

The image shows a modern, multi-story building with a courtyard. The building features large windows with orange frames and shutters. The courtyard is paved with light-colored bricks and has several concrete benches. A few people are visible in the courtyard. The sky is blue with some clouds. The logo "HEIG<sup>VD</sup>" is overlaid in the center of the image.

HEIG<sup>VD</sup>

# Intelligence Artificielle pour les systèmes autonomes (IAA)

## Vehicle dynamics and control

Prof. Yann Thoma - Prof. Marina Zapater

*Février 2024*

*Basé sur le cours du Prof. A. Geiger*





# TE1 – QCM et questions théoriques

## Contenu et préparation du TE du 23.4.2023

### → Contenu:

- Chapitres de théorie du 01 au 05 (aujourd'hui) y compris.

### → Déroulement:

- QCM
- Questions théoriques générales

### → Préparation:

- Slides du cours avec vidéos et liens fournis
- Vos notes prises durant les discussions des séances de cours

### → Pendant le test:

- Une feuille de notes manuscrites recto-verso

# Summary

## Today's lesson

### → Vehicle dynamics

- Kinematics
- Bicycle model
- Tires and dynamic bicycle model

### → Vehicle control

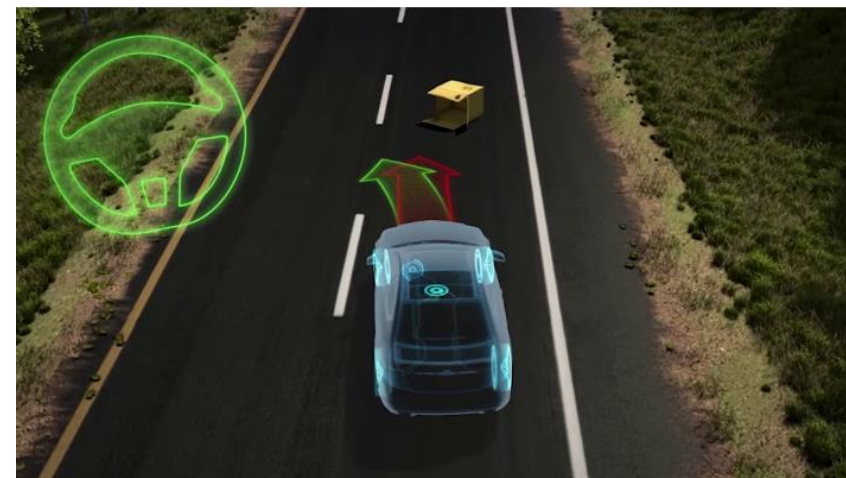
- Controller basics
- Types of controllers



# Importance of vehicle dynamics

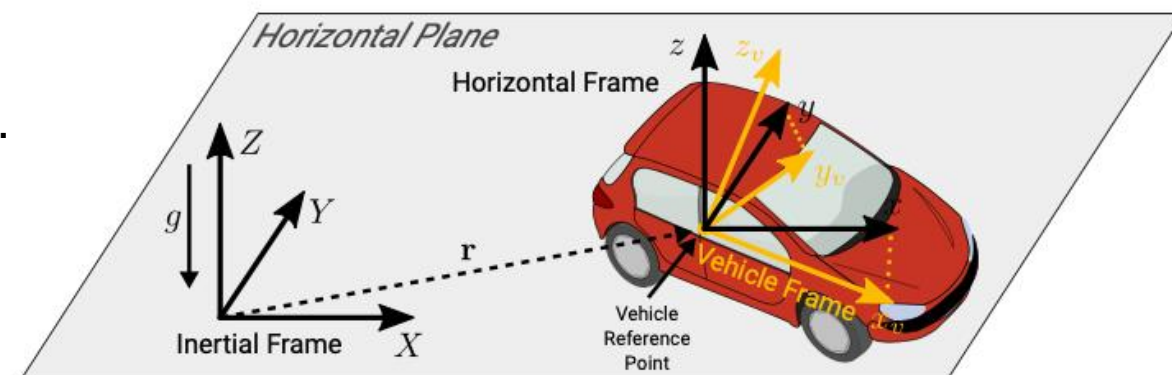
## Enabling accurate control

- **Kinematics**: geometric description of motion in space (based on reference frames and coordinate systems)
- **Kinetics** (or dynamics): describe the laws of the causes of motion (forces/moments in Newton's laws)



# Position, velocity and acceleration

- **Inertial frame:** fixed to the earth
- **Vehicle frame:** attached to the vehicle.



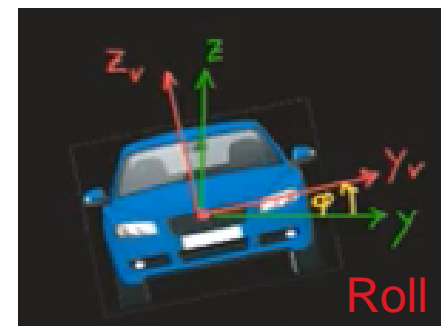
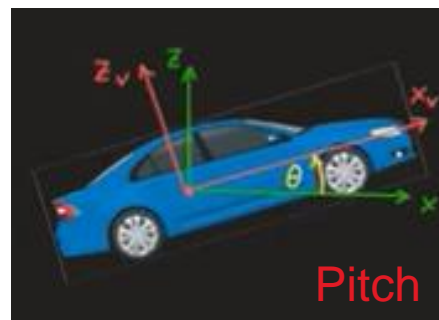
- **Position** is given by 3 coordinates
- Vehicle **velocity** and **acceleration** are the first and second order derivatives of position

$$\mathbf{r}_P(t) = \begin{pmatrix} x(t) \\ y(t) \\ z(t) \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{v}_P(t) = \dot{\mathbf{r}}_P(t) = \begin{pmatrix} \dot{x}(t) \\ \dot{y}(t) \\ \dot{z}(t) \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{a}_P(t) = \ddot{\mathbf{r}}_P(t) = \begin{pmatrix} \ddot{x}(t) \\ \ddot{y}(t) \\ \ddot{z}(t) \end{pmatrix}$$

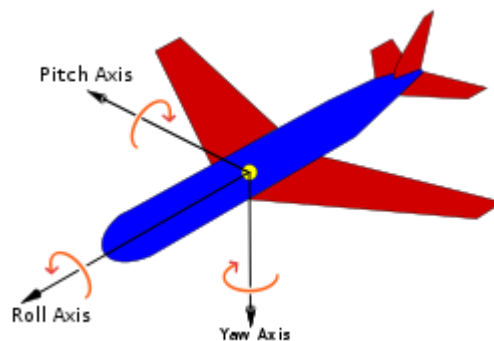
# Relation between inertial and vehicle frame

## Yaw, pitch and roll

→ Angles in between inertial and vehicle frame define the yaw, pitch and roll



→ For an airplane:



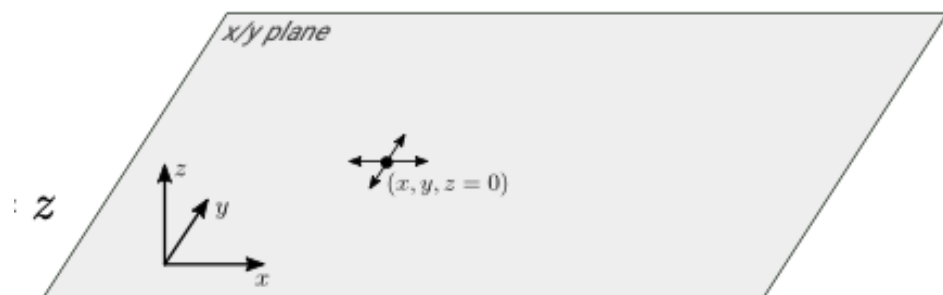
# Constraints on position and velocity

## Holonomic vs Non-holonomic constraints

### Holonomic constraints

- Constraints position (config) space
- Can freely move in any direction
- Controllable degrees of freedom equal the total degrees of freedom
- A constraint is defined as  $f(x,y,z)=0$

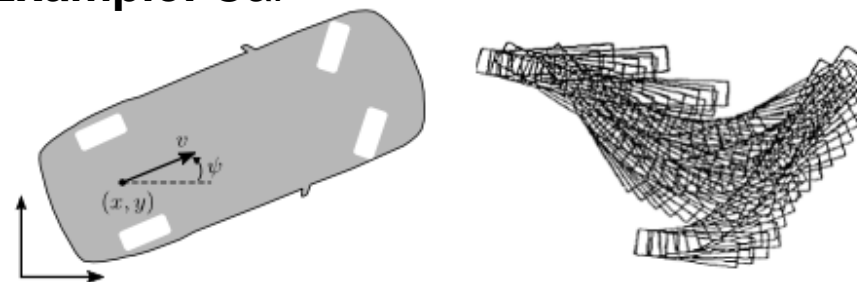
**Example:** a 3D-particle in which  $z=0$



### Non-holonomic constraints

- Constraints velocity space (i.e. the derivative of position)
- Cannot freely move in any direction
- Controllable degrees of freedom less than the total degrees of freedom
- Constraint cannot be defined as  $f(x,y,z)=0$

**Example:** Car

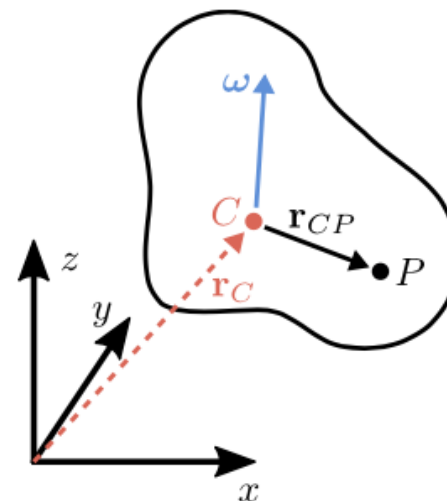




# Kinematics of a rigid body

**“Cars” are not just one point P, they are a collection of points**

- A rigid body refers to an infinite collection of small mass points rigidly connected
- Its motion can be described by an arbitrary reference point (C), plus the relative motion of other points P with respect to C
  - **C**: reference point fixed to the rigid body
  - P: arbitrary point of the rigid body
  - **w**: angular velocity of the rigid body
- A rigid body has 6 Degrees-of-Freedom (DoF)
  - 3 positions, 3 rotations



# Holonomic vs. Non-holonomic systems

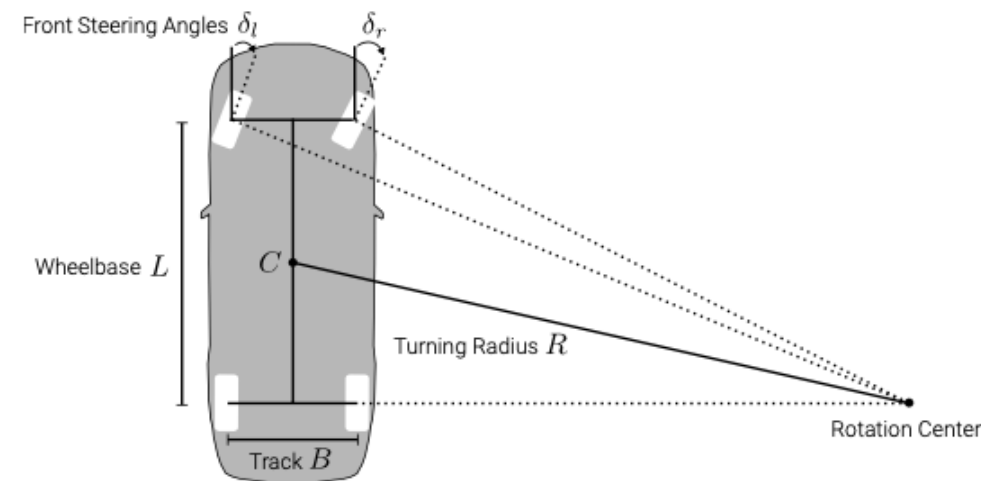
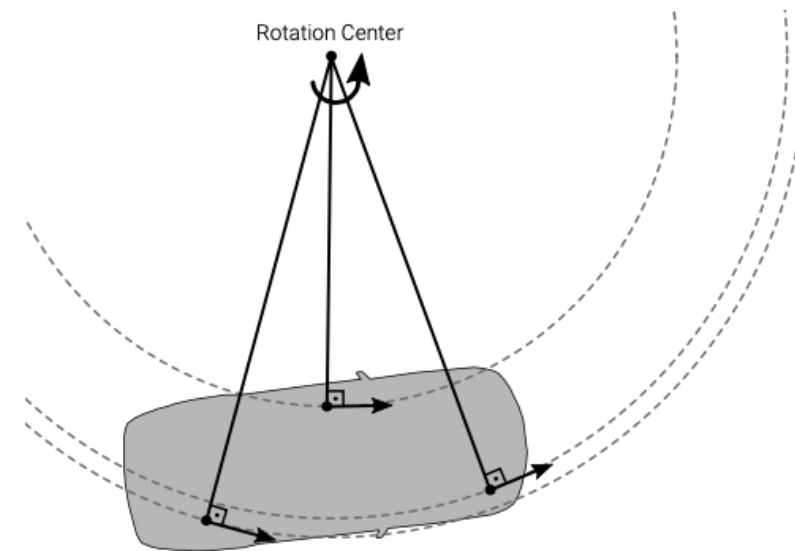
- A robot can be subject to both holonomic and non-holonomic constraints
- A car (rigid body in 3D) is kept on the ground by 3 holonomic constraints
- One additional non-holonomic constraint prevents sideways sliding



# Rigid body motion

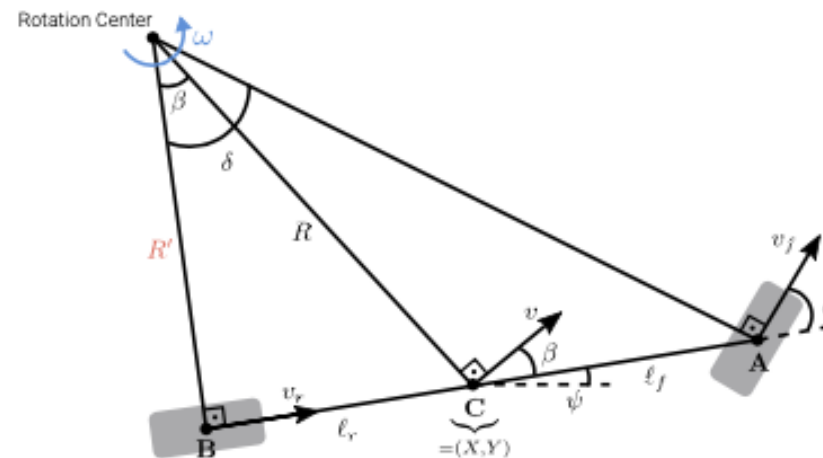
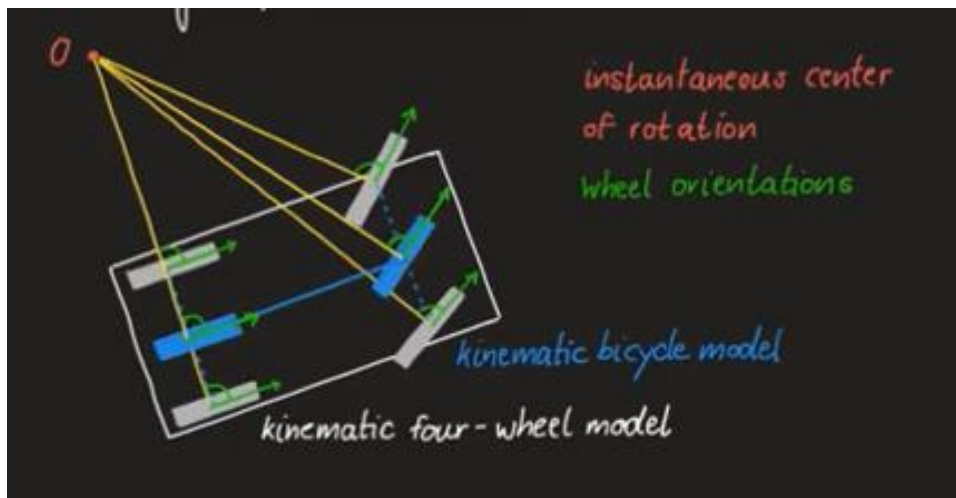
How can we estimate the motion of the car?

- **Condition #1** : Different points of the body move along different circular trajectories
- **Condition #2** : Rear wheels do not steer
  - Slip angle: angle between the velocity of the wheel (trajectory) and the wheel orientation
- Simplification: Kinematic bicycle model
  - Two rear wheels and two front wheels are combined into one (imaginary) real wheel and one front wheel.



# Kinematic Bicycle model

## Principle, model and motion equations



$$X_{t+1} = X_t + v \cos(\psi) \Delta t$$

$$Y_{t+1} = Y_t + v \sin(\psi) \Delta t$$

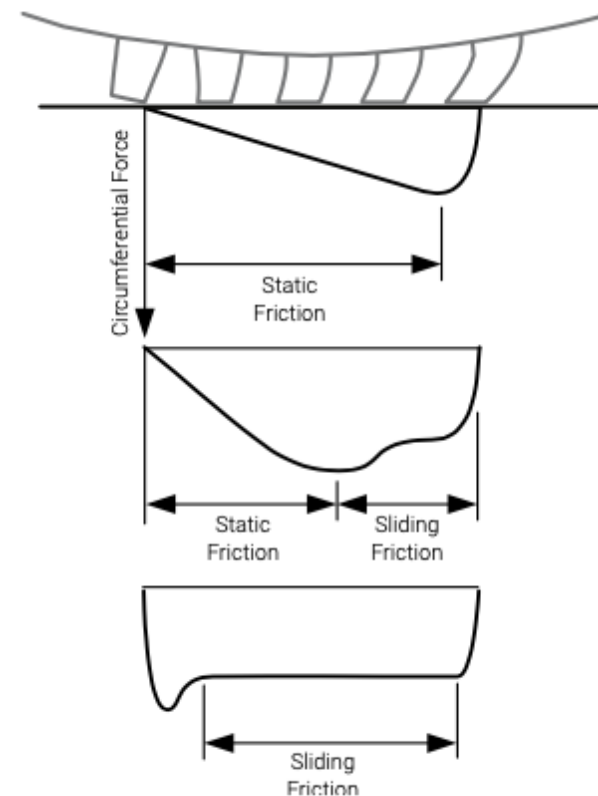
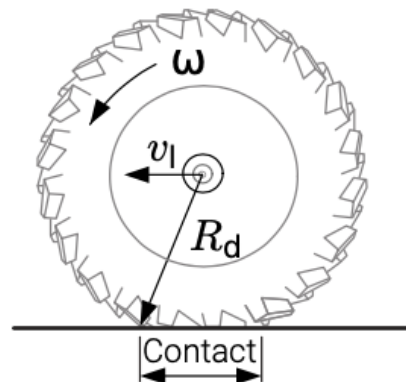
$$\psi_{t+1} = \psi_t + \frac{v \delta}{\ell_f + \ell_r} \Delta t$$



# What about tires?

## Slippery terrains

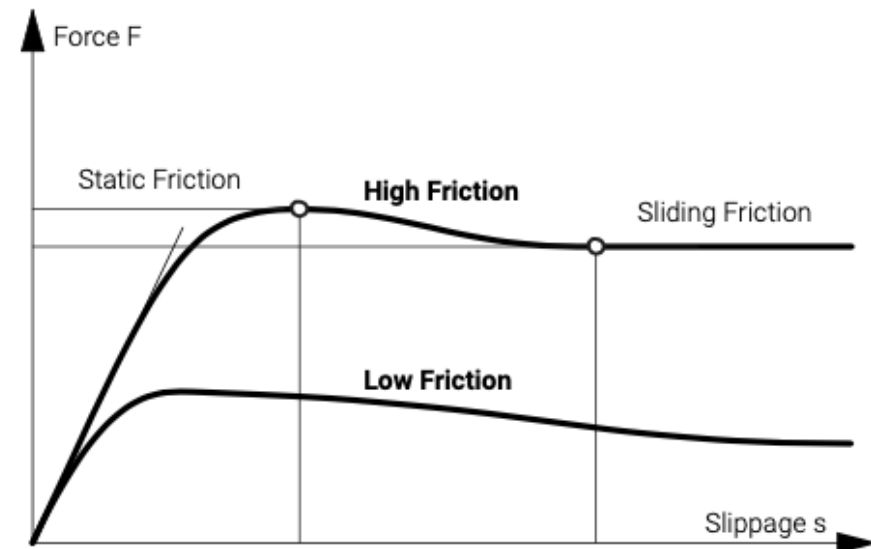
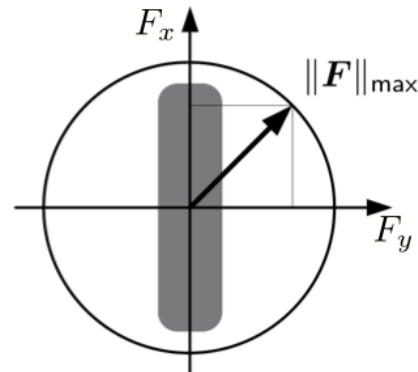
- Tire models are necessary
- They describe lateral and longitudinal forces on the tires
- Longitudinal force:
  - As soon as the wheel is driven, **tire tread blocks** adhere to the ground, deform and slip when loosing contact
  - If the driving force increases beyond static friction, the blocks slip earlier
  - If the tire tread blocks start sliding at the beginning, only friction can be applied



# Tread block model

## A simple qualitative description

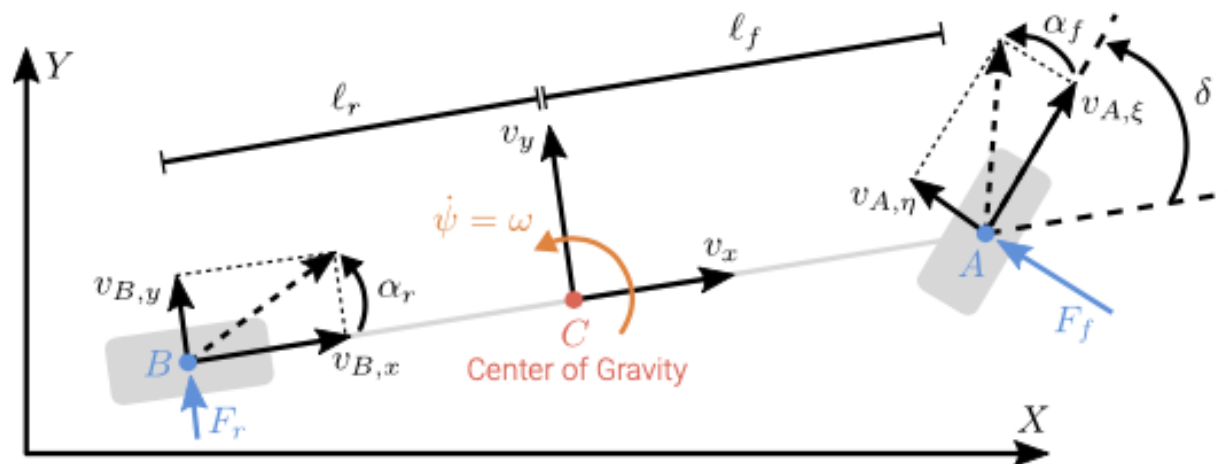
- Slippage: difference between surface speed of the wheel and vehicle speed
  - Force grows linearly with slippage at the beginning
  - When large slippage leads to reduction of  $F$  (sliding friction < static friction)
- In slippery terrain (low friction) the maximum reduces due to a decreased static friction
  - Tread blocks start sliding earlier
- Lateral and longitudinal forces should not exceed maximum friction force



# Dynamic bicycle model

## Taking into account tire forces and wheel slip

- Assumes that the vehicle motion is restricted to the X/Y plane
- The vehicle is a rigid body
- Lateral tire forces are considered, generated by a linear tire model
- It also considers slipping of tires



# Summary

## Today's lesson

### → Vehicle dynamics

- Kinematics
- Bicycle model
- Tires and dynamic bicycle model

### → **Vehicle control**

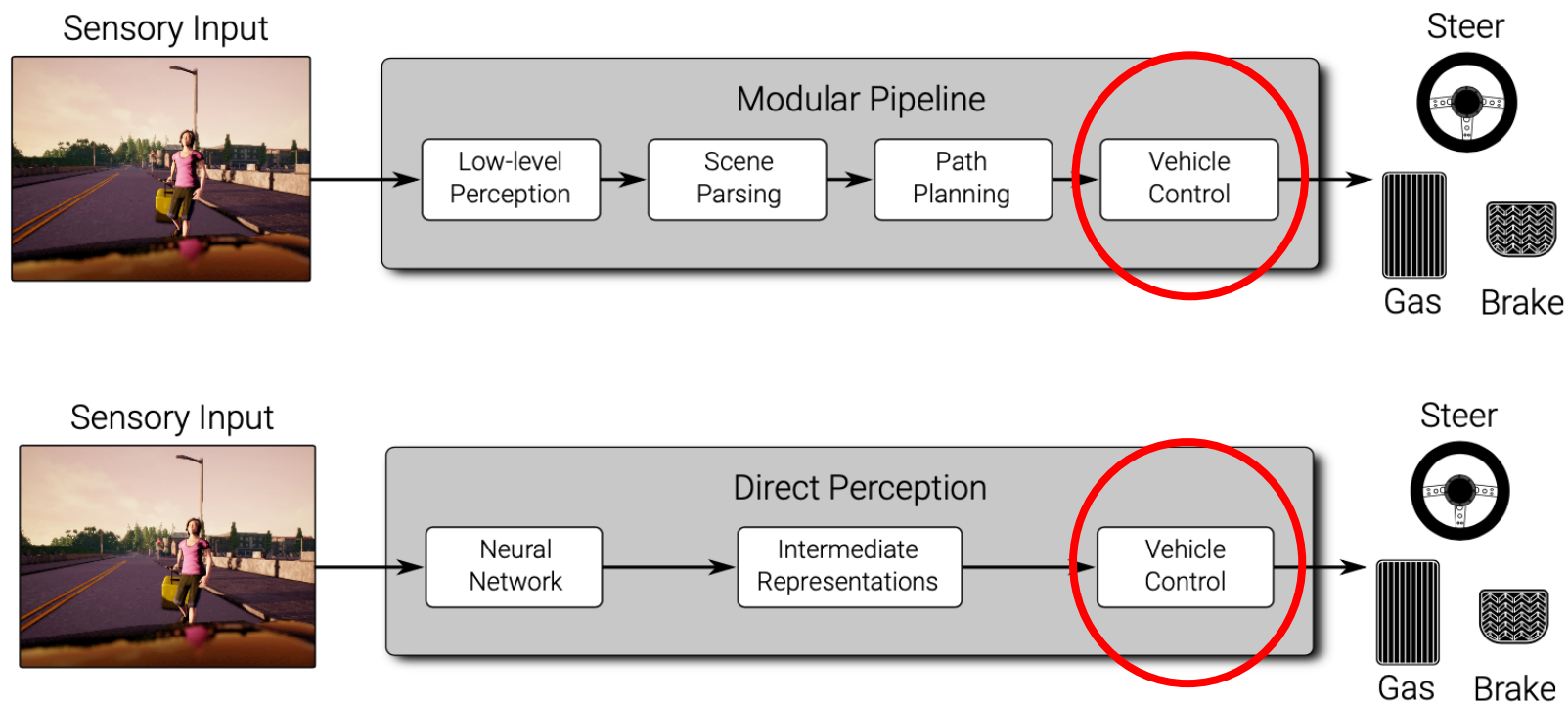
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# Approaches to self-driving

Require vehicle control



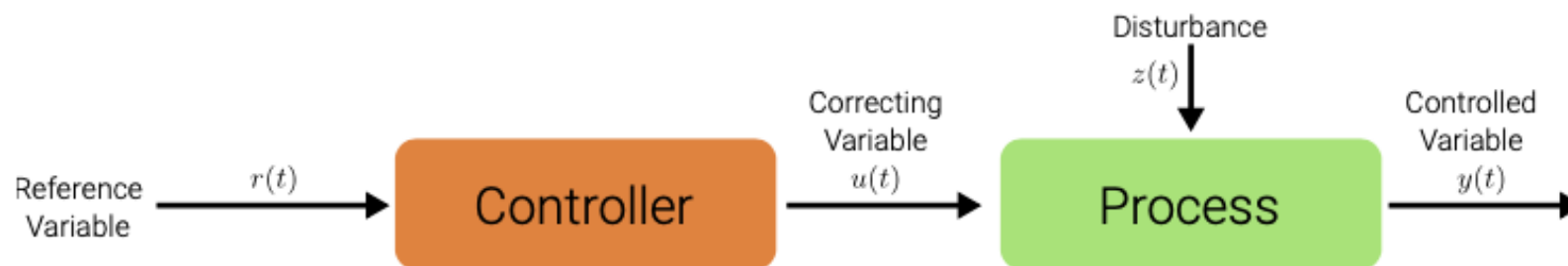
# Vehicle control

## A brief history of the controllers already deployed in today's cars

- 1926: Servo braking (Pierce-Arrow)
- 1951: Servo steering (Chrysler)
- 1958: Cruise control (Chrysler)
- 1978: Anti-lock braking system ABS (Bosch)
- 1986: Traction control system ASR (Bosch)
- 1995: Electronic stability program ESP (Bosch/BMW)
- 2000: Adaptive cruise control ACC (Mitsubishi/Toyota/Bosch)
- 2002: Emergency brake assistant (Mercedes Benz)
- 2003: Lane-keeping assistant (Honda)
- 2007: Automatic park assistant (Valeo)

# Controller basics

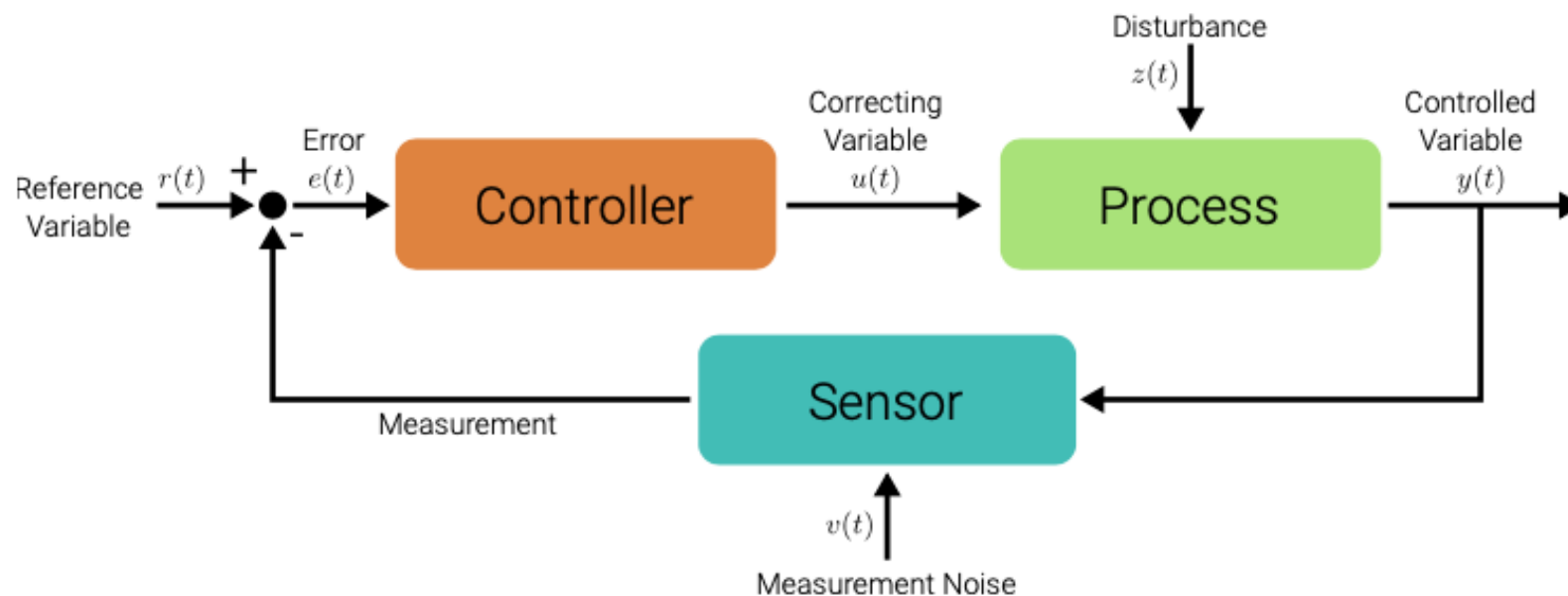
## Open-loop control



- Requires precise knowledge of the plan and the influence factors
- No feedback about the controlled variable
- Cannot handle unknown disturbances, resulting in drifts

# Controller basics

## Closed-loop control



- Exploits feedback to minimize error between reference and measurement
- This is what is used for controlling a car



# Closed-loop control

## Basics

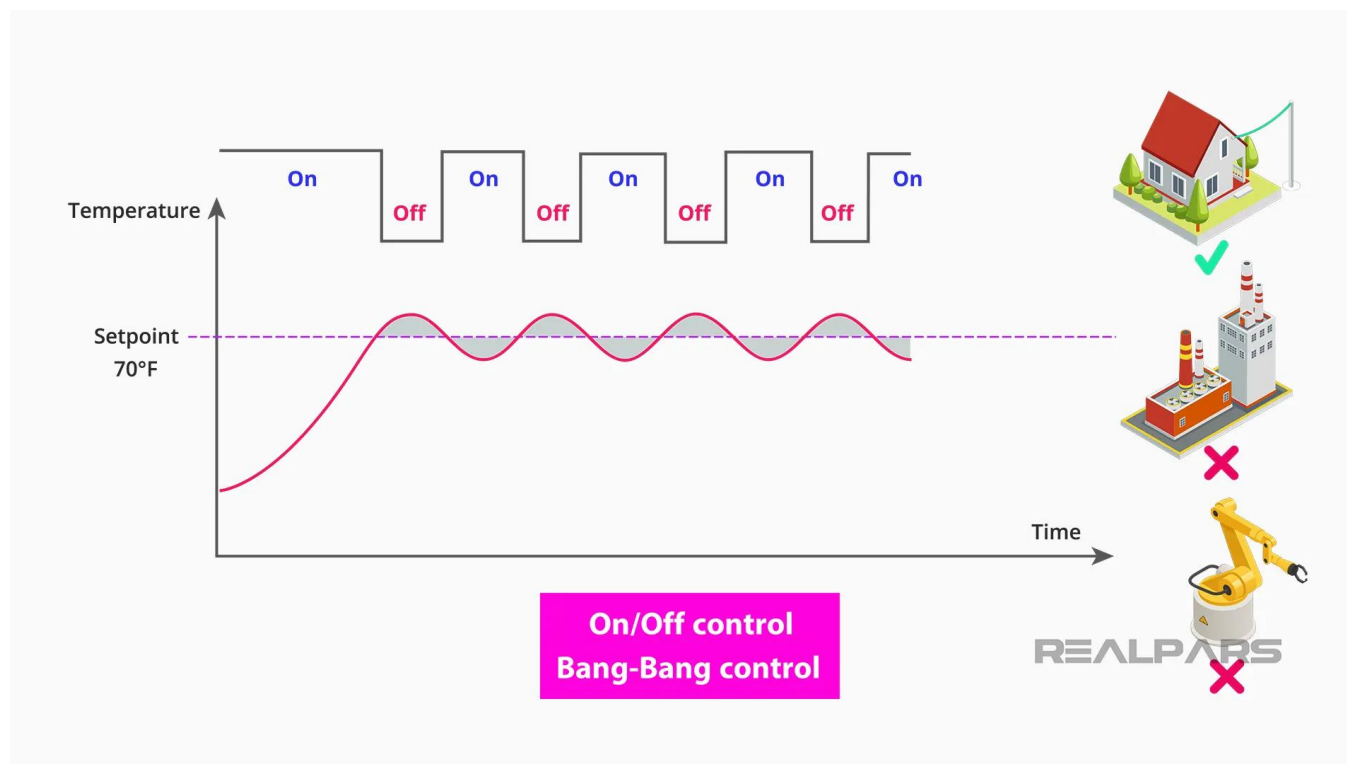
- A vehicle needs to be controlled longitudinally and laterally
  
- Three types of controllers:
  1. **Black box** : don't require knowledge about the process
  2. **Geometric** : exploit geometric relationships between the vehicle and the path, resulting in compact control laws for path tracking
  3. **Optimal** : use knowledge of the system and minimize an objective function over future time steps

# 1.Black-box controller

## Bang-bang control (a.k.a. “hysteresis controller” or “on/off control”)

- Simple example: a house thermostat
- Switches between two states

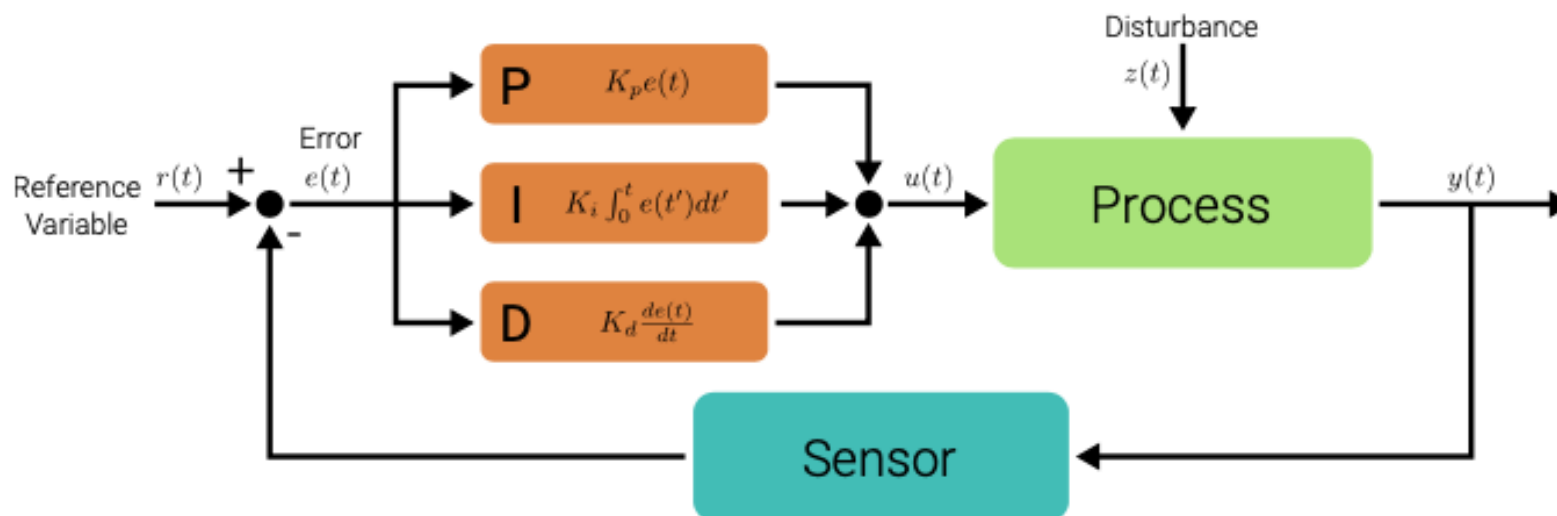
$$u(t) = \begin{cases} u_1, & \text{if } e(t) \geq \tau \\ u_2, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



# 1.Black-box controller

## PID Control

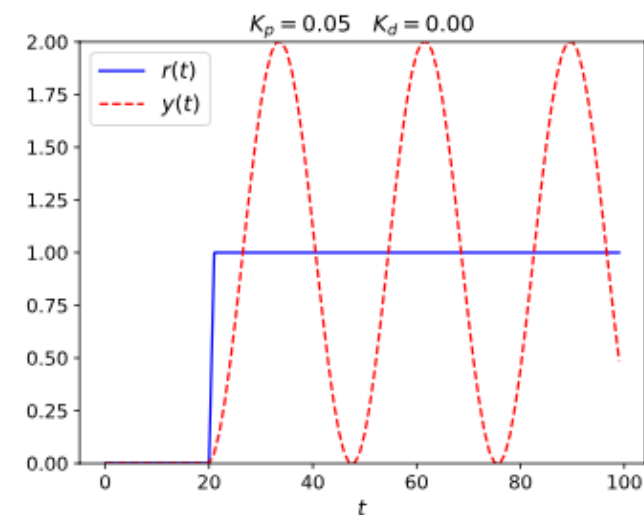
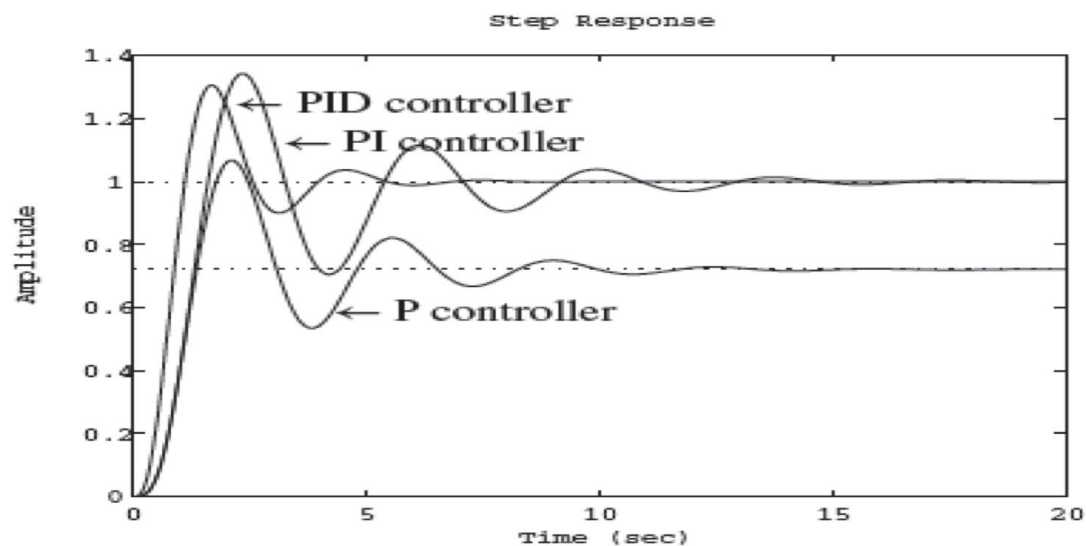
- **P**roportional : the P element alone leads to overshooting/oscillation
- **I**ntegral : corrects residual errors by integrating past error measurements
- **D**erivative : alleviates oscillation by introducing a damping behavior



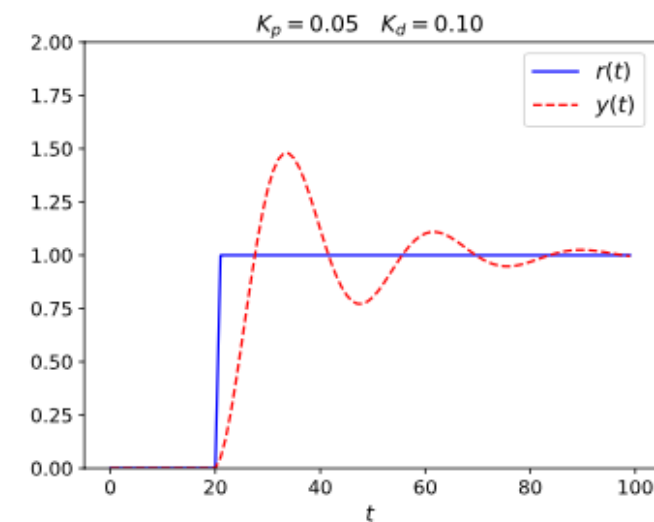
# P vs PD vs PID

## Controller performance

- Controlled variable : position  $y(t) = x(t)$
- Correcting variable : acceleration  $u(t) = a(t)$



P control



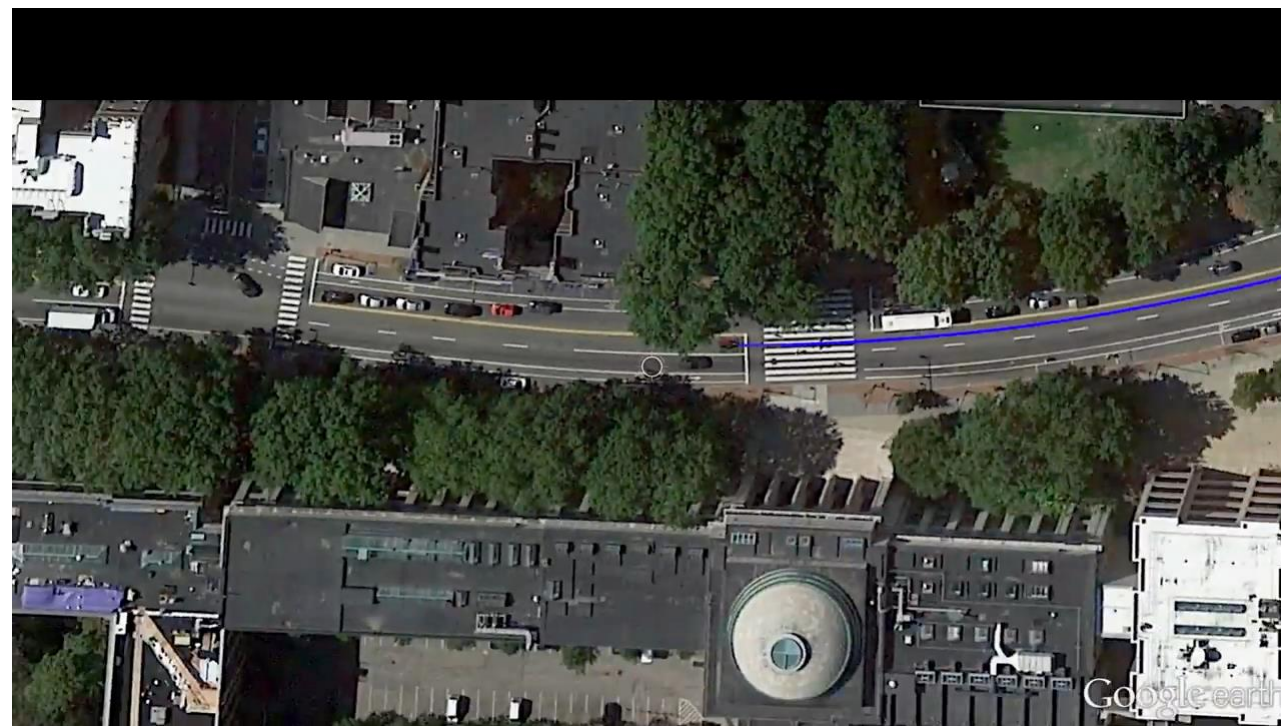
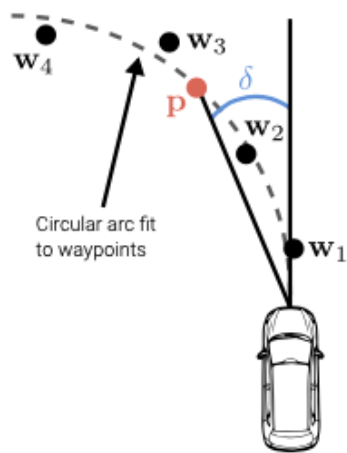
PD control



# An example for cars

## Waypoint-based Vehicle control

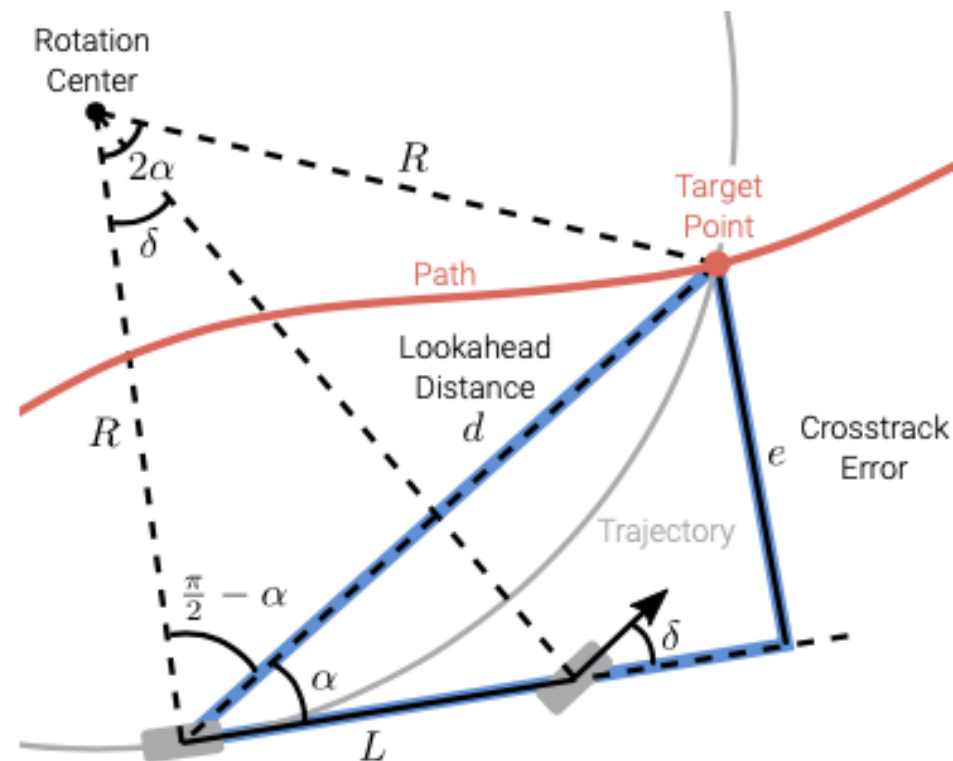
- We want the vehicle to follow waypoints
- Input: waypoints
- Velocity: longitudinal PID control
- Steering angle: lateral PID control



## 2.Geometric control

### Pure pursuit control

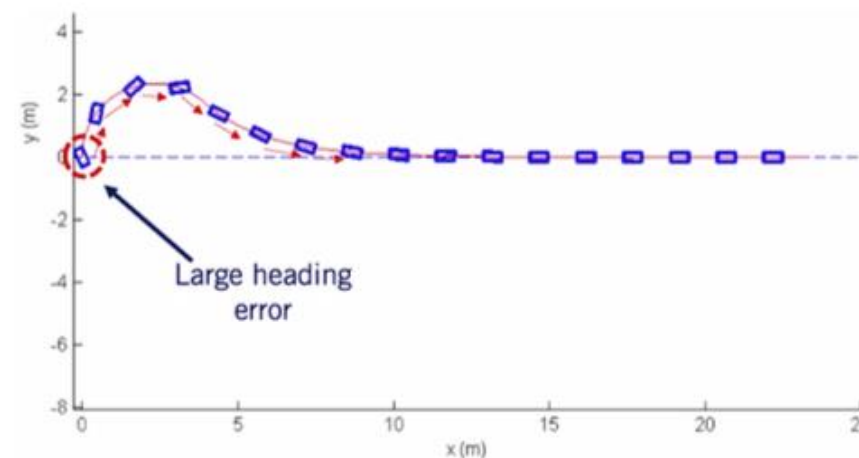
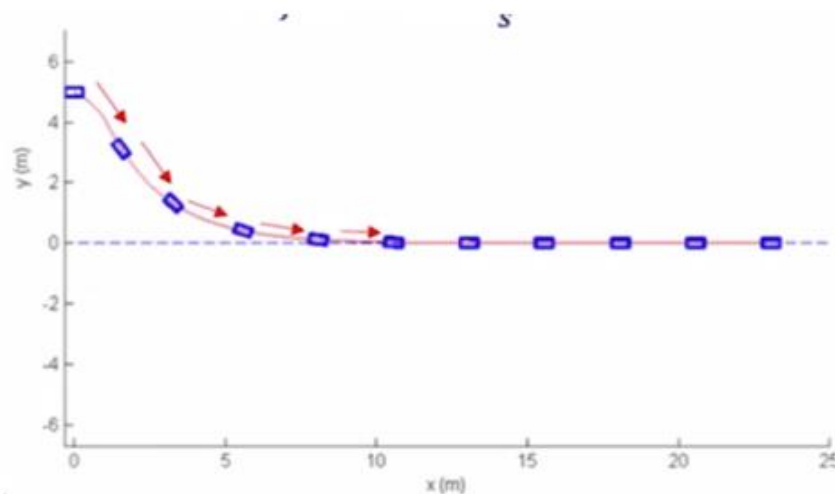
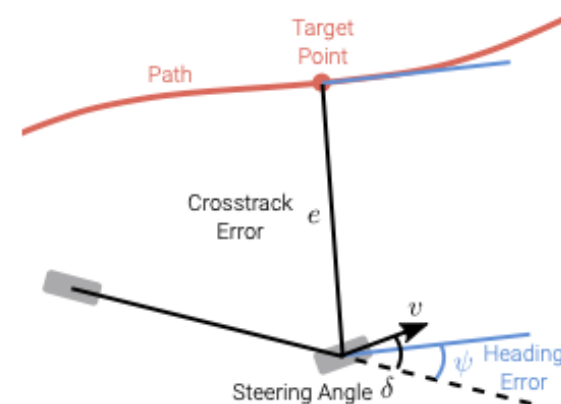
- **Goal:** track a target point at a lookahead distance "d" to follow path.
- Exploiting geometric relationship between vehicle and path to follow
- Steering angle determined by angle between vehicle heading direction and the lookahead direction



## 2. Geometric control

### Stanley control

- Control Law used by Stanley in a DARPA Challenge 2008
- Reference at front axle, no lookahead
- Combines heading and crosstrack error
- Crosstrack error converges exponentially (so, fast) to zero
- Works for small velocities without disturbances



## 2.Geometric control

### Stanley control

→ Video of DARPA Challenge 2008

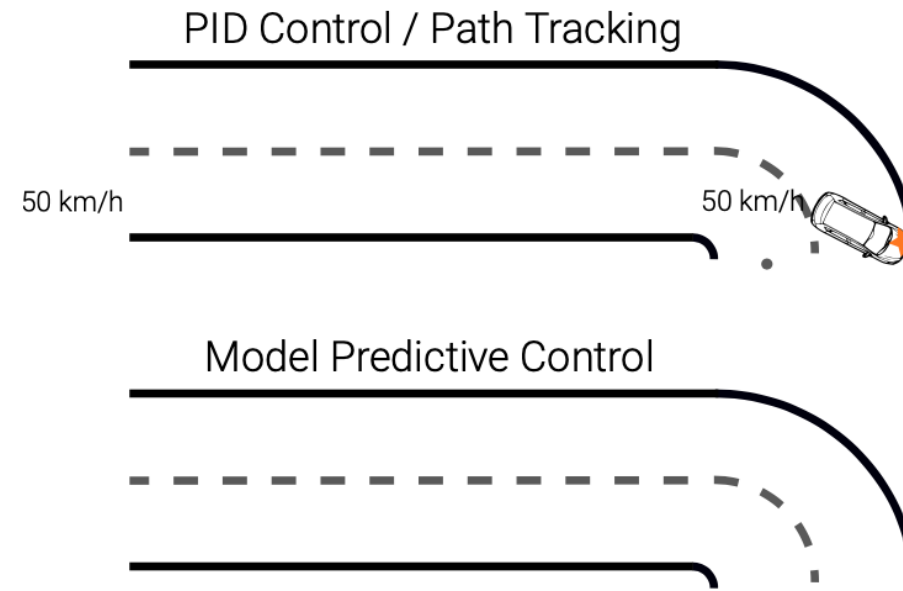


### 3. Optimal control

#### Model Predictive Controller (MPC)

- We formalize the problem as an optimization
  - Based on LQR (Linear Quadratic Regulator)
- Non-linear cost function and dynamics
- Flexible: allows for receding window and incorporation of constraints
- But expensive : non-linear optimization required at every iteration

$$\begin{array}{lll} \underset{\delta_1, \dots, \delta_T}{\operatorname{argmin}} & \sum_{t=1}^T C_t(\mathbf{x}_t, \delta_t) & \text{(sum of costs)} \\ \text{s.t.} & \mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{x}_{\text{init}} & \text{(initialization)} \\ & \mathbf{x}_{t+1} = f(\mathbf{x}_t, \delta_t) & \text{(dynamics model)} \\ & \underline{\delta} \leq \delta_t \leq \bar{\delta} & \text{(constraints)} \end{array}$$





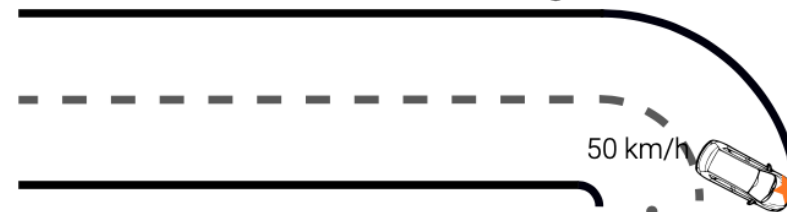
### 3. Optimal control

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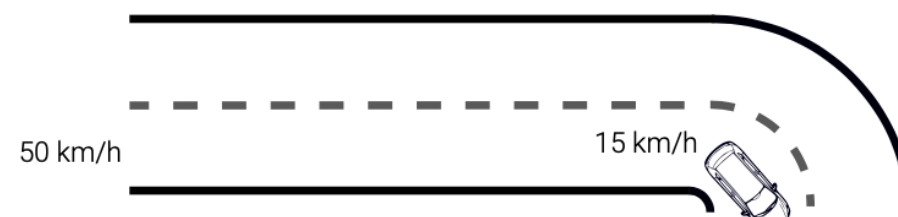
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PID Control / Path Tracking



Model Predictive Control



# Summary

## Vehicle control

- Open-loop controllers cannot handle unknown disturbances
- In practice, we thus require closed-loop control with sensor feedback
  
- Black box controllers don't require knowledge about the process
  - Most popular black box controller: **PID controller**
- Geometric controllers exploit geometric relationships for path tracking
  
- Optimal controllers use a vehicle model and optimize a cost function
  - **MPC** is the most flexible and powerful approach
  - However, MPC requires solving an optimization problem at every time step

# TODO's for today

## Exercises

1. Vehicle dynamics – sommaire des techniques
2. Controller of the Crazyflie:  
<https://www.bitcraze.io/documentation/repository/crazyflie-firmware/master/functional-areas/sensor-to-control/controllers/>
  - How many and what type of controllers come into the crazyflie and how do they work?



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