Self-Driving Cars

Lecture 6 - Vehicle Control

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Agenda

6.1 Introduction

6.2 Black Box Control

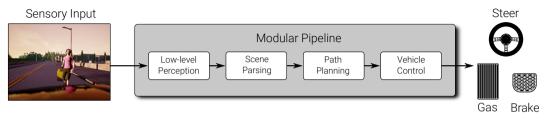
6.3 Geometric Control

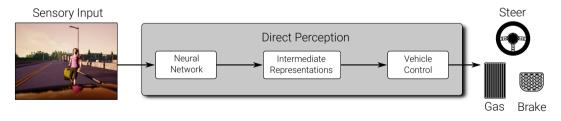
6.4 Optimal Control

6.1

Introduction

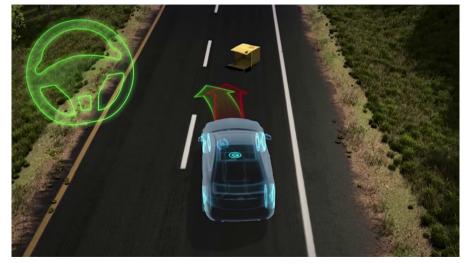
Approaches to Self-Driving





► Self-driving cars and driver assistance systems require **vehicle control**

Electronic Stability Program



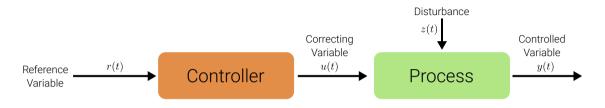
Sophisticated controllers are already in your car today!

5

Brief History of Driver Assistance Systems

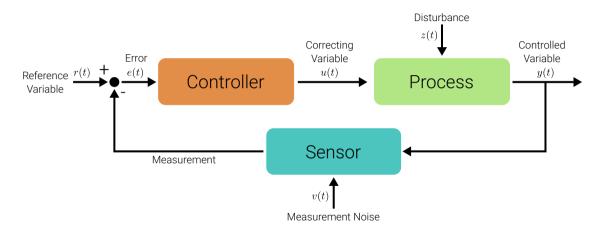
- ► 1926: Servo braking (Pierce-Arrow)
- ► 1951: Servo steering (Chrysler)
- ► 1958: Cruise control (Chrysler)
- ► 1978: Anti-lock braking system ABS (Bosch)
- ► 1986: Traction control system ASR (Bosch)
- ▶ 1995: Electronic stability program ESP (Bosch/BMW)
- ► 2000: Adaptive cruise control ACC (Mitsubishi/Toyota/Bosch)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

Open-Loop Control



- ► Requires **precise knowledge** of the plant and the influence factors
- ▶ No feedback about the controlled variable
- ► Cannot handle unknown disturbances, resulting in **drift**

Closed-Loop Control



► Exploit feedback loop to minimize error between reference and measurement

Centrifugal Governor



Closed-Loop Control

- ► We will be considering **closed-loop control** in this lecture
- ► A vehicle needs to be controlled both **longitudinally** and **laterally**
- ► We consider 3 different types of controllers:
 - ► Black box controllers don't require knowledge about the process
 - ► **Geometric controllers** exploit geometric relationships between the vehicle and the path, resulting in compact control laws for path tracking
 - ➤ **Optimal controllers** use knowledge of the system and minimize an objective function over future time steps

6.2

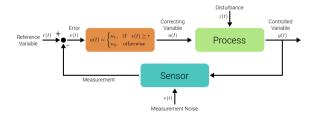
Black Box Contro

Bang-Bang Control

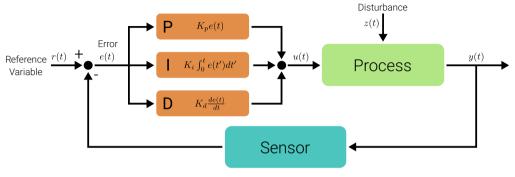
Bang-Bang Control

- ► Also called: hysteresis controller
- ► Often applied, e.g. in household thermostats
- Switches abruptly between two states
- Mathematical formulation:

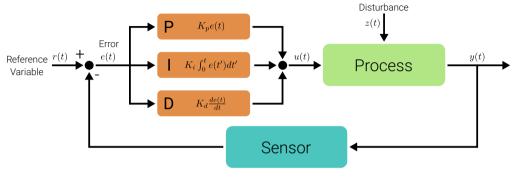
$$u(t) = \begin{cases} u_1, & \text{if } e(t) \ge \tau \\ u_2, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$







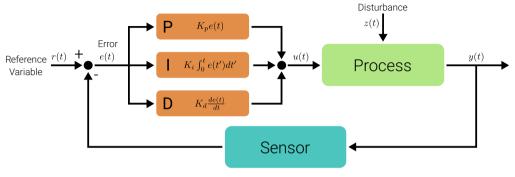
- ► Most common controller in current industrial applications
- Doesn't require knowledge about plant/process to be controlled
- ► Comprises proportional (**P**), integration (**I**) and differential (**D**) element
- lacktriangledown Reference variable r(t), correcting variable u(t), controlled variable y(t), error e(t)



Mathematical formulation:

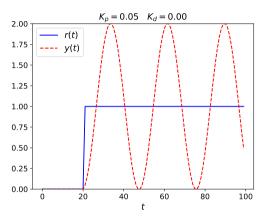
$$u(t) = K_p e(t) + K_i \int_0^t e(t')dt' + K_d \frac{de(t)}{dt}$$

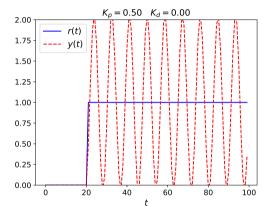
with parameters K_p , K_i and K_d



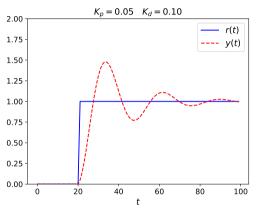
- ▶ Using the **P** element alone leads to overshooting / oscillation
- Adding a D element alleviates this problem by introducing damping behavior
- ► The I element corrects residual errors by integrating past error measurements

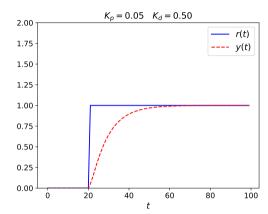
P Control





- ► Controlled Variable: Position y(t) = x(t)
- ► Correcting Variable: Acceleration $u(t) = a(t) = \ddot{x}(t)$





- ► Controlled Variable: Position y(t) = x(t)
- ► Correcting Variable: Acceleration $u(t) = a(t) = \ddot{x}(t)$

As PID controllers are often used to control black box processes, various heuristics have been proposed for setting the parameters. **Ziegler-Nichols** is most common:

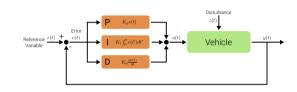
- $\blacktriangleright \text{ Set } K_i = K_d = 0$
- ▶ Increase K_p until the ultimate gain $K_p = K_u$ where the system oscillates
- ▶ Measure the oscillation period T_u at K_u
- $\blacktriangleright \ \mbox{ Set } K_p = 0.6 K_u \mbox{, } K_i = 1.2 K_u / T_u \mbox{ and } K_d = 3 K_u T_u / 40$

These heuristics have been derived empirically using computer simulations. While they provide a good starting point, manual fine-tuning is often required in practice. Note: Ziegler-Nichols does not apply to double integrators as in the previous example.

Example: Longitudinal Vehicle Control

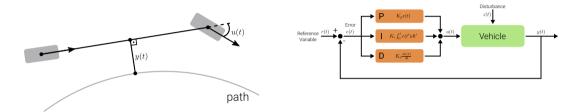
$$v(t) = v_{\text{max}} \left(1 - \exp\left(-\theta_1 d(t) - \theta_2 \right) \right)$$

- ightharpoonup v(t): target velocity at time t
- ightharpoonup d(t): distance to preceding car

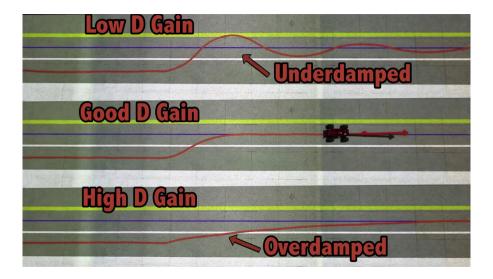


- ▶ Reference variable: r(t) = v(t) =target velocity
- ► Correcting variable: u(t) = gas/brake pedal
- ► Controlled variable: y(t) = current velocity
- $\blacktriangleright \text{ Error: } e(t) = v(t) y(t)$

Example: Lateral Vehicle Control



- lacktriangleright Reference variable: r(t) = 0 = no cross track error
- ► Correcting variable: $u(t) = \delta$ = steering angle
- ► Controlled variable: y(t) = cross track error
- ► Error: e(t) = -y(t) = cross track error



The **steady-state error** is defined as the difference between the input (command) and the output of a system in the limit as time goes to infinity (i.e., when the response has reached steady state). Steady-state error analysis is only useful for **stable** systems (a linear system is stable if its output will stay bounded for any bounded input).

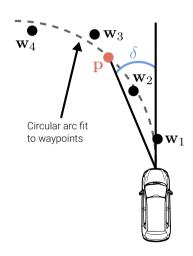
Example: Waypoint-based Vehicle Control

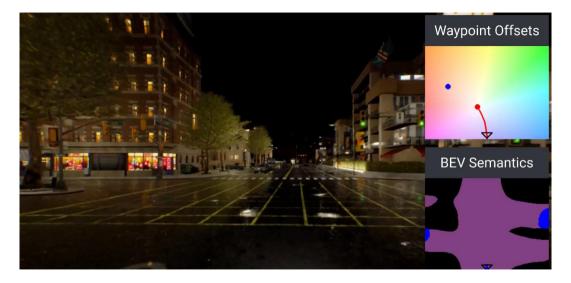
- ▶ Input: Waypoints $\mathbf{w} = \{\mathbf{w}_1, \dots, \mathbf{w}_K\}$
- ► **Velocity:** (Longitudinal PID control)

$$v = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \frac{\|\mathbf{w}_k - \mathbf{w}_{k-1}\|_2}{\Delta t}$$

► Steering angle: (Lateral PID control)

$$\delta = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{p_y}{p_x} \right)$$



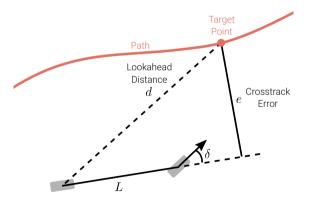


6.3

Geometric Control

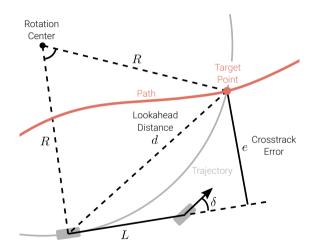
Goal:

- ➤ Track target point at lookahead distance *d* to follow path
- Exploit geometric relationship between vehicle and path to follow



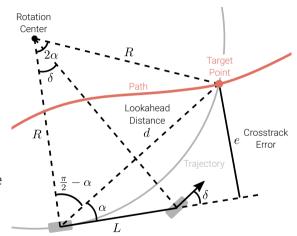
Goal:

- ➤ Track target point at lookahead distance *d* to follow path
- Exploit geometric relationship between vehicle and path to follow
- ► Minimize **crosstrack error** *e* by following circular trajectory



Goal:

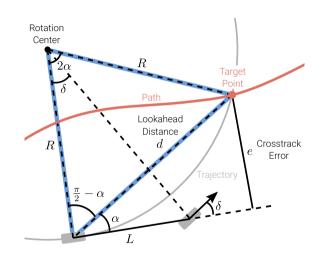
- ➤ Track target point at lookahead distance *d* to follow path
- Exploit geometric relationship between vehicle and path to follow
- Minimize crosstrack error e by following circular trajectory
- Steering angle δ determined by angle α between vehicle heading direction and lookahead direction: $\delta(\alpha) = ?$



From the law of sines:

$$\frac{d}{\sin(2\alpha)} = \frac{R}{\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \alpha\right)}$$
$$\frac{d}{2\sin\alpha\cos\alpha} = \frac{R}{\cos\alpha}$$
$$\kappa = \frac{1}{R} = \frac{2\sin\alpha}{d}$$

with κ the curvature of trajectory.

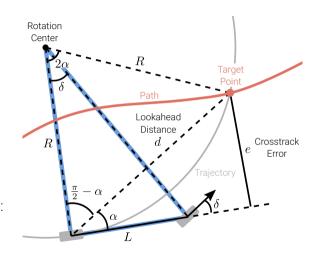


The **steering angle** is calculated as:

$$\tan(\delta) = \frac{L}{R} = \frac{2L\sin(\alpha)}{d}$$
$$\delta = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{2L\sin(\alpha)}{d}\right)$$
$$\delta \approx \frac{2L\sin(\alpha)}{d}$$

ightharpoonup d is often based on vehicle speed v:

$$d = Kv$$
 with constant K



In terms of **cross track error** we obtain:

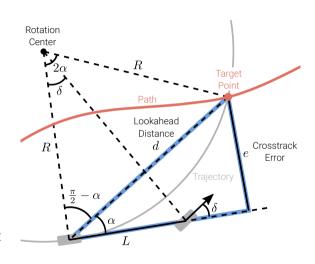
$$\sin \alpha = \frac{e}{d}$$

$$\delta = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{2L \sin(\alpha)}{d} \right)$$

$$\delta = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{2Le}{d^2} \right) \approx \frac{2L}{d^2} e$$

- ► Pure pursuit acts as a **proportional** controller wrt. the crosstrack error
- ightharpoonup d is often based on vehicle speed v:

$$d = Kv$$
 with constant K



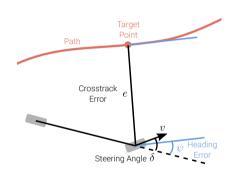
Stanley Control

Stanley Control

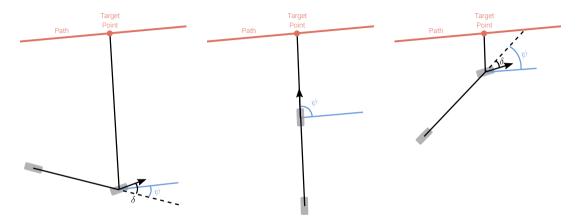
Control Law used by Stanley in DARPA Challenge:

$$\delta = \psi + \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{k e}{v} \right)$$

- ightharpoonup = speed, ψ = heading err., e = crosstrack err.
- ► Reference at front axle, no lookahead
- Combines heading and crosstrack error
- ► It can be shown that the crosstrack error converges exponentially to 0 (indep. of v)
- ► Works for small velocities w/o disturbances

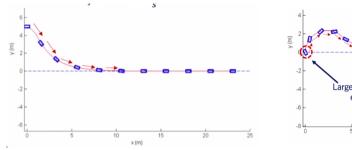


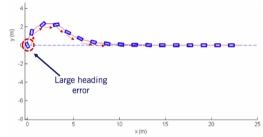
Stanley Control



► As heading changes, heading correction **counteracts** crosstrack correction

Stanley Control





- ► The Stanley controller can correct large crosstrack and large heading errors
- ► Global stability: Independent of initial conditions guides vehicle back (proven)
- ▶ But does not consider noisy observations, actuator dynamics, tire force effects

Softening/dampening terms and curvature information can be added

Slide Credits: Steven Waslander 35

Stanley Control



6.4

Optimal Control

Optimal Control

Recap: Dynamic Bicycle Model

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{v}_y \\ \dot{\psi} \\ \dot{\omega} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{c_r + c_f}{mv_x} & 0 & \frac{c_r l_r - c_f l_f}{mv_x} - v_x \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ \frac{l_r c_r - l_f c_f}{I_z v_x} & 0 & -\frac{l_f^2 c_f + l_r^2 c_r}{I_z v_x} \end{bmatrix} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} v_y \\ \psi \\ \omega \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{State } \mathbf{x}} + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{c_f}{m} \\ 0 \\ \frac{c_f}{I_z} l_f \end{bmatrix} \underbrace{\delta}_{\text{Input}}$$

With state \mathbf{x} and front steering angle δ .

We can rewrite this equation as the following linear system

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}\delta$$
 with $\mathbf{x} = (v_y, \psi, \omega)^T$

Optimal Control

Linear Quadratic Regulator (LQR): For the continuous-time linear system

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}\delta$$
 with $\mathbf{x}(0) = \mathbf{x}_{\text{init}}$

and quadratic cost functional defined as (${f Q}$ is a diagonal weight matrix)

$$J = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty \Delta \mathbf{x}^T(t) \mathbf{Q} \Delta \mathbf{x}(t) + q \delta(t)^2 dt$$

with $\Delta \mathbf{x}(t) = \mathbf{x}(t) - \mathbf{x}_{\text{target}}$. The feedback control $\delta(t)$ that minimizes J is given by

$$\delta(t) = -\mathbf{k}^T(t)\Delta\mathbf{x}(t)$$

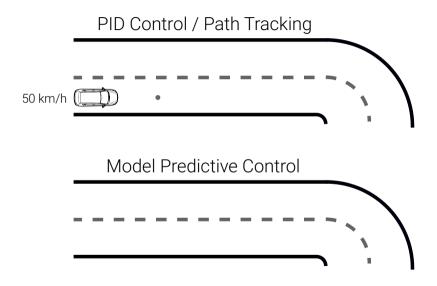
with $\mathbf{k}(t) = \frac{1}{q}\mathbf{b}^T\mathbf{P}(t)$ and $\mathbf{P}(t)$ the solution to a Ricatti equation (no details here).

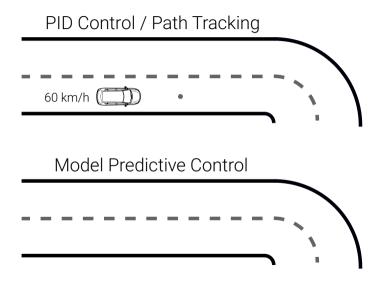
Generalizes LQR to:

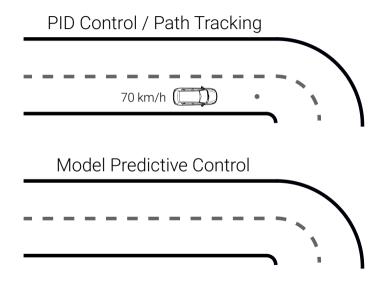
- ▶ Non-linear cost function and dynamics (consider straight road leading into turn)
- ▶ Flexible: allows for receding window & incorporation of constraints
- ► **Expensive:** non-linear optimization required at every iteration

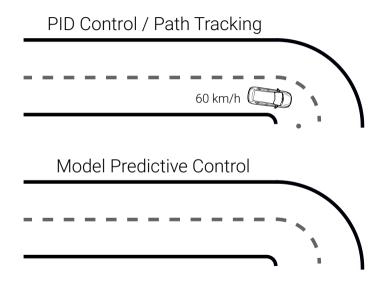
Formally:

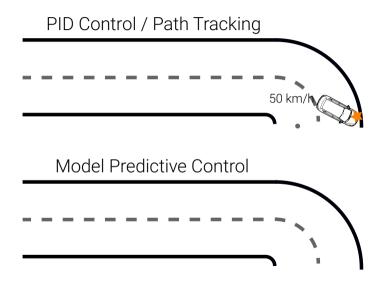
▶ Unroll dynamic model T times \Rightarrow apply non-linear optimization to find $\delta_1, \dots \delta_T$

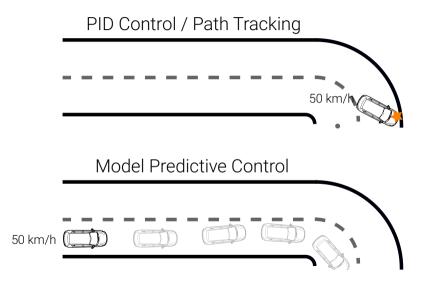


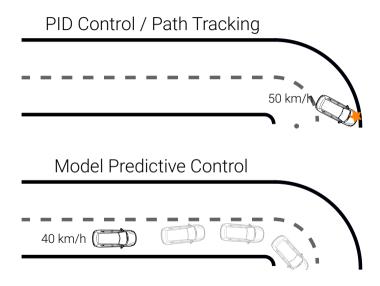


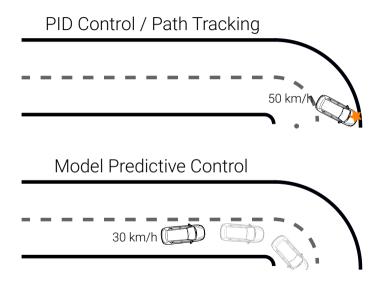


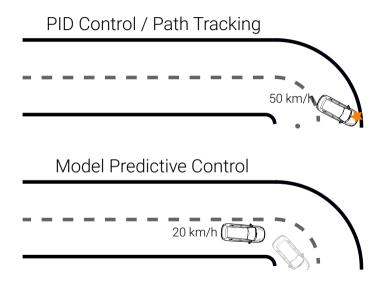


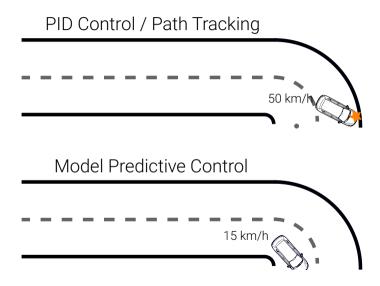












Summary

- ► 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