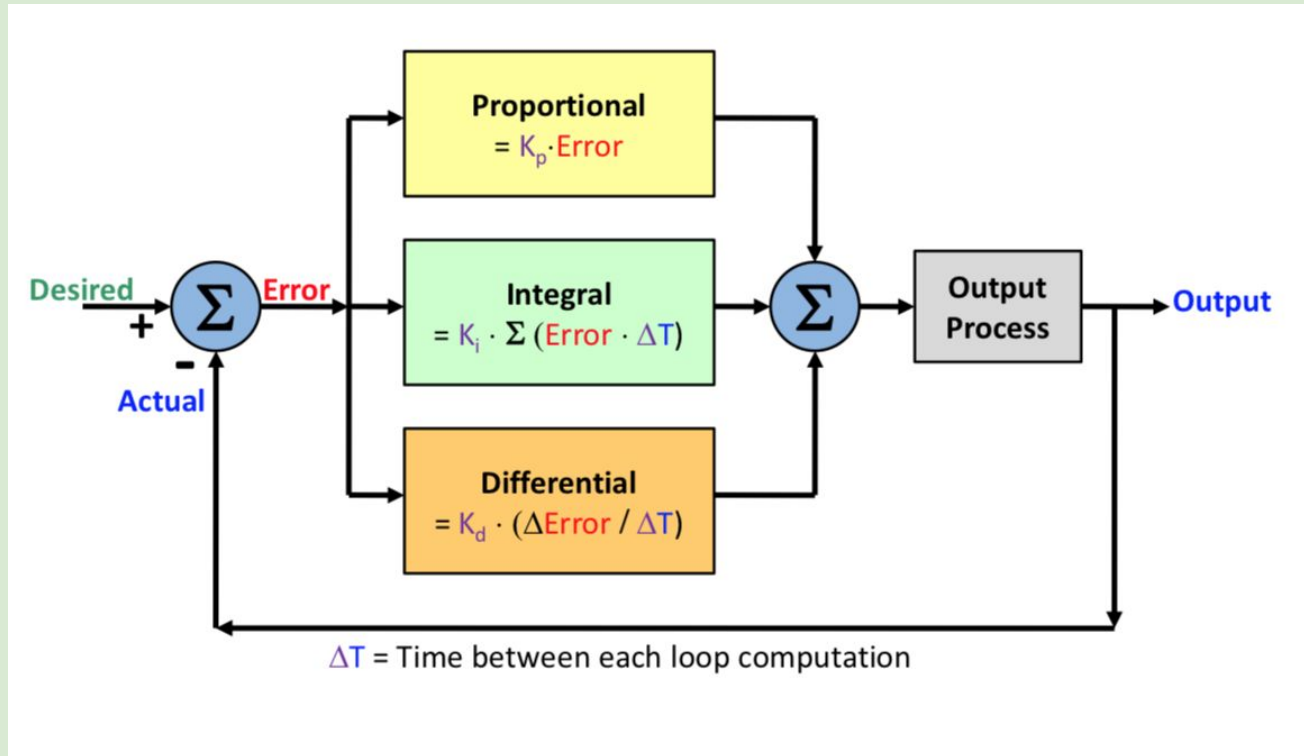
$K_d$  is the Differential Gain. It defines how much the differential component of the PID controller affects the output.

$\Delta$  is a Greek symbol delta that we use to mean change. Here, we want to compute the change since the last time we did this calculation.

$\Delta \text{Error}$  is the change in **error** of the output from what is desired. It is computed as the difference between the current **error** and the **error** last time we did this calculation.

$\Delta T$  is the amount of time since the last time we performed this calculation. T is the letter we use to mean Time. So T is the change in time since we did this computation last. It is our sampling time of the error.

# Putting the PID together

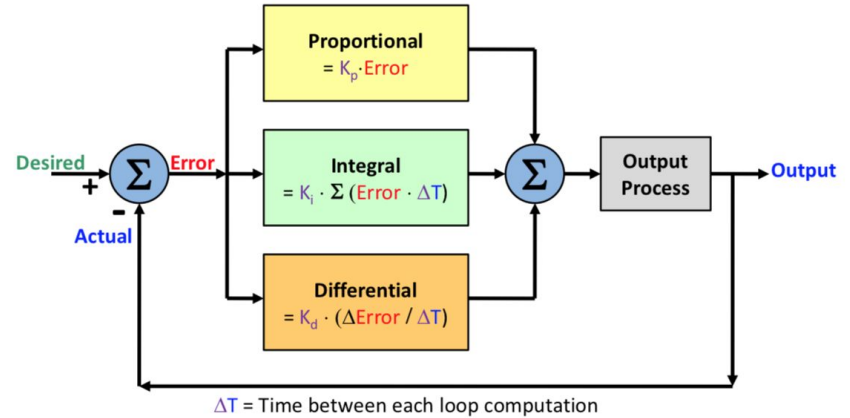


# PID Pseudo Code

```
Previous_Error = 0  
Integral       = 0  
DeltaT        = 1/100
```

Loop:

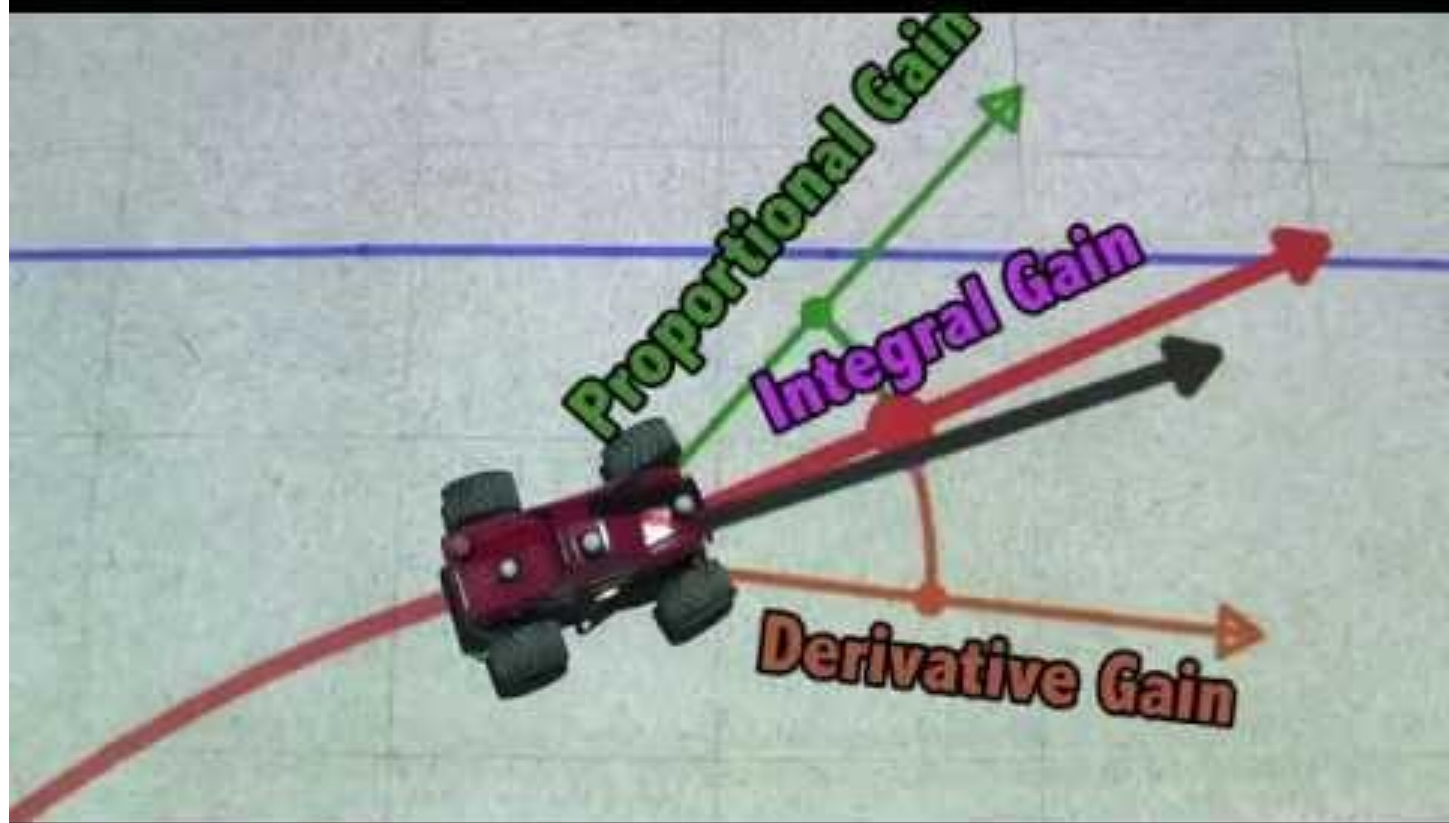
```
Error = Desired - Actual  
Integral = Integral + (Error * DeltaT)  
Derivative = (Error - Previous_Error) / DeltaT  
Previous_Error = Error  
Output = ((Kp*Error) + (Ki*Integral) + (Kd*Derivative))  
Wait(DeltaT)  
Repeat Loop
```



Having PID code in your hand is like having a freshly factory built, un-tuned Piano -



- It is completely useless as an instrument
- - until it is tuned!



# Finding the Gains $K_p$ , $K_i$ , and $K_d$

## Ziegler-Nichols Method

The hard part of using a PID controller is finding the gains ( $K_p$ ,  $K_i$ , and  $K_d$ ) for each of the three contributing components for a specific controller use. Finding these gains requires iterative (repeating) experiments with the controller. This is called “tuning”. One common tuning method is called the Ziegler-Nichols method named after the gentlemen that came up with it, John G. Ziegler and Nathaniel B. Nichols.

# Ziegler-Nichols Method

Step 1: Set Gains  $K_i$  and  $K_d$  to zero. Thus, the controller becomes a P-type controller only.

Step 2: Start with  $K_p$  as a “small” value and increase  $K_p$  until the output of the controller starts to oscillate (doesn't settle to an output value). This gain value is called the critical gain,  $K_c$ .

Step 3: Measure the time period of the oscillation when  $K_p = K_c$ . This is called the critical oscillation period,  $P_c$ .

Step 4: Use the values  $K_c$  and  $P_c$  to determine  $K_p$ ,  $K_i$ , and  $K_d$  using the formulas that Zeigler and Nichols determined for a P, PI, or PID controller (shown on next slide).

# Ziegler-Nichols Method Gain Values

Gain	Rise Time	Overshoot	Settling Time	Error at equilibrium
$K_p$	Decrease	Increase	Little change	Decrease
$K_i$	Decrease	Increase	Increase	Eliminate
$K_d$	Indefinite	Decrease	Increase	None



# Example

- We want to drive our robot forward 10 metres, and then stop
- The concepts we explore do not always have to involve distance. (ie your goal may be to maintain a certain speed or certain rate of acceleration)

# Proportional (P)

- A measure of how far you are away from your goal.
- The larger the P value, the larger the motor output should be, since you have farther to go.
- In our example this would be the distance remaining between our current position and our goal of 10 metres.

# Derivative (D)

- How quickly you are moving towards your goal.
- Unlike P, when D is higher you want to “pull back” your motor output. This keeps you from heading towards your target too quickly. If P is still large (ie you are far from your target) then it will “overpower” the D.
- In our example this would be the speed we are traveling towards the goal.

# Integral (I)

- The integral is how long you have been away from your target.
- The idea is that the longer the robot has not made it to the target, the more power should be applied to get it there.
- The most difficult part to incorporate. PD control alone can be very effective.

# Calculating the Motor Output

- The basic formula is:  $\text{output} = P * CP + I * CI - D * CD$
- Where CP, CI, and CD are values tweaked to get the proper result.
- There are some methods to calculate the values of CP, CI, and CD, but it is generally more effective to find them by trial in error in robotics.

# Method for Setting Values

- Start with CP small and CI, CD both zero.
- Raise CP until the robot is oscillating consistently around the target.
- Once this is accomplished, start increasing CD until the robot stops oscillating.
- Then add CI until the robot stops within a desired range of the target.

```
import sensor, image, pyb, math, time  
from pyb import LED  
from pyb import Pin, Timer
```

Python code in one module gains access to the code in another module by the process of importing it.

The pyb module contains specific functions related to the board. Example: Delay

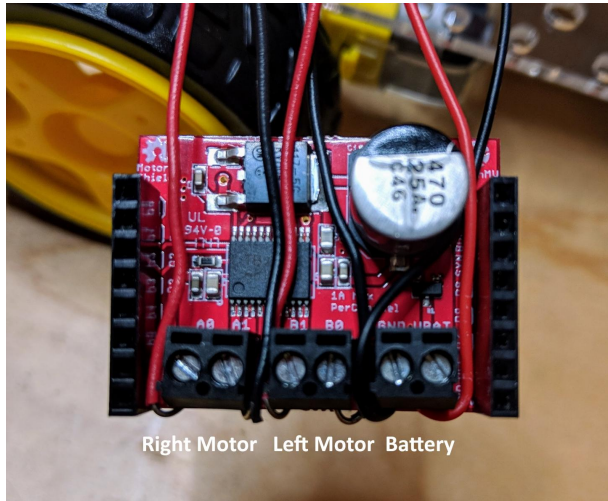
# these are motor driver pins, which set the direction of each motor

```
pinADir0 = pyb.Pin('P0', pyb.Pin.OUT_PP, pyb.Pin.PULL_NONE)
```

```
pinADir1 = pyb.Pin('P1', pyb.Pin.OUT_PP, pyb.Pin.PULL_NONE)
```

```
pinBDir0 = pyb.Pin('P2', pyb.Pin.OUT_PP, pyb.Pin.PULL_NONE)
```

```
pinBDir1 = pyb.Pin('P3', pyb.Pin.OUT_PP, pyb.Pin.PULL_NONE)
```





# Dir0/1 must be not equal to each other for forward or backwards  
# operation. If they are equal then that's a brake operation.  
# If they are not equal then the motor will spin one way other the  
# other depending on its hookup and the value of channel 0.

```
pinADir0.value(1)  
pinADir1.value(0)
```

# Dir0/1 must be not equal to each other for forward or backwards  
# operation. If they are equal then that's a brake operation.  
# If they are not equal then the motor will spin one way other the  
# other depending on its hookup and the value of channel 0.

```
pinBDir0.value(0)  
pinBDir1.value(1)
```

```
tim = Timer(4, freq=1000) # Frequency in Hz
```

```
cruise_speed = 20 # how fast should the car drive, range from 0 to 100
```

```
steering_direction = -1 # use this to reverse the steering if your car goes in the wrong direction
```

```
steering_gain = 1.65 # calibration for your car's steering sensitivity
```

```
steering_center = 37 # set to your car servo's center point
```

```
kp = 0.8 # P term of the PID
```

```
ki = 0.0 # I term of the PID
```

```
kd = 0.4 # D term of the PID
```

```
# Color Tracking Thresholds (L Min, L Max, A Min, A Max, B Min, B Max)
# The below thresholds track in general red/green things. You may wish to tune them...
# old thresholds = [(30, 100, 15, 127, 15, 127), # generic_red_thresholds
#                  (30, 100, -64, -8, -32, 32), # generic_green_thresholds
#                  (0, 15, 0, 40, -80, -20)] # generic_blue_thresholds
```

```
threshold_index = 0
```

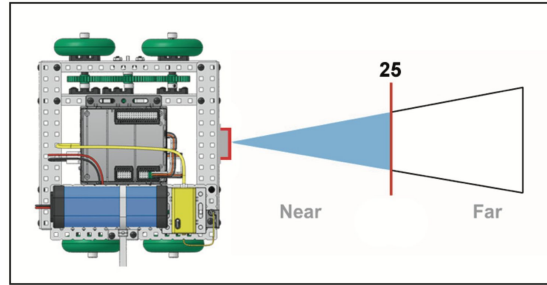
```
# 0 for red, 1 for green, 2 for blue
```

```
thresholds = [(18, 89, 20, 97, 69, -10), # generic_red_thresholds
              (0, 100, -87, 18, -128, 33), # generic_green_thresholds
              (0, 100, -128, -10, -128, 51)] # generic_blue_thresholds
```

```
# You may pass up to 16 thresholds above. However, it's not really possible to segment any
# scene with 16 thresholds before color thresholds start to overlap heavily.
```

Thresholds are values that set a cutoff in a range of values, so that even if there are many possibilities, the value eventually falls above the threshold, or below the threshold.

Using thresholds allows you to perform certain behaviors depending on where a certain value (usually a sensor value) falls in relation to the threshold.



If you look at this image, it shows an VEX using an Ultrasonic Sensor. The threshold in this case is 25 inches. We can create behaviors that tell the robot to go forward until Ultrasonic Sensor detects something closer than 25 inches.

The threshold is just used to determine at which point the robot should be performing a different behavior.

# Region of Interest

# Each roi is (x, y, w, h). The line detection algorithm will try to find the  
# centroid of the largest blob in each roi. The x position of the centroids  
# will then be averaged with different weights where the most weight is assigned  
# to the roi near the bottom of the image and less to the next roi and so on.

```
ROIS = [ # [ROI, weight]
        (38,1,90,38, 0.4),
        (35,40,109,43,0.2),
        (0,79,160,41,0.6)
    ]
```

```
blue_led = LED(3)
```

```
old_error = 0
measured_angle = 0
set_angle = 90 # this is the desired steering angle (straight ahead)
p_term = 0
i_term = 0
d_term = 0
old_time = pyb.millis()
radians_degrees = 57.3 # constant to convert from radians to degrees
```