

MIT MOBILE ROBOTS - WHAT'S NEXT?

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Abstract

The MIT Mobile Robot Project began in January of 1985 with the objective of building machines that could operate autonomously and robustly in dynamically changing environments. We now have five working robots, each progressively more intelligent and sophisticated. All incorporate some rather novel ideas about how to build a control system that can adequately deal with complex environments. The project has also contributed some innovative and creative technical solutions in terms of putting together sensors, actuators, power supplies and processing power into whole systems that actually work. From our experiences over the past two and a half years, we have gained insight into the real issues and problems and what the goals should be for future robotics research. This paper gives our perspectives on mobile robotics: our objectives, experiences, mistakes and future plans.

1. Introduction

1.1 Setting Goals For a Research Project

It is useful to state long range goals for any project because it provides both a way to explain current research and also helps to define what the next steps should be.

What are the goals of most mobile robot projects? Some are aimed at developing flexible automation technology, such as parts carts in cleanrooms and factories. Other projects are funded in the hopes of producing machines that will be useful in hazardous places such as nuclear power plants or battlefields.

At the MIT Artificial Intelligence Laboratory, the goals of the mobile robot project are greatly influenced by the goals of the AI Lab in general, which are twofold. One goal of the AI Lab is to gain knowledge about the nature of intelligence, and implementing theories through computation is deemed the most appropriate way because it ensures intellectual honesty. The second goal is to make computers more useful to society, and creating more intelligent computers will make them more useful to people.

The goals of the Mobile Robot Project are also twofold. We claim that robotics is a superset of AI and that it will force AI to deal with the

real world (this keeps us honest). We build our mobile robots in order to investigate intelligence and therefore learn about what it takes to build a system which we would consider clever. In addition, the second goal of our research is to make robots more useful to society. This can be achieved by making robots widely available to large segments of the population. Lowering costs for a given level of intelligence is one way to increase availability.

We have developed two strategies for achieving these goals. The first is to attempt to build *autonomous creatures*, in an effort to produce intelligent systems which operate in the real world so that we can learn more about the nature of intelligence. The second is to develop *mass producible, low-cost robots*, as robots can be more useful to people if more people have them, even if they have only limited intelligence. This idea follows from observing how microprocessors were first introduced into the public domain as cheap technology with very limited capabilities, but gradually spawned enough ideas and work on new applications that now they are definitely regarded as of great use to society.

The effect of our efforts along these directions has been the development of a series of mobile robots and some innovative ideas for future projects.

1.2 Autonomous Creatures

The goal of building *autonomous creatures* has led to the idea of building a control system, based upon task achieving behaviors, that can deal with both multiple goals and multiple sensors [Brooks 1986]. This control system has been implemented in various ways on four robots: Allen, Herbert, Tom and Jerry [Brooks 1987], [Connell 1987]. At present, they are all capable of autonomously wandering about and avoiding obstacles or following walls [Brooks and Connell 1986], with either sonar or infrared sensors. Herbert will eventually push beyond these levels of behavior and exhibit such complex actions as wandering the office areas of the laboratory, finding soda cans on people's desks, retrieving them and returning them to a known location. The scenario set up for Herbert addresses four basic issues in mobile robotics research: recognition, manipulation, obstacle avoidance and navigation. Clearly, this line of work is attempting to build more clever robots.

1.3 Cheap, Mass-Produced Robots

The goal of building *mass-producible, low-cost robots* has led to the concept of gnat robots [Flynn 1987], in which a complete robotic system is integrated onto a single piece of silicon. By using silicon micro-machining technology that is compatible with traditional integrated circuit processes, sensors, brains, actuators and power supplies can all be integrated on chip. The result of developing such a robot would be

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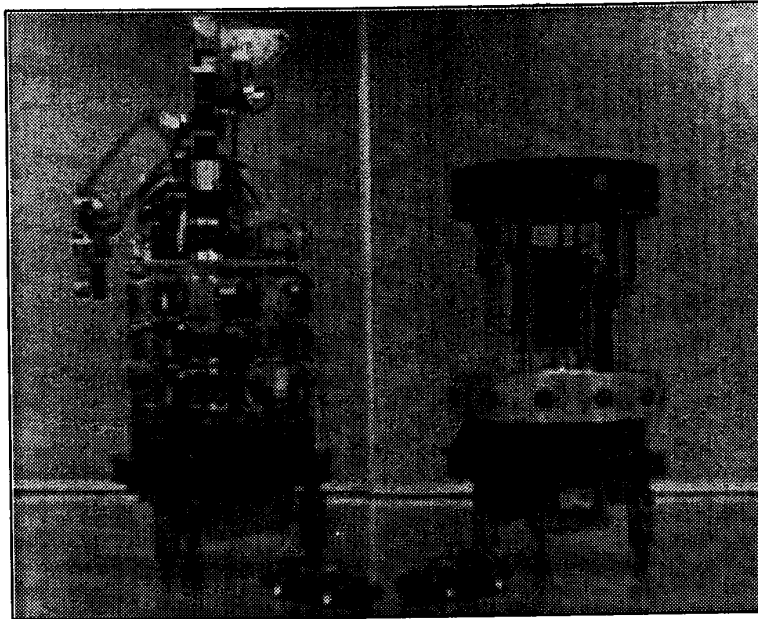


Figure 1. Allen, right, used 12 sonar sensors for obstacle avoidance. Data was transmitted over a cable to an off-board Lisp machine running a subsumption architecture simulation. Allen is still used as a testbed for ongoing experiments in new sensor and control algorithms. To the left, Herbert, the Collection Machine, has an onboard parallel processor, a lightweight arm, infrared proximity sensors, a laser light stripper and an infrared hand sensor, all designed so as to provide him the capability of recognizing and collecting soda cans. In the center are Tom and Jerry, where the subsumption architecture has been hand compiled and implemented on a PAL to demonstrate that once a system has been designed, debugged and completed, it can be engineered down to a very small size. Headlights and tail-lights of the toy cars have been replaced by near-infrared proximity sensors.

tremendous reductions in cost, due to the mass production possibilities of IC manufacturing. Additionally, vast new areas of application open up, because of the small size of such robots.

2. Past Experience

2.1 A Different Approach

We began our project by building Allen, which was designed to try out some novel ideas about robot control systems and planning models. The philosophy driving our project runs orthogonal to traditional implementations of mobile robots in that there is no central place in the robot's intelligence system which performs either supervisory control or sensor fusion into a global map. Rather, the control system is distributed and much of the intelligence is often found in the peripherals. This philosophy is described in more detail in [Brooks 1987b].

The absence of a control supervisor allows us to incrementally build layered control systems where each layer provides for increasingly sophisticated behaviors. This design for a brain was first reported in [Brooks 1986]. We call it the *subsumption architecture* because higher levels can subsume lower levels when triggered, but lower levels continue to work should higher levels fail or simply choose to remain inactive.

Starting from such very simple survival type behaviors, more complex behaviors are then gradually developed. What can be achieved is "insect level" intelligence and [Brooks 1986b] points out that evolution devoted much more time to these sorts of problems than to higher level reasoning. Each layer in the subsumption architecture is composed of

a set of finite state machines which send messages to each other. We call such finite state machines *modules*. Designing the control system consists of "wiring up a brain" by assigning inputs and outputs between various modules.

2.2 Allen

Allen, shown in figure 1, was built to try out some of these ideas. A three layered subsumption architecture was implemented on a Lisp machine. Via a cable, the Lisp machine collected sensor data from the robot and issued appropriate actuator commands. Allen had a ring of 12 sonar sensors mounted on a synchronous drive base which was propelled by two motors, a drive motor and a steering motor. All wheels turned in unison. The lowest level of the subsumption architecture created an *avoid* behavior in which the robot would sit in the center of a room and run away if someone approached it. The *wander* behavior was built on top of *avoid* and forced the robot to wander randomly but in addition, enabled it to runaway if either someone approached it or it found itself wandering into obstacles. The third level exhibited an *explore* behavior in which the robot would pick a destination and then try to go there, circumnavigating a person should someone step in front of it. We found the subsumption architecture to be very flexible and a variety of behaviors could be substituted quite easily, such as *door finding*, etc. These extensions were reported in [Brooks and Connell 1986].

Noticing that the finite state machines comprising these particular control systems were in fact, quite simple, we paused before adding more levels of behavior to Allen, and went ahead with two other projects

which implemented this subsumption architecture directly in hardware in two separate forms. Both projects have enabled us to build fully autonomous robots, free from the cable constraint that fed Allen.

3. Current Progress

3.1 Herbert

The Herbert project was begun to illustrate that a Lisp machine implementation of the subsumption architecture was essentially overkill for the computation that was actually being performed on Allen. Instead, Herbert's brain is composed of a network of 8-bit microprocessors that physically realize the composition of modules that previously had been written in software on the Lisp machine. The plan for the Herbert project was initially outlined in [Brooks, Connell and Flynn 1986] and more recent progress is discussed in [Brooks, Connell and Ning 1988].

Herbert's microprocessor network emphasizes the fact that there really is no common memory, bus, switch or central controller. Rather, the processors are wired together in the form of a patch panel with outputs of some modules feeding inputs of others, and with outputs of modules in higher levels at times reaching down and suppressing inputs to modules in lower levels. Having this network of small processors onboard allows Herbert to run autonomously whenever he is powered up.

Herbert uses infrared proximity sensors instead of sonar sensors for obstacle avoidance as this gives him faster reflexes. Although at this stage Herbert exhibits only two fundamental behaviors, *avoid* and *follow walls*, he will soon be able to perform more interesting actions as he will have an arm incorporated into the control system. The arm can presently detect and grasp soda cans using a set of proximity sensors on the hand. This works offboard the robot at the present time, but is ready to be integrated into the rest of the robot shortly. Real-time object recognition using data from a laser scanner has also been demonstrated offboard the robot. The target date for complete integration of these capabilities onboard the robot is the end of February 1988.

The goal in life chosen for Herbert is that he will wander around and collect soda cans and take them back to a central depository. Although situated in a light scenario, Herbert's existence in the context of collecting soda cans explicitly targets four major areas in mobile robotics research. First, the robot must be able to find the cans, therefore requiring that he solve a recognition problem. Second, the robot must be able to maneuver his way to the target without injuring himself in the process. This means he has to have some obstacle avoidance skills. Third, he has to be able to grasp the can, requiring manipulator control and end effector sensors. Fourth, he has to know how to get back to the soda can depository and this necessitates a capability for path recognition and navigation.

In keeping with the driving philosophy of no central control, all of these actions will be performed in a distributed fashion. A recently developed light stripe vision system will be able to provide depth maps in real time to enable parallel recognition of a number of different types of objects. Each object class has its own special processor to recognize it. When the table-like-object recognizer fires, a table-approaching behavior activates. Being close to a table brings any soda cans thereon into the rough size range expected of soda cans. If a can is detected, the robot centers itself on the suspected can. If proximity sensors detect obstacles during this process they trigger avoidance behaviors. Safe arrival to the destination triggers the arm to scan along the tabletop or floor. Ranging sensors mounted on the hand fire when they detect a raised object of the right size. This triggers a grasping action. When the arm senses an external force on the hand, the behavior for navigating back to the depository is initiated. Note that nowhere in this scenario is it necessary to have a central controller. The arm does not

know where in the room the soda can lies and the can recognizer does not worry about avoiding obstacles. The intelligence lies in the connections between very simple modules. Figure 1 shows Herbert with a network of microprocessors around his torso, the two degree-of-freedom arm extending to the left and a laser light stripe vision system on his head.

3.2 Tom and Jerry

Before Herbert was completed, we again digressed and took on another project. This was Tom and Jerry, the automating of two toys cars shown also in figure 1. Here, the radio controllers were replaced with a subsumption architecture implemented in combinatorial logic on one chip, a PAL. The other hardware on the board consists of analog circuitry for the infrared sensors that replace the headlights, and MOSFET switches for controlling the motors. Tom and Jerry again implement three levels of behavior, *avoid*, *wander* and *follow*. [Connell 1987] explains the control system used here in more detail.

The idea demonstrated in the Tom and Jerry project is that the better understood what is being done, the easier it is to engineer it down to a small size. Thus the Lisp machine required as an intelligence engine for Allen has been reduced to a PAL for Tom and Jerry. Another point to be made here is that both the Herbert and Tom and Jerry projects exemplify the flexibility of the subsumption architecture and how, in fact, it is hardware retargetable. This idea is discussed more thoroughly in [Brooks 1987].

4. Future Goals

Over the past two years, we have made a number of observations about most mobile robots and have noted some problems. First, the state of the art in terms of the level of intelligence attainable is not very high. Second, a considerable portion of the sheer bulk on most mobile robots has nothing at all to do with the intelligence system. There seems to be a certain runaway characteristic involved with the sizes of motors and batteries. The tendency in building the stereotypical mobile robot is to start with a chassis and then add a pair of motors and a set of batteries to power the motors. Batteries are heavy, so larger motors are substituted. Large motors draw more power, so bigger batteries are required and so on and on it goes. Meanwhile, the intelligence and sensory systems reside on a few square inches of silicon. Not only does this runaway characteristic of motors and batteries affect the size of the robot, but also the cost. Costs for propulsion systems have not scaled as they have for microelectronics.

Aside from cost and size, there are other factors which have kept mobile robots from becoming as widespread as we might have imagined. Foremost among these is the issue of complexity. A mobile robot is a complex device. Many components such as sensors, actuators, computers and power supplies, usually acquired from separate vendors, must all be interfaced to work together as one system. The more complex such a system is, the harder it is to maintain it. We term these issues the *connector problem*. Much of the sheer bulk on a mobile robot that is not associated with motors and batteries has to do with the connectors, wiring harnesses, cabling and the like. Again, relatively small amounts of space on a typical system are dedicated to sensing or intelligence.

In our line of mobile robots, we have tried to build each succeeding robot smaller and lighter in an attempt to turn around the explosive phenomenon of motors and batteries. An interesting point to ponder is how far down the scaling can continue. It has come to our attention recently that motors are actually being designed on chip, with rotating members on the order of few hundred microns in diameter [Bart, Lober, Howe, Lang and Schlecht 1987], [Trimmer and Gabriel 1987]. If laying down actuators on chip with lithographic integrated circuit techniques is feasible, it may also be possible to integrate the other components of

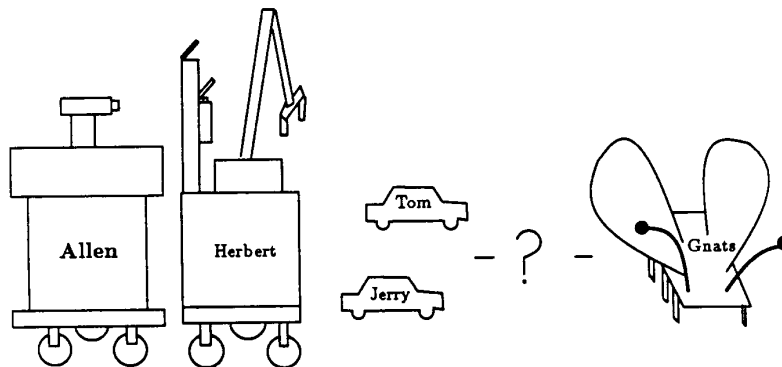


Figure 2. This diagram shows the time sequence of ongoing robot projects: Allen, Herbert, Tom and Jerry. At the right, is the plan that someday we would like to build one-chip, gnat-sized robots.

a robotic system: sensors, control and power supplies.

4.1 Gnat Robots

The possibility of creating single chip robots dramatically changes our thinking about mobile robots. Not only would entirely new fields of application open up, but the mass production capability available from integrated circuit fabrication technology holds the promise that someday such robots could be made very cheaply.

Is it feasible? Certainly control logic and microsensors are amenable to such scaling; if power consumption is kept to a minimum, highly efficient solar cells might be usable. But could any type of micromotor develop enough power to locomote a small robot? [Flynn 1987] has taken an in depth look at these questions and has shown that the available power from such micromotors is roughly equivalent to that needed to drive a small vehicle. By combining such motors with microsensors, a compiled-down version of our subsumption architecture, and miniature power supplies, we can imagine gnat-sized microrobotic systems the problems associated with maintenance and spare parts.

Having such robots would change the way we think about robotics and open up new areas of application. Possibilities span from autonomous fishing lures to eavesdroppers to inspectors for spacecraft. With low cost and small size, we can begin to envision *massive parallelism*; using millions of small simple robots to perform tasks that might otherwise be done with one large, expensive, complex robot. In addition, we also begin to view our robots as *dispensable*. They can be cheap enough that they are thrown away when they have finished their mission or are broken, and we do not have to worry about retrieving them from hazardous or hard to reach places.

To actually build a gnat robot, a research plan is needed that takes the project step by step, from technology that can be produced now to the end goal of what should be developed. Having a clear picture of that goal clarifies what problems should be addressed and in what order.

There are two major guiding considerations here. To create a gnat robot we need to minimize power consumption and save space on chip.

We have a few strategies for design that will enable us to implement these guidelines. First, a gnat robot should rely entirely on passive sensing in order to keep down power consumption. Active sensors, such as those used on our present robots, emit energy to the environment. These types of sensors therefore require significant amounts of power. Although passive sensors usually do not give the information desired directly, we hope to trade off computation for power consumption. Development of better algorithms can keep computational depth shallow and make this feasible (see [Brooks, Flynn and Marill 1987] for an example). A second strategy, one which aids in conserving real estate, is to be clever with sensor design so that one sensor can sense more than one environmental phenomenon. Third, using actuators also as sensors reduces chip size even further. Fourth, we will have to use the most efficient power transmission system possible so that power savings from other strategies are not wiped out.

A plan for the design of a first prototype is detailed in [Flynn 1987] and shows that micromotors can provide power equivalent to that of a rubber band for propelling a small 80mg airplane [Drela 1987]. A research plan is proposed to target the first prototype of a gnat robot to be a single piece of silicon, incorporating sensing, guidance and control systems, which is attached to a macroscopic aerofoil. This example of a small airplane is proposed because it can be the simplest possible system; few actuators are needed and we do not need to worry about micro-aerodynamics and the associated problems of flight in the regime of low Reynold's numbers. This is not giving up on self-propelled gnat robots but is merely good engineering use of abstraction in order to isolate hard problems.

In order to create such a single-chip microrobot for this application it is necessary to pinpoint what problems need to be solved. We can then develop a realistic research plan which best focuses our efforts and expertise to address these issues step by step. Foremost among the difficult problems involved is the development of micromotors, micro power transmission systems and some means of attaching micromotors to macro linkages. We need more knowledge about the aerodynamics of low-speed, small scale flight. Passive sensors, intelligent control systems integrated down to chip level and small lightweight power sources are other major hurdles. We feel that our most immediate contribution

can be in the areas of passive sensing and control systems and it is in these areas where we are focusing our upcoming projects.

So these are our goals. First, we want to create robots that are more intelligent than the present state of the art. This is manifested in our ongoing Herbert project. We want to push on the intelligence end of robotics research to build ever more clever robots. We would also like to create small scale robots, with the levels of intelligence we can attain now, in the hopes that low-cost, lightweight, disposable robots will be useful to society and raise our standard of living. This goal is manifested by our aim to build gnat robots.

Gnat robots are proposed as a direction for future robotics research because we feel that by pursuing this direction, we will eventually be able to mass produce robots and make them cheaply. With gnat robots there will no need for expensive maintenance and spare parts. This will enable them to be widely available and useful even if at first they only have limited intelligence.

5. The Research Plan

We have spent a few years building some prototype robots and gaining working knowledge and experience. We have outlined what we see as hard problems and directions that should be pursued. We also have some lofty goals. Figure 2 shows a time chart of the sequence of projects which we have begun and also the goal projects we would someday like to build.

How do we form a research plan that successfully leads a project step by step to meet these goals? We want to show that we are not talking about science fiction, but mean to achieve these goals in the not so infinite future.

In order to identify the steps needed to bring this to fruition, let's work backwards. Starting from the desire to have a working, flying gnat robot, what would be the next easiest project, one step back that would be doable without facing all the problems involved in gnat robots?

5.1 Micro Robotic Airplane

[Flynn 1987] proposes building a miniature airplane. Basically, the suggestion is to put together an entire robotic system on a chip and then mount that chip on an airfoil which requires only one actuator for power and one actuator for control. What pieces would have to be developed to realize this? A passive sensing system would have to be built so that the airplane would not crash. A control system would have to be laid out on an integrated circuit to turn the sensed data into appropriate actuator commands. Micromotors would have to be built. Complex, highly efficient solar cells would have to be produced. Some type of transmission system would have to be conceived to couple the micromotors to a macro propeller or rudder.

The hardest problems here are probably the micromotors and solar cells. However, we feel we have a good angle of attack on the sensing and control issues. Our aim therefore is to concentrate on developing the technologies in these areas, and to hope for outside progress in micromotors and solar cells. Advances in micromotors and solar cells will be brought about by those with more expertise. Our strategy then is to take one more step back and aim towards a project that isolates the problems where we feel we can make a contribution.

5.2 Autonomous Rubber Band Powered Airplane

Consequently, a more immediate stepping stone would be to take the same lightweight airplane and leave the rubber band on to power it. This would give roughly six minutes of flight. Automating that airplane for that time interval would still be quite remarkable.

We will work on building a miniature vision system that provides input to a compiled down subsumption architecture. This sensing and

control system will give the airplane the ability to fly around, avoiding obstacles, turning left or right as appropriate. The hand wound rubber band can remain, in order to provide power. Control of the rudder could be performed by a small nitinol actuator [Trimmer and Gabriel 1986] or possibly even a scaled down piezoelectric actuator.

All of this leads to the idea that what our mobile robot group should be focusing on today is creating the sensors and control systems necessary for gnat robots. Of course, we are also still interested on the parallel track of making our present robots exhibit more intelligent behavior. This leads us to our present plans for our next few projects.

5.3 Seymour

In order to pursue some of the directions we have been discussing, we have decided to start a new project. This new robot, Seymour, will specifically be targeted at developing the passive sensors that would someday be appropriate for gnat robots. We are going to constrain ourselves, artificially, to these low power devices in order to see how much sensory information we can extract and how intelligent a robot we can build, based on passive sensors. In addition, although Seymour is a macroscopic robot he is actually quite small and fast. He is 12 inches in diameter, and 20 inches high. He can move at 2 meters per second, so this forces us to address the issue of real time control and video processing on a fast robot. Consequently, Seymour has onboard computation which can sustain 16 million convolution multiply-add steps per second, while independently producing another MIP of computation, all with a 14 watt power budget for computation.

To go to all the trouble of beginning a whole new project, we should plan to get as much out of it as possible. Therefore Seymour will be a workhorse not only for pushing towards gnat robots but also for pushing the levels of intelligence which we can incorporate into our robots. Building an entirely new robot requires a lot of work. A new base has to be built, power supplies have to be installed, computers have to be interfaced, and so on. Since Seymour is very small, there is little room to slap things together or throw things on later. Very careful system design is required from the start. Although we have quite a number of engineering reasons for building Seymour, such as pushing the technology of passive sensors, low power consumption and small size as far as we can, in order to make progress towards gnat robots, we might as well also work on the parallel track of making our robots more intelligent. We will try to do this however, within the engineering constraints which we have set for ourselves. So Seymour will be more than just another robot to avoid obstacles, but more will be said about that later. Obstacle avoidance using passive sensors is a hard problem in itself. Although Seymour is a macro-robot, it is a first and very real step towards building small scale robots.

5.3.1 Stereo and Motion Vision

The constraint of using passive sensors is a tough one. One can acquire direct information and acquire it much more easily by using active sensors such as light stripers, infrared proximity sensors or sonar sensors. We are hoping however, that by using clever algorithms for passive sensors such as CCD cameras, we can trade off power consumption for computation, as we can do computation with low-power CMOS microprocessors.

One of our first goals on this project is to get Seymour to perform navigation, that is, avoid obstacles in real time using cameras and on-board vision processing. A major problem in trying to use vision is that most vision algorithms don't work on real data or are not particularly useful for robot navigation. This is in spite of the fact that biological visual systems provide an existence proof of the feasibility, robustness and richness that a vision system should be able to provide.

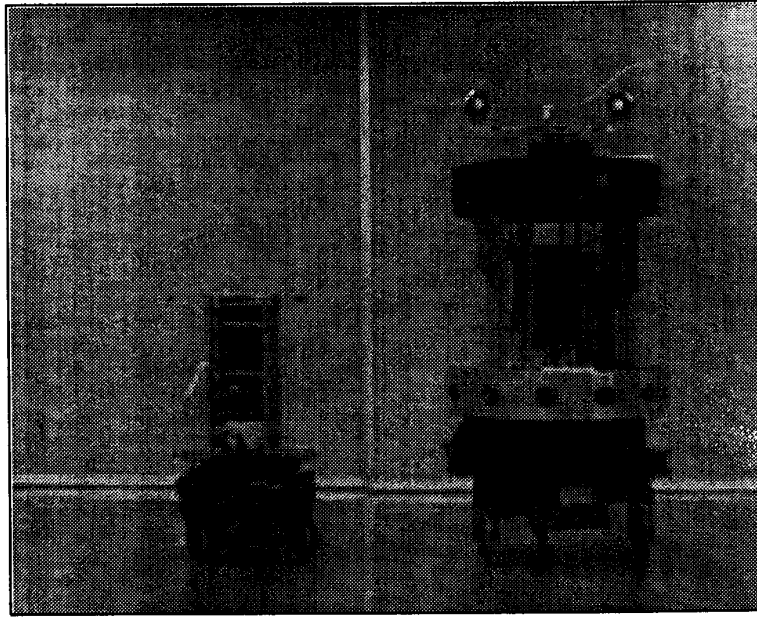


Figure 3. Seymour will be much faster and smaller than either Allen or Herbert. Shown above in proportion to Allen, it's clear that the engineering goals for Seymour are ambitious, as Seymour will have far more sensors and computational power than Allen ever had. At the present time, the base and a card cage holding a 68000 board which can send commands to the base is all that is complete and working on Seymour. Shown on Allen's head is a new passive infrared sensing device for locating people.

Machine vision systems require extensive computation and more research needs to be done to develop algorithms which can cope with all the noise and complexity of visual perception. We have recently been working on this problem and have developed some new algorithms which provide useful, reliable information to an autonomous robot for the purposes of obstacle avoidance [Brooks, Flynn and Marill 1987].

The idea is to use two early vision processes, stereo and forward motion analysis, to determine how far away obstacles are. Stereo and motion processes are very sensitive to misalignment of the cameras however, so the key component of this new algorithm is that it is self-calibrating. The idea of self-calibration is to have the stereo and motion routines cross-calibrate themselves off the real world. This is what really makes the algorithms work.

One benefit of self-calibration is that no test patterns are needed for the robot to stare at upon being powered up, but rather the robot calibrates itself by stumbling and blundering about the real world and gradually becomes able to see better as time goes on. It runs its calibration routines in background continuously and should someone bash one of its cameras and knock it out of alignment, it soon figures out the new parameters. In this way, the robot is able to predict reliably time to collision with various obstacles and so determine the correct motor commands in time to avoid them. All of this is done passively and therefore consumes relatively little power.

The vision system we have so far demonstrated is the appropriate sensor for mobile robot obstacle avoidance. Since we are not trying to recognize the obstacles we are avoiding, we can use linear array cameras and that makes it possible to build a processor which fits onboard. Also, the algorithms deliver the right type of information, because instead of returning distances to objects which would have to be mapped into some absolute coordinate system, they return time to collision. The control system can then simply issue velocity commands to the robot

to make it move out of the way. This type of vision system also is a nice fit with our desire to build autonomous robots, in that the self-calibration feature allows the robot to become autonomous upon power up.

5.4 Silicon Compiler

The Seymour project aims to develop low-power passive sensors that would someday be appropriate for single chip robots. Concurrently to Seymour, we have started another project which attempts to push technology towards gnat robots on yet another front, namely scaling down the intelligence system. We are writing a silicon compiler for designing custom VLSI implementations of the subsumption architecture. The silicon compiler is a program which takes the control system specifications, which are written in Lisp and are basically finite state machines, and macro expands the code into logical building blocks. An optimizer then takes that level of description and compacts it to the minimum number of gates required. This gate level description is then used as a netlist and VLSI implementation is taken from there. The plan is to eventually compile the entire control system onto one chip.

As a first step, before we go to custom VLSI, we are targeting the output of the silicon compiler to XYLINX programmable logic devices. We feel confident that a control system with the level of intelligence of Allen could fit on two or three XYLINX chips. Although Tom and Jerry's brains are one-chip PALs, their content was hand compiled. This silicon compiler project will enable us to quickly reconfigure and download new and more complex control systems to the chip level.

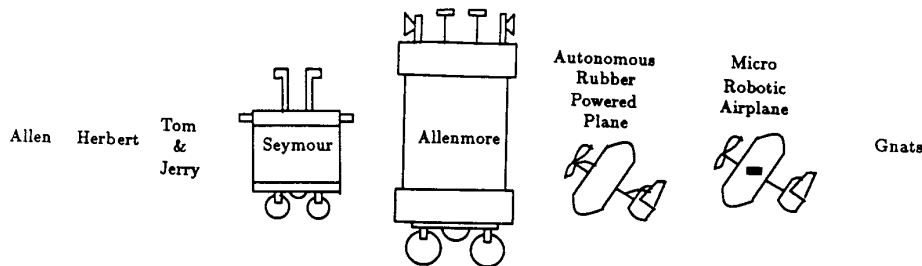


Figure 4. Shown above is the timeline of projects in our research plan which will take us from where we are now to the goal of one day achieving gnat robots.

5.5 Allenmore

A good deal of engineering is required to develop the sensors we need into package sizes appropriate to fit on Seymour. In addition, we need to prototype and test our ideas for the sensor and control algorithms. Fortunately, we can use Allen as a testbed robot to do some quick implementations of these ideas. Once the functionality is established, the sensors can be carefully designed and packaged to fit into Seymour. This prototyping project for Seymour we term Allenmore. Figure 4 depicts how the Allenmore project fits into the scheme of things.

At the moment we have three development projects ongoing with Allenmore. First, we are building a system which will allow us to interface the linear cameras into a Lisp machine so that we can test our algorithms with the real cameras that we plan to use on Seymour.

A second project being undertaken on Allenmore is the prototyping of the passive infrared motion sensors which Seymour will use for detecting people. These pyroelectric sensors respond to a change in temperature across their field of view. We've developed a sensor based on using two pyroelectric sensors mounted on a rotating beam, which can deliver both direction and range to a person. The output of this sensor can be sent over Allen's cable to the Lisp machine and we can extend the subsumption architecture there to include the control for a people-following behavior. Having available one robot to use as a testbed for developing subsystems is a tremendous help in getting the new robot up and running.

In addition to doing prototyping work for Seymour, we have a third project in the works to extend Allen's control system for its own sake. Basically, we started by building three levels of behavior for Allen but then digressed and took on several other projects, and the question is often raised as to why we have not added more layers. We are presently in the midst of experimenting with two more layers using the sonar sensors already mounted on his top. In addition, we have recently added a second ring near the base, which should provide better coverage. The new layers of control will use both of these rings to implement some corridor finding and wait-at-the-end-of-the-hallway behaviors.

6. Conclusion

This paper has tried to explain the goals of our project and our methods for actually achieving those goals. We have shown, step by step, the projects we have planned and how we plan to develop each succeeding stage of technology. By discussing all of our past, present and future projects in the context of what we are trying to achieve, we hoped to

more clearly explain why we are working on our present projects. We hope that someday, this line of research will lead to mobile robots which are both more intelligent and more useful.

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