

A Probabilistic Path Planning Solution for Industrial
Robot in Dynamic Environment using A Simultaneous
Localization and Mapping Solution

BY

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A thesis submitted in fulfillment of the requirement for the
degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Mechatronics
Engineering

Kulliyah of Engineering
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OCTOBER 2022

ABSTRACT

An industrial robot is isolated into work cells making the operation of industrial robots rigid and inflexible. The robot requires tremendous amount of time and resources should a new task or change is required in the work-cell. This stigma and the reality of owning an industrial robot hinder the confidence of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) to adopt industrial robot technology. This thesis attempts to democratize robot technology and automation to the SMEs by introducing an inexpensive, flexible, and safe robotic technology. This thesis intends to show the feasibility of constructing a robot manipulator with obstacle avoidance motion planning. Therefore, a six-axis (6R) manipulator as a prototype is developed to investigate the planning and motion control of the manipulator in a dynamic environment. The prototype replicates the typical 6R industrial robot design. Rapidly-exploring random tree (RRT) is chosen to plan and control the motion of the manipulator in the dynamic environment. A physic engine simulator simulates the manipulator and the obstacle avoidance planning. A 3D obstacle is introduced into the simulation environment and moves periodically from an initial point to a goal point in the form of sinusoidal motion described by $A+B \sin(2\pi tC)$. The motion planning is validated with the prototype hardware. However, the moving obstacle is augmented by the simulation environment to maintain safe experimentation and the preservation of the prototype. It is observed that the global planner, RRT, behaves reactively when subjected to the cycle space defined in this report. Consequently, RTAB-Map is used to facilitate an encoder-less context of the manipulator. Although RTAB-Map provides the confident state estimation of the robot task space and, consequently, the joint-space configuration of the manipulator, the estimation is intermittent. It is recommended that a new pipeline, capable of splining between the state estimation and the planning trajectories, is implemented for motion planning in the dynamic environment using SLAM solutions under the encoderless context.

اضة ضارة

في خلايا العمل جعل تشغيل الروبوتات الصناعية جامداً وغير مرن. الانسان الالي يتطلب قدرأً هائلاً من الوقت والموارد في حالة الحاجة إلى مهمة جديدة أو تغيير خلية العمل. هذه الوصمة وحقيقة امتلاك روبوت صناعي يعيقان ثقة المؤسسات الصغيرة والمتوسطة الحجم (ضش زس) لاعتماد تكنولوجيا الروبوت الصناعي. تحاول هذه الأطروحة إضفاء الطابع الديمقراطي على الروبوت التكنولوجي والأتمتة للشركات الصغيرة والمتوسطة من خلال تقديم وسيلة غير مكلفة ومرنة وآمنة للتكنولوجيا الروبوتية. تهدف هذه الأطروحة إلى إظهار جدوى بناء مناور روبوت مع تخطيط حركة تجنب العوائق. وبالتالي، ستة محاور (٦ض) تم تطوير مناور كنموذج أولى للتحقيق في التخطيط والتحكم في الحركة للمعالج في بيئة ديناميكية. يكرر النموذج الأولى تصميم الروبوت الصناعي النموذجي ٦ض. يتم اختيار شجرة عشوائية سريعة الاستكشاف (ضضة) للتخطيط والتحكم حركة المتلاعب في البيئة الديناميكية. محاكى محرك فيزيائى يحاكي المناور و تخطيط تجنب عقبة. يتم إدخال عقبة ثلاثية الأبعاد في بيئة المحاكاة ويتحرك بشكل دوري من أول أشر إلى نقطة هدف في شكل الحركة الجيبية الموصوفة $A + B \sin(2\pi t C)$. تخطيط الحركة تم التحقق من صحتها باستخدام جهاز النموذج الأولى. ومع ذلك ، فإن التحرك يتم زيادة العائق من خلال بيئة المحاكاة للحفاظ على التجريب الآمن والحفاظ على النموذج الأولى. لوحظ أن يتصرف المخطط العالمي ، ضضة ، بشكل تفاعلي عند تعرضه لمساحة الدورة المحددة في هذا التقرير. وبالتالي ، يتم استخدام ضةا-ش لتسهيل سياق أقل من المشفر المتلاعب. على الرغم من أن ضةا-ش توفر تقدير الحالة الواقع مساحة عمل الروبوت ، وبالتالي تكوين الفضاء المشترك المتلاعب ، التقدير متقطع. من المستحسن أن يكون خط أنابيب جديد ، قادر على الانقسام بين تقدير الحالة ومسارات التخطيط ، هو تم تنفيذها لتخطيط الحركة في البيئة الديناميكية باستخدام حلول ضش اش في سياق غير مشفر.

APPROVAL PAGE

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own investigation, except where otherwise state. I also declare that it has not been previously or concurrently submitted as a whole for any other degrees at IIUM or other institutions.

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... untuk bapak, mak, Dedek, dan 'ninggal wa rompuan ...

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

All glory to the Lord, Allah the Almighty. This research has taught me so much. I have been at my lowest and highest within this endeavor, and of all people that help me with my bearing, none so important as my supervisor, Prof. Dr. Md Raisuddin Khan for taking a chance on me and my concept, and for supporting me endlessly throughout of this research. I thank you and appreciate you and your trust. I hope someday, I could do the same to another brilliant, yet so broken, scholar who only need just one person to help him/her/they shine so bright.

I would be remissed if I do not mention my beautiful family; my mother, Jimelah, my father, Iman and my brother, Fariz. Thank you for being so patient throughout the time I attempt to make this research a successful one. They have been my rock, and have been lifting me up when I fall so severely during trying times.

Richard Herman Wallis, is the real hero of my life right now and the backbone of this thesis and myself. I cannot thank you enough for always being there to pick me up when I had fell so low.

I would also like to thank you everyone in the Department of Mechatronics Engineering for being the best example of professionals as a person can be. I see you and I see your amazing being.

Also to my friends, Kirunnisa and Akbar for the long chats and for being my bearing this entire time.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The background of this research centers around shifting the usage of industrial robot from large enterprises to the small and medium size business. This thesis loosely refers an industrial robot as a robot manipulator that is used in automation per definition ISO-8373:2 (2021). Thus, any manipulators with more than three controllable joints used in an automation for production purposes are considered as an industrial robot. However, the stigma prevails; industrial robots are heavy, expensive, inflexible, high maintenance, and hazardous which requires informed safety precautionaries. In practice, a heavy industrial robot is isolated into workcells making the operation of industrial robots rigid, inflexible, and requires tremendous amount of time and resources should a new task or change is introduced in the workcell (Miseikis et al. 2017). This stigma and the reality of owning an industrial robot hinders the confidence of small and medium size business (SME) to adopt industrial robot technology. This thesis attempts to democratize robot technology and automation to the SMEs by introducing an inexpensive, flexible, and safe robotic technology.

I propose a flexible automation system (FAS) to increase flexibility and decrease the cost of operating and maintaining an industrial robot. The FAS is characterized by its ability to react to unpredictable changes in its production floor using a SLAM solution so that my FAS solution can be installed in a large-volumed production floor under an SME setup. The main purpose of the FAS-SLAM is to maintain and manage the uncertainty of the system so that the system will be safe to use at a low cost. In the coming sections I will establish the connection

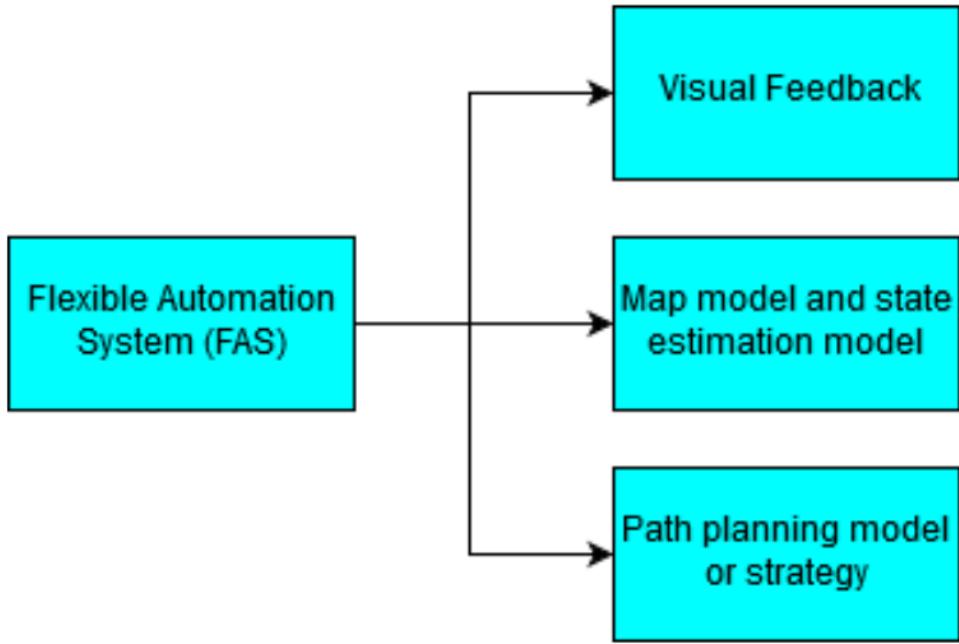


Figure 1.1: Three aspects of an FAS to maintain a safe and cost effective robotic system in a production line.

between an FAS system and a SLAM solution. As a primer, there are three aspects of an FAS for an industrial robot; (1) visual feedback, (2) map model and state estimation model of the robot, and (3) path planning model of the robot. Figure 1.1 shows these considerations.

The FAS uses visual feedback, such as visual camera, laser range finder, or a visual-depth camera, to model the workspace and to model the state of the robot.

The second aspect of an FAS is the state estimation model and the map model summarized by figure 1.2. A map model is a mathematical representation of an environment and state estimation model is a process of estimating an industrial robot configuration, location, velocity and acceleration of its end effector. The map model will provide the information for the FAS to manage the movement of a robot arm in its workspace based on the state estimation.

The third aspect of an FAS is the path-planning model. The path-planning model is used to calculate a way to reach a point in space without colliding with any obstructions or obstacles. The path is dependent on the information restored

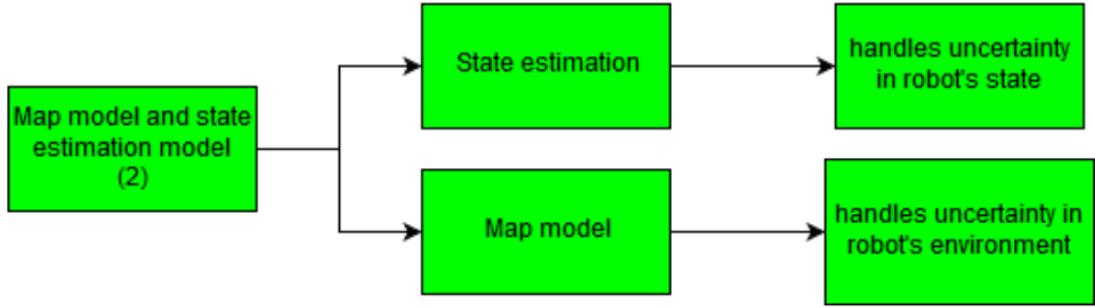


Figure 1.2: The second aspect of an FAS consist of two mathematical model that manage the uncertainty of the workspace of a robot and the uncertainty of the state of the robot.

in the map model of the workspace.

1.1 The Motivation of Eye-in-Hand Robot Configuration

Placement of the machine vision and the decision of the placement of the vision is non-trivial. The designer can consider, eye-to-hand configuration where the vision sensor is attached to an additional structure that has a vantage point of the robot manipulator and the workspace (Luo and Kuo 2016) or an eye-in-hand configuration where a vision sensor is place on the robot’s end-effector or at the last link of the robot arm. The latter configuration requires no additional structure and the visual feedback can be used as a state estimator and a mapping tool abiding the movement of the robot. This makes eye-in-hand configuration more space-efficient. Unlike eye-to-hand configuration, eye-in-hand sensors provide more information gain in terms of the state of the robot and the environment. The feedback from eye-in-hand configuration lacks visual-obstruction where more than one vantage point can be achieve when the sensors move with the end effector. The sensor in eye-in-hand configuration aids task involving reaching and manipulating since both tasks are specific to the end-effector. In the case of eye-to-hand configuration, both reaching and manipulation may be subjected to visual obstruction and extra



Figure 1.3: Eye-in-hand configuration that uses visual feedback enables an articulated robotic arm to identify objects in its workspace for manipulation.

rigs for the sensor.

As an example, Luo and Kuo (2016) used Microsoft’s Kinect, a type of visual-depth sensor (RGB-D), to produce workspace model of their robot system and to identify objects in the workspace. Figure 1.3 shows the rigidity of their setup.

Klingensmith, Sirinivasa, and Kaess (2016) uses the eye-in-hand configuration where an RGB-D sensor is connected at the end effector to auto-calibrate the robot’s position and configuration illustrated in figure 1.4. Extra structures were observed in the figure but in this stage of their research, their eye-to-hand sensor setup are not reported in their findings.

1.2 The Devoid of Unified Solution for Uncertainty Management in State and Workspace of an Industrial Robot

Despite rich solution options to uncertainty of a robot state and its environment, the solutions are disjoint and performed separately. Simultaneous localization

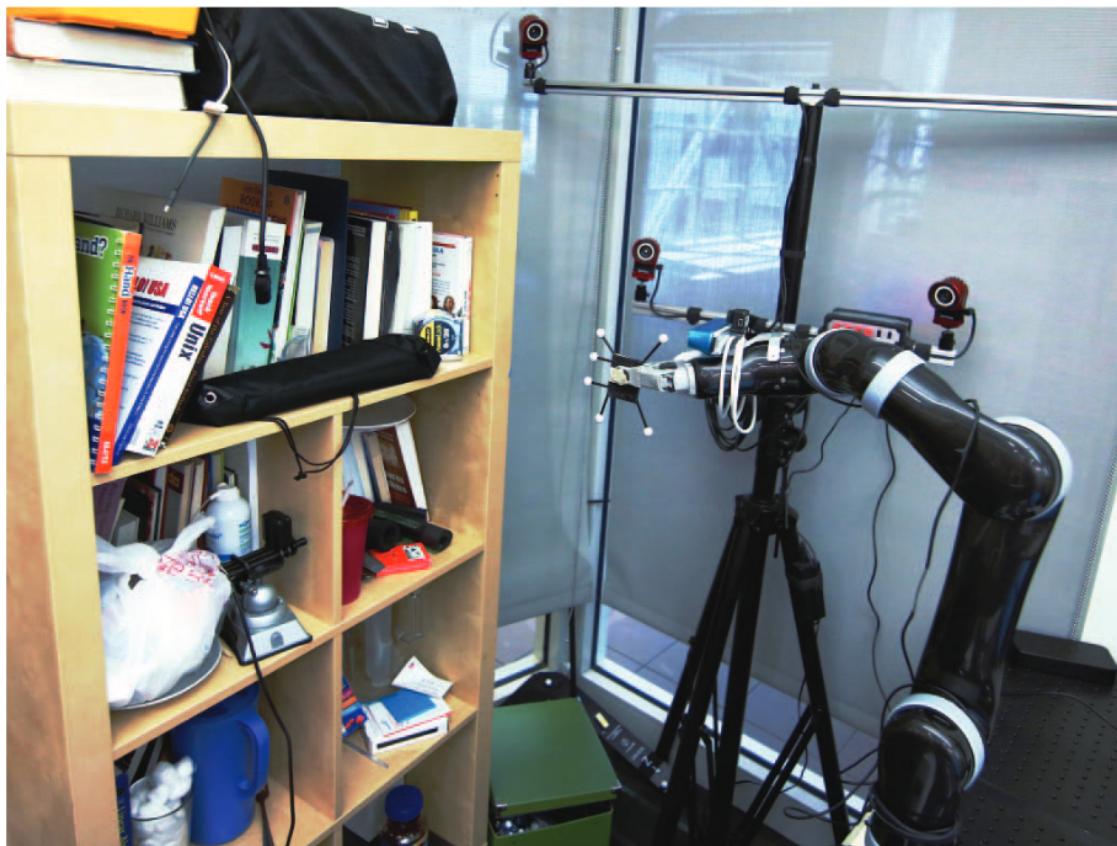


Figure 1.4: Eye-in-hand configuration where an RGB-D sensor (blue) is placed on the end-effector link to perform the robot's state estimation via auto-calibration (Klingensmith, Sirinivasa, and Kaess 2016)

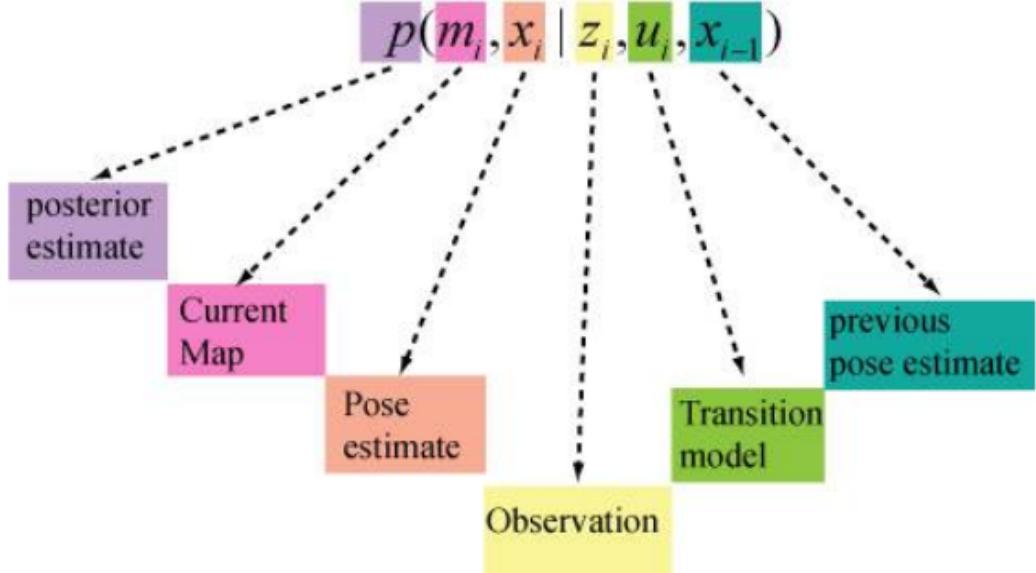


Figure 1.5: The variables parameterizing the SLAM solution

and map-building solution (SLAM), however, incorporate both the solution to uncertainty of the robot's state and the solution to uncertainty of the environment into one framework. Equation 1.1 summarize the concept of SLAM:

$$p(m_i, x_i | z_i, u_i, x_{i-1}) \quad (1.1)$$

where p (also known as posterior) is the process of maintaining the map of an unknown environment and estimating the current state or pose of a robot. $m_i \in \mathbb{R}^{3n}$, is the global map model, $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^3 \times \mathbf{SO}(3)$ is the state estimation, z_i is the measurement or observation model or visual feedback model of the robot, and u_i is the state transition matrix or state transition model of the robot. x_{i-1} before a new measurement is taken. Figure 1.5 summarizes the arguments of equation 1.1.

In theory a SLAM solution covers the first and the second aspects of the FAS proposed in this research. Figure 1.6 articulates the relevance of SLAM solution to an FAS.

Yet SLAM has only been optimized specifically for autonomous robot to address an unknown environment. The definitive researches on the use of SLAM in

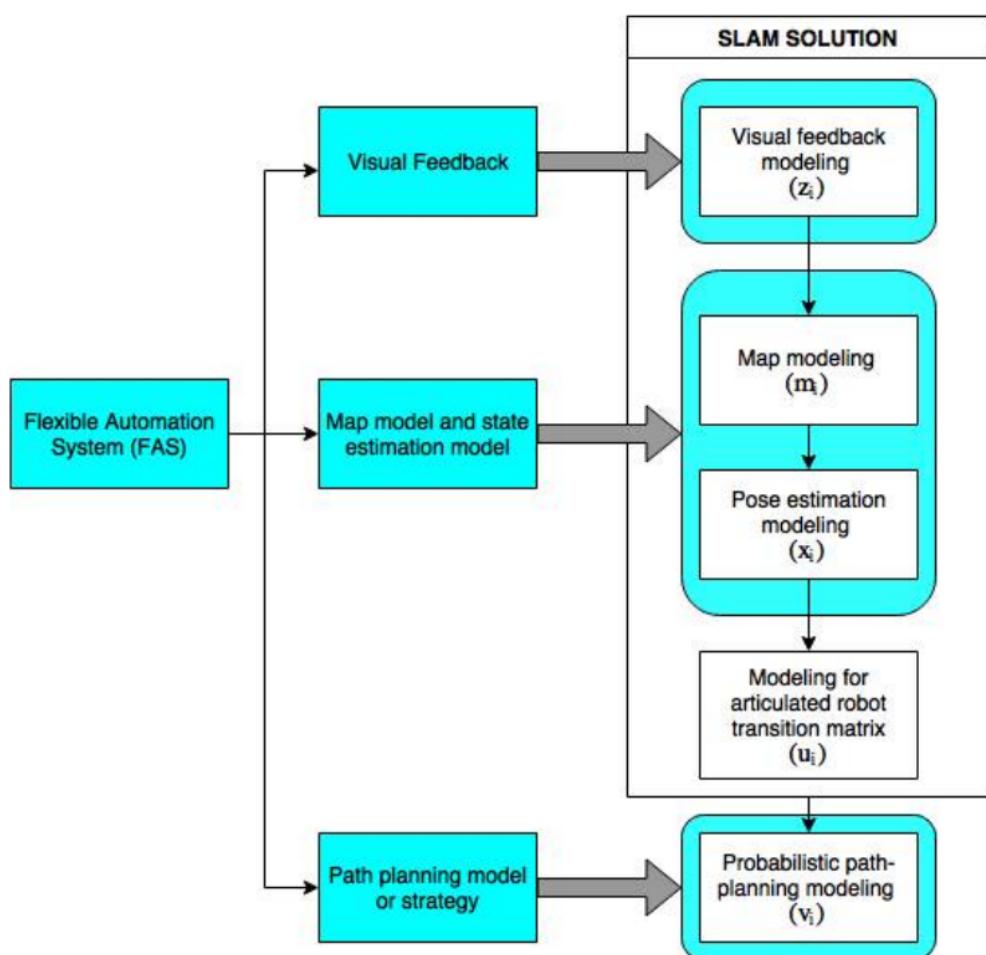


Figure 1.6: The connection between an FAS to a SLAM solution

articulated robot were introduced by Klingensmith, Sirinivasa, and Kaess (2016), J. Li, Ito, and Maeda (2019), and Ito, J. Li, and Maeda (2020). However, they did not consider the uncertainty of the state of the robot, the uncertainty of the robot's environment, and the path planning solution in a single framework. Figure 1.7 summarizes the gap in finding a solution to a path-planning under the uncertainty of the state of the robot and the uncertainty of its environment.

1.3 Problem Statement and its Significance

The current state-of-the-art approaches to an industrial articulated manipulator lack a solution that addresses the the safety of the system in a changing environment. SLAM solutions for articulated manipulator have only addressed the issues of accuracy without tackling the high maintenance cost and safety of a robot manipulator specifically on the production set-up. Furthemore, the performance of these solutions against probabilistic path-planner for robot manipulator has yet been reported. This research intend to aspire flexibility and cost effective robot manipulator system for industrial purposes in SME's using sampling-based planner closely coupled with a SLAM solution.

1.4 Research Philosophy

A compliant robotic arm by leveraging the probabilistic mathematical models for map of an environment, the state estimation of a robot, and the path-planning model in controlling the robot motion sustains safety operation and cost-effective production line for SME's.

1.5 Objectives

1. To design a six-axis manipulator and build it as a prototype of a compliant manipulator.

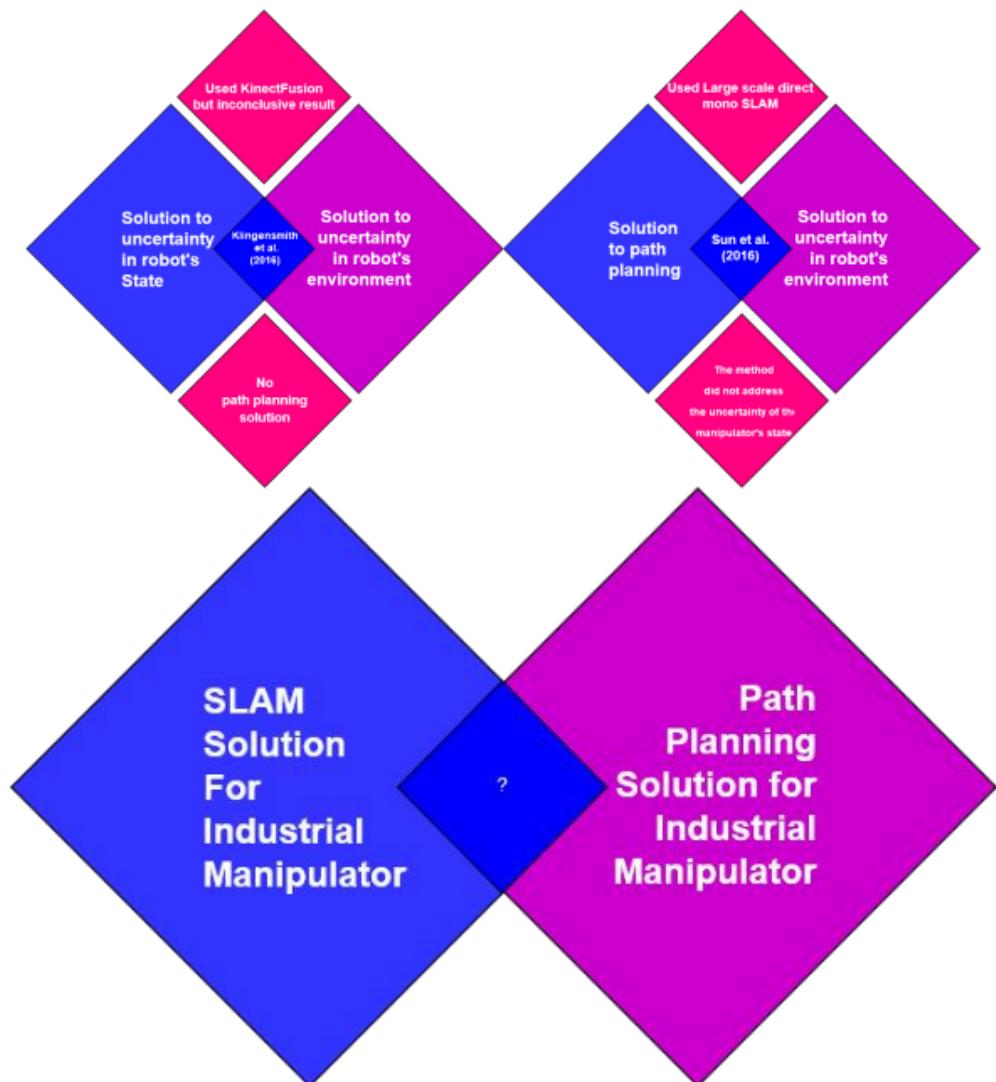


Figure 1.7: The gap (labeled as a question mark "?") of a solution to path-planning for uncertainty in the state of the robot and the uncertainty of the environment of the robot in a single framework hinder a functioning FAS in context of an industrial robot

2. To simulate a moving obstacle avoidance capability using a probabilistic planner.
3. To demonstrate the obstacle avoidance capability on the compliant manipulator hardware with a synthetic moving obstacle augmented from a simulated environment.
4. To show the feasibility of using a SLAM solution as a feedback pipeline in motion planning.

1.6 Research Scope

This research uses a back-drivable (compliant) articulated robot with six axes to implement the framework of a fully probabilistic strategy to path-planning and obstacle avoidance. This research only use an RGB-D sensor.

The dynamic environment is a non-reflective and non-specular workspace. In context of designing the workspace as a dynamic environment, the workspace is not share with another robotic arm. Instead, the workspace will be introduced with a moving obstacle. Figure 1.8 shows the scope and the considerations of this research.

1.7 Methodology

In this research, the model of a robot kinematics, specifically on the task space (the end-effector frame) of the robot, $C_{ee} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \times SO(3)$ where, $\mathbb{R}^3 \times SO(3)$ is homeomorphic to the special Euclidean group, $SE(3)$. Hence, given $\{C_{ee} = c_{ee}\}$, the task space of the robot manipulator is a set in equation 1.2:

$$\left\{ c_{ee} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{R} & \mathbf{t} \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} : \mathbf{R} \in SO(3), \mathbf{t} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \right\} \quad (1.2)$$

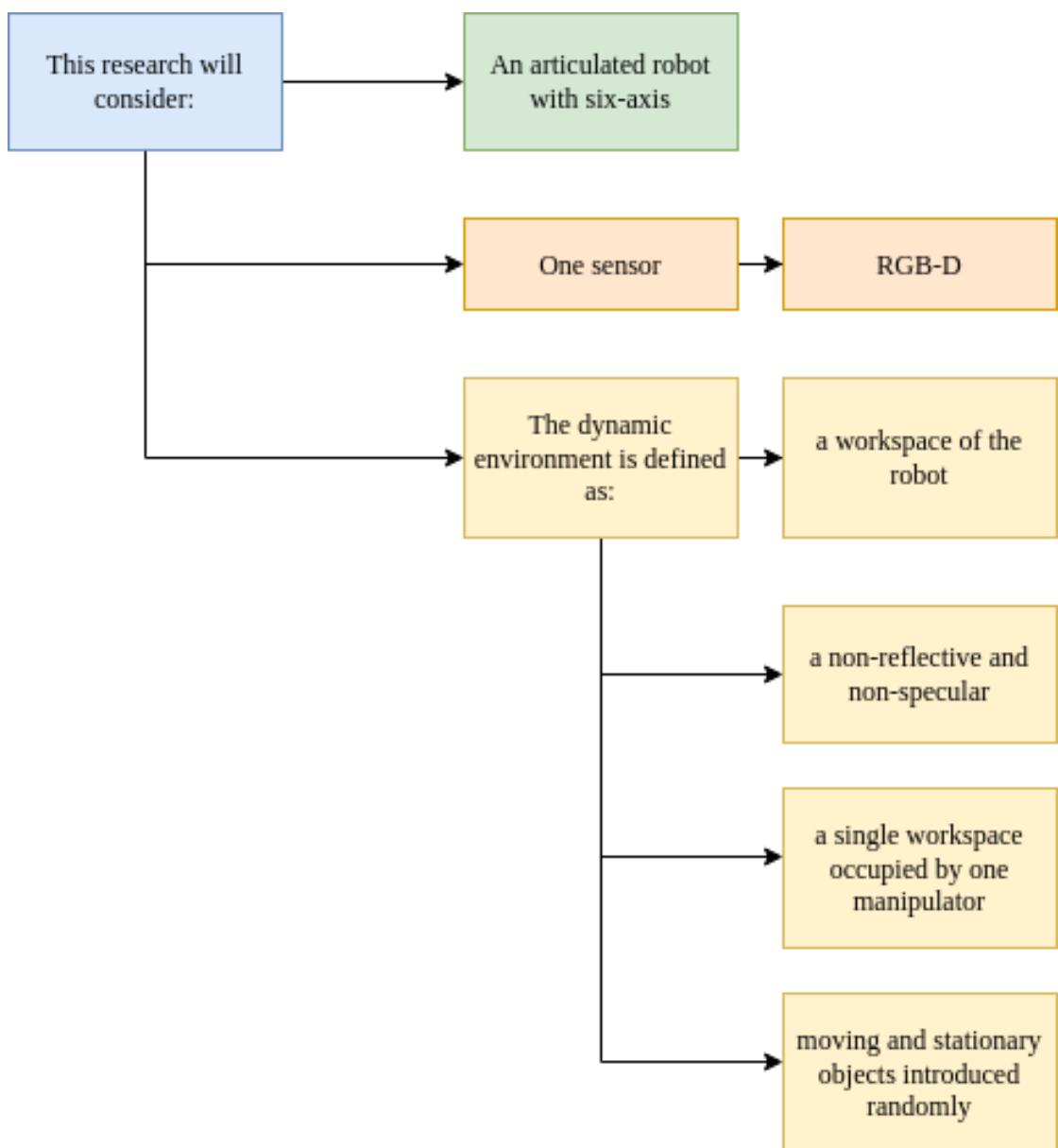


Figure 1.8: The scope of this research and its considerations

Thus, since all SLAM solutions for three-dimensional space provide state estimation in the form of $\mathbb{R}^3 \times SO(3)$, their model in equation 1.1 holds for industrial robot arm. Nonetheless, the complete solution for SLAM does not consider the path-planning model of the robot arm, specifically, the mapping of the configuration space, $C^n \in \mathbb{R}^n$ into the C_{ee} , where n is the number of rigid body in the robotic arm. Hence, I will investigate the tractability of reconciling probabilistic model of a path-planning strategy with Equation 1.1 such that:

$$p(\mu_i, m | \hat{x}_i, z_i, u_i) \quad (1.3)$$

where p is similar to the process of maintaining the map of the workspace and estimating the state of a robot concurrently where, \hat{x}_i , is the state estimation pipeline of a SLAM solution in equation 1.1.

In equation 1.3, the solution incorporates both SLAM algorithm and a probabilistic path-planning model into a single framework instead of considering the SLAM solution and path-planning algorithm separately. I outline my research methodology based on equation 1.3. An overview of the research methodology against the objectives of this research is presented in figure 1.9.

1.8 The Outline of the Thesis

In this chapter, the concept of FAS is translated into formulating a SLAM solution for a robot manipulator. This thesis will elucidate the SLAM-planner coupling and pipelininig in the coming chapters. The reader is usher to a literature review of the state-of-the-art and the leading papers on state estimation, map-building models and path-planning in chapter 2. The readers are then introduced with the mathematical foundation in chapter 3. In chapter 4, the experimentation are delineated and the chapter continues with the discussion on the findings and result. This thesis concludes with chapter 5 with recommendation on future works.

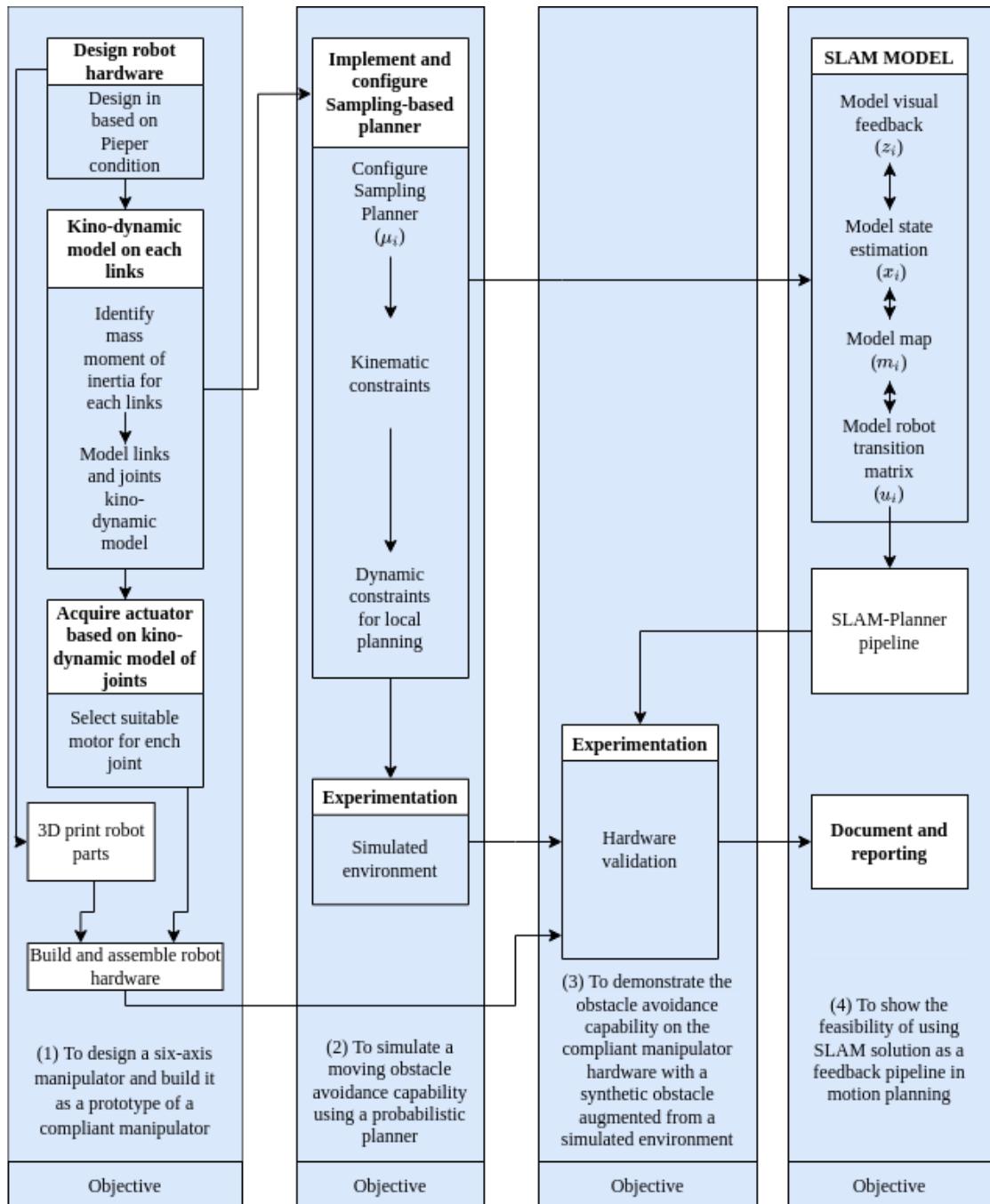


Figure 1.9: Summary of the methodology to achieve the objectives of this research

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the uncertainties in manipulators and the state-of-the-art approach to model and manage the uncertainty are elaborated and discussed. The following sections use the terms *error* and *uncertainty* interchangeably.

In an industrial environment, the uncertainty of an industrial robot is managed by isolating the manipulator into work cells. It lacks predictive behavior and only function in a predefined setup (Miseikis et al. 2017). Such a system is fragile to unpredictable changes such as an accidental introduction to an object in its environment. The robot system often costs more because of constant reprogramming if predefined changes are required. This review explores solutions that enable the manipulator system to react appropriately to changes in the environment while taking account the uncertainty of its internal state. With these solutions robot manipulator can work in a more efficient setting, i.e., involves less reprogramming and capable of working at close proximity with human operator safely.

This research classifies the uncertainty into two categories; uncertainty in the manipulator's state and uncertainty in the manipulator's environment. The uncertainty in a state is often caused by indirect measurements of the manipulator's joint parameters because of the limitation of sensor choice (Jassemi-Zargani and Neculescu 2002; Hebert et al. 2012; Rigatos 2009; Janabi-Sharifi and Marey 2010; Du, Zhang, and Xueqian Wang 2014) and the characteristic of the manipulator's joints and links (Lertpiriyasuwat, Berg, and Buffinton 2000; Ulrich 2011; Lightcap

and Banks 2010; Biber 2003; Sawada, Kondo, and Watanabe 2012) The solutions to estimate a manipulator's state involve filtering techniques. The uncertainty in an environment is often related to a lack of information about the environment's state. The solutions to manage uncertainty in an environment are elaborate and non-trivial.

The following discussion will outline the uncertainty management of a manipulator by using an extended Kalman filter, unscented Kalman filter, and particle filter. The disuession continues with the uncertainty management of the environment using point clouds and occupancy grid map and its variants. The uncertainty management of the state of a robot and its environment are discussed based on the simultaneous localization and mapping solutions (SLAM). SLAM solutions are frameworks for more unified uncertainty management in autonomous robot. However, this research will look into their application on robot manipulator.

2.2 Uncertainty Management Through State Estimation

Filters are estimation tools used to observe the state of a system. For a manipulator robot, the state of the robot's end effector or its end point is usually confirmed by direct measurement of the joint position. If this direct measurement is unavailable, the state of the robot is measured or estimated using observer or filters.

Filtering techniques uses probabilistic model or framework to handle and manage the uncertainty of observing the state of the manipulator robot. It is often based on Baye's rule where a model of the state is conditioned based on incomplete or indirect measurement. Here, the model of the state is often called a prior and the indirect or incomplete measurement is often regard as the update of a filter. If a prior of a filter is defined by another measurement, we consider the application of the filter as a data fusion technique. After conditioning the measurement update,

the state estimation of the robot is ascertained by applying Baye's rule. A filter often involves linearization like the case of an extended Kalman filter. They are also recursive such that the previous estimation is used as the new prior during successive sampling.

In this section, the use of extended Kalman filter, unscented Kalman filter, particle filter and their role at managing uncertainty for data fusion and state estimation are reviewed.

2.2.1 Extended Kalman Filter for Manipulator's State Estimation

Jassemi-Zargani and Necsulescu (2002) used extended Kalman filter to fuse data from high resolution joint resolver. A joint resolver is a control unit that performs calculation of the inverse transformation of a manipulator from data obtained from the end effector. They use the data from two accelerometers to estimate the position of each joints in their manipulator and use these measurements in their extended kalman filter observer to estimate the acceleration of the end effector that has jerking motion. Their use of two sensors in extended Kalman filter is an example of data fusion technique.

Lertpiriyasuwat, Berg, and Buffinton (2000) used extended kalman filter to estimate the position of the end effector of two axis robotic arm together with the joint measurement for highly flexible links in real time. The uncertainty in their system is caused by the flexible links. They use a two-link manipulator. Each joint has optical encoder and the end point has a reflective infrared-light emitter. The deflection of each links is modeled using the deflection beam model. The dynamic equations of the manipulator are derived from Kane's method. They linearized the dynamic equation by eliminating the non-linear terms that involve the generalized elastic coordinates and their derivatives in the inertial matrix and the velocity vector. They coined the linearization method as a 'ruthless linearization'. The

extended kalman filter is used to estimate the position of the end effector using the differential equation solution of the dynamic equation which was solved using Runge-Kutta method. Their result shows that with ruthlessly linearized model, the extended Kalman filter can estimate the position of the end effector consistently during low-speed and high-speed slew maneuvers compared to continuously linearized model of the dynamic model. From this research, linearization of model before the use of extended Kalman filter affects the performance of the filtering technique.

Ulrich (2011) proposed the use of extended Kalman filter to estimate joint positions and velocities for flexible joint positions and velocities for flexible joint space robotic manipulator. The joint flexibility in manipulators for space robots are obvious because they are lightweight which introduce uncertainty in estimating joint position. Thus, they extend the design of extended Kalman filters based on nonlinear joint models for use with an adaptive controller. By using this combination, they increase the accuracy of the closed-loop estimation and control of a flexible joint space robot. I observe that the uncertainty of their joints also comes from the linearization of a nonlinear behavior of the flexible joint of their space robots. Although nonlinear joints can be approximated by representing joint flexibility by a linear spring model, the researchers argue that such assumption is inaccurate. Accordingly, they add nonlinear stiffness, soft-windup, frictional loses, inertial cross-coupling to their joint model. They presented a converging error for a non-linear based extended Kalman filter technique used with linear and nonlinear joint model. However, the error diverges for linear based extended Kalman filter techniques with the same model coupling.

Lightcap and Banks (2010) attempted to estimate the position of rigid links and flexible joint (RLFJ) manipulator using discrete-time extended Kalman filter as an observer for the robot model and control system. Because of the flexible joints, direct measurement from the encoders cannot represent the position of the joint directly making the position of the robot's end effector nonlinear. The authors

use extended Kalman filter to estimate the pose of the end effector and manage the uncertainty of the flexible joint through linearization. The uncertainties of the link and the motors' dynamics are modeled into the manipulator's dynamic equations. The authors stress that extended Kalman filter has non-optimal estimation as is the case of any algorithm that requires linearization. They performed a simulation and reiterate their models and algorithm on a Mitsubishi PA10-6CE manipulator experimentally. They observed improved tracking performance for highly flexible joints (joints under high torque) and low tracking performance for rigid joints. Thus, the authors introduce a mixed rigid-joint/flexible joint model to the EKF-RLFL controller which improved the overall tracking performance.

During visual servoing of a manipulator, the pose of the end effector is determined from an intial estimate of its position. Janabi-Sharifi and Marey (2010) demonstrate an adaptive iterative extended Kalman filter (AIEKF) in the absence of accurate initial pose, noise matrix, and covariance matrix at variant sampling rate during robotic visual servoing. Visual servoing is a process of estimating the configuration of a manipulator using images or visual feedbacks. They experimented on a six degree of freedom cartesian manipulator, AFMA-6, with eye-in-hand camera configuration. The robot moves at a predefined trajectory under different condition. Each separate experimentation involves increasing the velocity of the end effector, changing the covariance matrices, changing the sampling time for estimation, and changing the initial positions of the end effector. They compared three other Kalman filtering techniques (extended Kalman filter, adaptive extended Kalman filter, and iterative extended Kalman filter) with the IAEKF. They conclude that IAEKF can improve pose estimation during uncertain initial position, uncertain covariance matrix estimation, high motion and slow sampling rate.

2.2.2 Unscented Kalman Filter for Manipulator's State Estimation

Haghhighipanah, Y. Li, et al. (2015) address nonlinearity problem of an elastic cable as power transmission between a motor and a joint for a surgical arm. The coupling between the motor and the robot joint reduce armature mass, inertia and size for expert surgery but the cable elasticity introduces uncertainty and nonlinearity to the kinematics and the dynamics of the surgical arm. They introduce an estimation method that uses a standard unscented Kalman filter (UKF) and a square root Kalman filter (srUKF) to estimate cable coupling parameter and the position of the end effector (end point) in real-time. The authors implement their method using the Raven-II, a seven degree of freedom serial manipulator, as their surgical arm. The surgical arm is equipped with an optical encoder attached to the motors and position sensor on each joint for data validation. In their research, the authors only address the first three joint for state estimation of the Raven-II. They model the armature dynamics using forward and inverse dynamics with Newton-Euler equations. Their inverse dynamic solution is based on the recursive Newton-Euler algorithm. The Newton-Euler equations requires model parameters. The authors identify the initial inertial matrices, mass and the center of mass of the system using a computer aided design model and use srUKF to estimate the joint angle and joint position of the surgical arm online. Also, the authors apply the standard UKF to estimate the coupling parameter offline. They compute spring constant, damping constant, coulomb and viscous friction of the motor side and the joint side empirically. They validate their method experimentally using three different design. The first two experiments involve changing the cable tension and the third experiment involve picking an object of the mass 100 g under high cable tension. They compared the result of the three experiment between the dynamic model that uses their UKF estimation and the dynamic model that has no filtering technique. They improved the accuracy of the joints position to 1.4333 respectively. The

authors also observe that whe the flexible joint are model as a rigid body, the performance of their unscented Kalman filter deteriorate. They repeat the same problem mix rigid-flexible cable model and replace the encoder with stereo camera (Haghighipanah, Miyasaka, et al. 2016). They improve the accuracy of the joint position to 43.142, 3 respectively.

2.2.3 Particle Filter for Manipulator's State Estimation

Biber (2003) present the design of two filtering techniques to estimate the acceleration and the jerk of five-bar linkage manipulator with flexible joints. These estimations help in designing a better control. Unlike a rigid joint, the flexible joints are time variant hence highly nonlinear. The nonlinearity introduce uncertainty to the dynamics of the manipulator making prediction of higher order dynamics such as accelerations and jerks uncertain. This is because a nonlinear system has no closed form solution and require linearization. The authors suggest the use of Euler-Langrange equations to represent the model of the manipulator dynamics given that each joint are model by torsional spring. To better estimate the acceleration and jerk of each link in the four-bar linkage, the linearization is manage using extended and unscented Kalman filters. The author validated their observer model by simulation and conclude that the accelaration and jerk of the manipulator's linkages are successfully estimated.

Rigatos (2009) uses particle filter to fuse data from an IMU and joint encoders to estimating pose of the end effector. The purpose of this paper is to estimate the state vector of a three degree of freedom industrial robot using acelerometer and an encoder for each joint. The estimated state vector is used to generate appropriate control signal for the manipulators. Accelerometer are notorious for being nonlinear. The authors use particle filter to perform data fusion between an accelerometer and an encoder to estimate the pose of the end effector. Readers should note that both accelerometers and encoders has non-gaussian

behavior. This behavior is stronger for flexible joints because they introduce non-linearity to the state (position of the end effector) of the manipulator. Particle filter is used simply because it is nonparametric. This mean that the parameter of a normal distribution are not assumed. Instead, particle filter performs the estimation based on the sampled data and generate the distribution from these samples. The method of sampling provide a general solution that has no presumption of sensor characteristics. This also means that with particle filter, more accessible sensors such as an accelerometer or an IMU can be used without scaling down accuracy. The state vector estimation was compared with extended kalman filtering technique. The authors observe higher accuracy in estimation of the state vector for the particle filtering technique compared to the extended Kalman filter technique. However, the author caution that the selection of particles numbers may improve accuracy with the expense of computational load.

2.2.4 Miscellaneous Estimation Problem in Manipulator Robot

Du, Zhang, and Xueqian Wang (2014) use particle filter to estimate pose for a visual servoing application. The motivation behind this paper is to introduce contactless and markerless control of a manipulator using computer vision. The researcher uses 3D camera (Kinect sensor) to translate a human arm motion into a motion of a manipulator and Camshift program library to track hand position. The particle filter is used to estimate the hand position and orientation. The particle filter handles the noise error from the Kinect sensor and the accumulated error introduced from the Camshift method of tracking. The robot inverse kinematics are solved numerically using Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm (LM algorithm).

Du and Zhang (2014) use extended Kalman filter to handle kinematic errors in manipulators. Kinematic errors occur because of imperfection in serial robot components, their wear, misalignment and other factors. The extended Kalman filter allows auto-calibration without strenuous technique and expensive sensors

when the kinematic errors are considered. In their method, the IMU and the position sensors are attached at the end point of the six degree of freedom GOOGOL GRB3016 robot. The authors also explain data fusion algorithm for their IMU attached at the end point of their serial robot where a particle filter is used to estimate the orientation of the end point of the serial robot and a Kalman filter is used to estimate the position of the end point of the serial robot. A Kalman filter is the base of both extended and unscented Kalman filter which can only perform well for linear system. The extended Kalman filter is used to optimize the position and orientation estimation of the end point of the robot. By using the Jacobian matrices, the authors estimate the kinematic errors of the serial robot to manage the uncertainty of using IMU measurements. Du, Zhang, and Xue-qian Wang (2014) compare their extended Kalman filter approach to a linear least square technique for their estimation of each joints in the robot. The extended Kalman filter has lower error for all six joint parameters estimation. The author acclimate that their method of using IMU and position sensor, via position markers, reduce the complex steps of auto-calibrating a manipulator, increase better accuracy, convenience, and effectiveness.

Hebert et al. (2012) present data fusion algorithm using unscented kalman filter to estimate the manipulator tool and the manipulated object simultaneously. The fusion algorithm is used to manage the uncertainty of the end effector location as a result of uncertain actuation because of unknown weight of the manipulated object. Also, the authors use Barret WAM manipulator that introduces further uncertainty in actuation as a result of tendon actuation similar to flexible cable actuation. These uncertainties prompt the use of two type of sensors as feedbacks, visual and tactile sensing. They use unscented Kalman filter to fuse image features that covers dense range, visual appearance, silhouette of manipulator arm, multi-fingered hand and grasped object. To fuse these measurement, the authors model three measurements: (1) the measurement model for manipulator's hand tracking by using appearance, shape and silhouette, (2) the object tracking measurement

using point cloud association like iterative closest points, and (3) the tactile measurement model to represent a binary state of contact between the fingers of the manipulator and the manipulated object. They use DARPA ARM-S with Barret WAM manipulator to validate their methods experimentally. The experiment involves the tasks of grasping a hand-driller and drilling a red hole on a wooden block with the grasped drill. The authors report an average of 9.3mm drilling deviation when the sensor measurements are incorporated into the tasks and an average of 47.5mm drilling deviation without the aid of any sensor.

Hu and Xiong (2017) use a new approach, a disturbance Kalman filter, to estimate the force acting on the end effector for a compliant human-robot motion. In their approach, Hu and Xiong (2017) modified the Kalman filtering technique by using rigid body dynamic model and its disturbances as the update stage. The authors use inverse dynamic model (IDM) as a prior to the force. The approach also models the sensor using rigid body dynamic. The only feedback data used as update state of their novel disturbance Kalman Filter are the joint positions and the torque measurement from the sensor. The Disturbance Kalman filter takes into account the uncertainty from the disturbance dynamics. The authors successfully implement the disturbance Kalman filter for the force estimation on a six degree of freedom Kinova Jaco2 arm robot.

Sawada, Kondo, and Watanabe (2012) present a technique of collision avoidance using unscented Kalman filter for a two-link flexible manipulators. The researchers use sliding mode controller to control the motion of the manipulator. They also investigate the use of extended Kalman filter to manage the uncertainty introduced by the flexible beams of the manipulator which affects the motion trajectory of the manipulator's end effector. They introduce a collision input into the observation model of the UKF. The collision is detected by a piezoelectric sensor attach at the base of the links. An abnormal reading from the piezoelectric sensors would trigger the collision input and change the parameters of the UKF to suspend control of the manipulator. This approach, regrettably, expects colli-

sion rather than avoiding it. However, this is inevitable considering piezoelectric sensors require contact to detect changes. They confirmed that, through two numerical simulation, the algorithm for their collision detection via UKF successfully increase efficiency.

2.3 Map-Building Approach to Uncertainty Management

A robot in an industrial environment is isolated. The robot is barricaded because of its massive built which impose danger to human operator. But I argue that with flexible workcell where a robot where a robot manipulator in the industry can manage the uncertainty of its environment through map-learning or map-building, this robot system can potentially reduce cost of operation.

I discover that there are two methods to mapping an unknown environment of a manipulator. The first method is by using point clouds Um and Ryu (2013) and Xinyu Wang et al. (2017). and the other by using occupancy grid map together with its variants such as octomap. I must mention that most of the researches on manipulator's mapping are not in immediate industrial setting. Yet, I am confident that these solutions can be used in industrial robot.

2.3.1 Point Clouds Mapping

Mapping with point clouds use direct data from sensor to model the environment. Often these metrical data are translated and combined from multiple scans by using iterative closest point to construct the global representation of the environment.

Um and Ryu (2013) uses point clouds to map the environment. The paper presents a simultaneous planning and mapping for a three degree of freedom manipulator in an unknown environment. The paper argue that their method handles the uncertainty of the unknown environment by using virtual skin concept. The

manipulator explores the environment using a mono-vision infrared proximity array (IPA) sensor which replicate the characteristic of a tactile-sensitive skin. From this exploration, the robot would model its configuration space (c-space) and use it as the input for their best-next-move algorithm to optimize path planning. The IPA sensors are attached on each links of the manipulator. Readers should note that an IPA sensor has limited range and noise bound output which add more uncertainty to the estimation of the manipulators c-space. The researchers address the noise in the sensor using group average feature (GAF). The point clouds generate from the IPA go through GAF algorithm to produce a more confident map of the c-space. The generated map of the c-space is used to provide motion planning for the robot manipulator. The rapidly-exploring random tree (RRT) path planning algorithm use the map as an input to plan the motion of the manipulator. The authors optimized the RRT algorithm with their best next move (BNM) algorithm. BNM is reactive and does not use any inverse kinematic solution. They validate the method using and compare the RRT-BNM method with RRT method by simulation and showed that the RRT-BNM method has higher mapping efficiency. They defined mapping efficiency as percentage of map built compared to the actual map, over the number of point clouds in the c-space. Due to the GAF decompression method, the RTT-BNM produce map with less point clouds. The author, however, did not repeat the RRT experimentally. Despite the higher efficiency of RTT-BNM path planning, the map produce does not represent an accurate geometric information of the unknown environment explored by the manipulator. I believe this is because there is a lack of pose estimation of the manipulators link since the research disregard the use of inverse kinematics, bayesian or non-bayesian filtering techniques to reconcile with the path planning.

Xinyu Wang et al. (2017) present a method using point clouds to perform self-identification using k-means clustering method and obstacle detection and obstacle avoidance. The point cloud is used to generate the skeleton and the sphere along the skeleton. The point clouds are sparse and noisy which introduce un-

certainty to the self-identification. However, the uncertainty is eliminated using a filter based on the density of the point cloud. The detection of the obstacles is based on the negation of point clouds that are not a part of the skeleton and the sphere that shape the manipulator. This segmentation is the base of their approach to obstacle avoidance. They tested their algorithm by performing three experiments sequentially using a Baxter manipulator robot with eye-in-hand configuration. These experiments involve the validation of their self-identification algorithm, obstacle detection algorithm, and obstacle avoidance algorithm.

2.3.2 Occupancy Grid Map: The Map of Uncertain Environment

Direct use of point clouds to map an environment is inefficient and requires a considerable amount of computational expense. This is not the case of an occupancy grid cell where the point clouds are used to statistically parameterized the grid cell of the map. A grid cell or a voxel is a cubic primitive that represent the environment's geometrical characteristic. Occupancy grid map consider the uncertainty of mapping sensor such as a sonar, a camera, or a laser range finder to represent the environment probabilistically (Moravec 1989). An example of the use of occupancy grid map is by Matuszek et al. (2011) that uses occupancy grid map in presenting an environment of a chess playing robot manipulator. The construction of occupancy grid map often requires data fusion or sensor fusion where two or more sensors are fused together using Bayesian rules or any filtering techniques. Rybski et al. (2012) use a variant occupancy grid map and handle uncertainty of the environment by fusing measurements from a Swissranger SR4000's ranger and two Tyxz G3 EVS stereo cameras to estimate the occupancy of a grid cell.

I, accordingly, define this problem under the uncertainty managing the unpredictable environment unlike Janabi-Sharifi and Marey (2010) which uses the state of the robot's joint position as the visual feedback of their visual servoing).

Kalman filtering technique is used to help track an object on a flat surface. The use of extended Kalman filter aside from the trajectory control of the end point of the robot increase certainty of the pose estimation and the accuracy of the tracking. A camera is mounted on the end point of CRS Plus SRS-M1A robot system. The robot is presented with a task to follow the object using the eye-in-hand camera. The visual feedback from the camera is used with their control strategy. The extended Kalman filter is used to predict the relative position of the object while it is moving. Since the researcher maintain a constant velocity to the object, the tracking can use a Kalman filtering technique without linearization. However, since the tracking of the object requires the movement of the camera, given the nonlinearity of an inverse kinematic solution of their robot system, the use of extended Kalman filter is justified. The filter maintains the estimation of the end effector's pose. Although the robot manages to follow the moving object in their experimentation, the authors did not compare and reiterate their experimentation with other estimation method.

Burns and Brock (2007) present a method of sample-based motion planning on top of an occupancy grid map. The sampling-based planner take regard the uncertainty of sensor measurements and incorporate the uncertainty into the occupancy grid map. Their method is iterative; the planner considers and incomplete information about the world and constantly update changes in their map model and configuration space. The authors use the concept of utility and cost to weight the probability of an edge. A* algorithm is used to search the most optimal path from randomly sampled node in the configuration space. During edge validation of the roadmap is withheld before the A* algorithm complete its query. They validate their planner by simulating three separate experiments, two of which, involve manipulators with ten degrees of freedom and fourteen degrees of freedom respectively. The planner is specified to solve 50 planning queries given a start and a goal configurations. They report that building a planner on top of a occupancy grid map increase the accuracy of completing the path from the start

configuration to the goal configuration. They conclude that, compared to PRM, their method able to eliminate the possibility of invalid edges in their roadmap because they introduce error model of the sensor at hand.

Kruse, Gutsche, and Wahl (1996) present a method for exploring an unknown environment using either a mobile robot or a manipulator robot. Their method uses a planning-sensing-updating cycle. This research uses an occupancy grid map to represent the unknown environment. Their rating approach is similar to Burns and Brock (2007) utility and cost concept. However, they relate their rating function with the manipulator’s configuration space by introducing constraint for fast exploration.

Paul et al. (2011) present a path planning strategy to perform autonomous grit-blasting as a part of bridge maintenance process. They develop a framework called Autonomous eXploration to BUild a Map (AXBAM). AXBAM define the uncertainty in an unknown environment as the measurement of information that has not been discovered in the environment by using Shanon’s entropy definition of information theory. This is an appropriate concept to use in modeling an unknown environment since the theory help in optimizing the exploration and path planning of a manipulator. The authors use Occupancy Grid map concept to handle uncertainty for path planning in the unknown environment based on the entropy definition. The authors implement ellipsoid force-field planner to plan collision free roadmap. Another problem addressed by the authors states that there are possibilities for multiple goal configuration and use their entropy model to arrive to a single goal configuration with the highest information gain prediction. Despite the use of occupancy map in managing the control of their manipulator under uncertain environment, the mapping model in this paper uses direct pointclouds for detailed geometric representation of the unknown environment. However, the author fails to show any optimization technique when registering local scans into a global scan. We believe without this optimization, if the pose of the end effector is uncertain, their map may have diverging misalignment. The authors use Hokuyo

Laser Range Finder (Hokuyo URG-04LX) as a scanning sensor attached on a six degrees of freedom Denso VM-6093 manipulator arm with eye-in-hand configuration. The 5th joint rotates to facilitate the initial scanning of the environment before exploration commence. Based on this initial scan, the robot will start exploring. By using AXBAM, the authors claim to reduce computation in decision making during exploration.

2.3.3 Octomap: The definitive Uncertainty Management Dynamic Environment

A number of researchers represent the environment using an Octree model to facilitate path planning strategy;(Faverjon 1984; Hamada and Hori 1996). Similar to Occupancy grid map, octree represent the environment with discrete cell that divides into smaller details. Payeur et al. (1997) use octree based representation of occupancy grid map to reduce computational load so that the grid map can be used efficiently to represent 3D scenes.

Hornung et al. (2013) improves the use of octree probabilistically by introducing relaxed logit function for uncertainty management in mobile robots.Octomap represents the uncertainty in the environment and the sensor that maps the environment. Although Octomap has been exhaustively used in mobile platform, researchers have introduce its use in robot manipulators. By using Statistical Outlier Removal algorithm, Miseikis et al. (2017) use Point clouds from cameras to construct and environment based on octomap. They proceed by merging point cloud data from two 3D cameras (Kinect Sensor) using iterative closest point. Iterative closest point (ICP) is often used in mobile robot to combine two scans collected at different position together. They use forward kinematic to assist in replacing point clouds corresponding to the robot's chassis with cylindrical shapes. The map of the environment is modeled using octomap and embedded with a decaying occupancy value. The decaying cost value are used to represent danger

zone, a intermediary zone, and a non-danger zone in the map for a reflexive and predictive behaviors. Building their path planning on top of these map provides a responsive motion even if the robot workspace is populated by moving objects. The authors use 6DOF UR5 robot with eye-to-hand configuration. They validate their method by simulating a predefined back and forth motion between a start configuration and a goal configuration. The first simulation act as the baseline or the benchmark of their path planning approach using only Rapidly-exploring Random Trees (RRT). The second and the third experiments introduce a moving object into the robot’s workspace. Experiment 2 and experiment 3 use the reactive path planning and the reflexive-predictive path planning approaches respectively. They conclude that although experiment 3 performs at the shortest time, the result was not significant.

2.3.4 Miscellaneous Mapping Techniques

In this section, I present papers that has unconventional way to manage the uncertainty oftheir environment. Cohen, Chitta, and Likhachev (2010) and Meeussen et al. (2007) use graph theory to their mapping technique, while Petrovskaya et al. (2006) and Koval et al. (2013) interact directly with the environment using force sensor to localize object in the robot’s configuration space. Corrales, Candelas, and Torres (2008) track a human operator in its environment. Ruhr et al. (2012) introduce the element of learning to help manipulate dynamic object in the environment. Cohen, Chitta, and Likhachev (2010) present a search-based planning as an oppose to sampling-based motion planning. They use examples of motion planning in lower dimensionality problem or problems in low-dimensional manifold as a heuristic for motion planning in higher dimensional manifold. From this heuristic, they define motion primitives, a predefined motion of a single joint, and used them to minimize the cost function so that the most optimal path can be realized. This method eliminated the multiple solution to start-to-goal configuration by selecting

the most feasible path that avoids collision which may not have the shortest path. Their searching-based planner follows anytime repairing A* (ARA*) search algorithm. ARA* is different from A* algorithm because A* always aims at getting into a goal configuration at the shortest traversal. ARA* consider a factor of the most optimal path initially which can be rectified at further path sampling. They use occupancy grid map to decrease the intractability of their algorithm so that the ARA* motion planner produces the most optimum solution in path planning. They manage the uncertainty of multiple path solution by eliminating it using cost function as constraint to their path planning algorithm. They validate their approach by simulating manipulation in a cluttered tabletop and conclude that their approach are only optimal for three degree of freedom pose (translational) rather than a full six degree of freedom pose (translational in x,y, and z directions together with orientation about the x, y and z lines) They also perform the same experimentation on a PR2 robot with seven degree of freedom manipulator.

Meeussen et al. (2007) present an approach to generate a path planning by human demonstration for a sensor based manipulator. A tool containing optical markers are tracked during demonstration phase using a 3D vision sensor (a Krypton 6D Optical System). The tool is attached to a geometrically uncertain object in a controlled environment. The use of 3D vision sensor, and the estimation of the state of the tool and indirect estimation of force asserted by the tool based on the state of the tool introduce uncertainty. To compromise the uncertainty, the authors use particle filtering technique to estimate the pose and twist of the manipulated object via tracking of the manipulating tool the force between the contacting object. The researcher addresses their previous work on the same problem and optimize the particle filter with topological graph called contact-state graph to predict the next best configuration of the object being moved or contact formation. They observed that the contact-state graph reduces the number of particles used during sampling which decrease computational load and increase accuracy in their estimation. The paper however did not replicate their simulation

in an experimentation with an actual manipulator

Petrovskaya et al. (2006) use particle filter to estimate the position of their end effector and at the same time ascertain the position of an object by using tactile sensor. The sensing by touching follows a heuristic where a person increases its confident of the shape and the position of an object by feeling it with his or her hand at different location. From this heuristic, the authors express their algorithm with the help of particle filtering technique. Particle filter depends on sampling approach where the prior or a believe is increased by each successive sampling. They modified the particle filtering technique to assist a highly sparse sparse measurement from tactile sensor and called their technique as scaling series particle filters. In SSPF, the initial filtering steps has the lowest resolution of accuracy and the highest uncertainty. Based on the initial sampling, the following sampling increase increase the certainty of the position of an object by sampling at a different position. The authors tested their algorithm by simulation and experimentation. In the experimentation, SSPF manage to help a manipulator localize and grasp a box at 70% success rate, and identify and handle a door knob at 98% success rate.

Koval et al. (2013) present a situation where constant contact and manipulation of an object, by pushing the object, can be used to estimate the state of the object; i. e. the position and the orientation of the object. They term the process as contact manipulation. They argue that with the absence of more conventional observation from sensors such as a laser range finder and a vision camera, tactile based sensor can perform state estimation using appropriate filtering technique. Since tactile sensor has non-gaussian characteristic and highly nonlinear, the authors used particle filter as their estimator. The use of tactile sensor, however, introduce uncertainty because the sensor has low spatial resolution or low manifold. This is regarded as a low-dimensional manifold problem where the state estimation has higher dimensionality (two for position on a plane and one for orientation). Although intuitively increasing the resolution of the tactile sensor may

decrease the spatial uncertainty, it is not the case for tactile sensing with particle filtering technique. Thus, the authors introduce manifold particle filter (MPF). An MPF reduce the dimensionality of the state estimation by marginalizing the probability distribution of the state of the object based on the observation from the tactile sensing and use it as a prior estimate. To implement the MPF, the state estimation follows three steps:

- (a) assumption of the state of the object by evenly weighting particles
- (b) action which involve pushing the object
- (c) observation where the MPF use the pressure profile during pushing to estimate the state of the object.

They implement the algorithm using OpenRAVE simulation environment and evaluate it with a simulated BarrettHand. They then run an experiment using Andy, a robot module developed for Darpa ARM-S competition. They compared their result with a conventional particle filter (CPF) and imporved estimation of the object state.

Corrales, Candelas, and Torres (2008) uses kalman filter fusion algorithm to fuse ultra-wideband (UWB) technology and inertial motion capture system to estimate the motion of human operator in industrial environment. The algorithm improves the interaction between a robot and a human operator/user by localizing a human in a manipulator's workspace so that a cooperative interaction can be made. Since the authors use UWB sensor to estimate the location of the human, they use Kalman filtering technique to fuse the information coming from the UWB and the inertial sensors. The filtering technique compensate the low data rate of the UWB and the high error from inertial sensor. Their Kalman filter uses the global position of the UWB as the correction step and the inertial sensor as the prediction step. Their result shows that by fusing two measurements using kalman filter algorithm, the state estimation of the person's location is increased in accuracy.

Ruhr et al. (2012) This paper present solution to manipulation task which involve opening and closing doors and drawers in any kitchen environment. Their approach involves the management of uncertainty of door handling through learning. Within their learning model framework, the authors use 3D point clouds directly to identify door or cabinet handles. They use RANSAC with the point clouds to segments the point clouds to help detect the handles based on identification of planes that parameterized a wall, ceiling, floor, and cabinets. They also implement real-time impedance control and kinematic model learning to estimate the kinematics of dynamic objects in the kitchen. They use a higher level of abstraction in representing the environment via semantic maps. They evaluated their approach using PR2 mobile articulated robot which has 7DOF manipulator. They report out of 104 trials of opening and closing cabinets and doors, the rate of success is 51.9%.

2.4 Simultaneous Localization and Map-Building as a Total Solution to Uncertainty in a Manipulator’s State and Environment

I have discussed the uncertainty of a manipulators can be represented and managed using filters. I have also discerned the use of occupancy grid map, point clouds, and octomap to model the environment of a manipulator. Despite rich solution option to uncertainty of a robot state and its environment, the solutions are disjoint and performed separately.

The closest solution for SLAM problem in a manipulator robot is reported by Klingensmith, Sirinivasa, and Kaess (2016). The authors argue that encoders on each joints of a manipulator is not enough to estimate the endpoint of a manipulator due to gear trash, cable stretch non-rigid deformation and others. Their articulated robot motion for simultaneous localization and mapping (ARM-SLAM)

uses Truncated signed distance field (TSDF) as part of the scene reconstruction to help estimate the pose of the end effector. TSDF is a variant of Dense Fusion that performs 3D scene reconstruction using multiple depth images and camera poses. With TSDF, each voxel is encoded with a distance to the nearest surface. The voxels are weighted where positive weight means the voxel is outside the surface, negative weight means the voxel is inside the surface and zero distance is when the voxel is on the surface. Their ARM-SLAM adopt eye-in-hand configuration. They conducted three experiments to validate their SLAM solution. In the two-dimensional simulation, they compare pose error between forward kinematics, Dense Fusion algorithm and ARM-SLAM algorithm. The result shows significant error reduction for both of the two algorithms compared to the forward kinematics calculation. ARM-SLAM, however, has the lowest errors. In their 3D simulation experiment, the authors compare results for forward kinematics calculation with kinect fusion and ARM-SLAM. They observed that ARM-SLAM is more robust when loss of data occurs. They also conducted a real shelf scanning. In this experiment, the authors could not conclusively see better pose estimation compared to the forward kinematics calculation. However, they restate that during loss of data, the ARM-SLAM solution produces robust estimation.

Based on Klingensmith, Sirinivasa, and Kaess (2016), I conclude a Simultaneous localization and map- building approach (SLAM) represent the total uncertainty of a manipulator in an environment. I characterize the SLAM problem as the methodology that involve the consideration of robot's state uncertainty, its environment uncertainty, and a tractable solution that uses both the former and the latter. In a manipulator, a SLAM problem can be considered as a model that has tractable solution given the uncertainty of its end effector's pose and the uncertainty of its configuration space. We define that the SLAM solution to a manipulator should have an element of map-learning where statistical and probabilistic approach is considered when estimating the pose of an end effector.

Sun, Chen, and Lau (2016) use large scale direct mono-SLAM (LSD-SLAM)

technique to replicate the motion of a human operator. The technique resolves the noise from their measurements using dbSCAN, a density-based spatial clustering algorithm, to eliminate outlier. LSD-SLAM uses a visual camera to produce point clouds with the help of dbSCAN algorithm. The scenes generated from the camera are three dimensional. However, the movement of the manipulator is planar. The LSD-SLAM is used to replicate the movement of a human arm. The movements are learned and modeled using Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM) and the parameters of the model are estimated using Gaussian Mixture Regression (GMR). GMM is a probabilistic model that assumes all the data points are generated from a mixture of finite number of Gaussian distribution with unknown parameters. GMR uses Expectation maximization iterative learning algorithm to help replicate an output data based on an input. I observe that, by using GMM and GMR, the authors manage to handle the movement uncertainty of the human operator and map the movement into a planar actuation of the manipulator. The authors perform an experiment by recording the movement of the human operator. The LSD-SLAM manages to generate a smooth path for the end effector of the manipulator as prescribed by the GMM and GMR based on the demonstration of the operator.

Nissler et al. (2016) solution to AprilTag tracking is similar to SLAM solution method where AprilTag is used as a feature observed by the measurement to optimize the pose estimation of the end effector and at the same time using the pose estimation to track the AprilTag on a work space. Nissler et al. (2016) demonstrate the use of fully autonomous handling of CFRP material. The authors use RANSAC solution to fuse multiple scene from sensors, an eye-in-hand camera, that may contain outliers. The authors use KUKA KR 210 with a AVT GigE camera attached to the end point. The robot follows three different motions; a horizontal arc, a vertical arc, and an approach motion. A laser tracker is used to calibrate the position of the robot and the markers. A single AprilTag marker was tracked during the motion. The motions were repeated while tracking multiple AprilTag markers. RANSAC method was compared with a least square method.

They observed that RANSAC method that they developed for the AprilTag tracking improves the estimation of the end effectors pose.

I also noted that SLAM solution is used for mobile manipulators. Song et al. (2013). This paper present two problems and two solutions. One is on self-localization, a SLAM problem which they solved using EKF-SLAM and the other is on grasping problem. I will only regard the grasping problem since it directly involves manipulation under uncertainty. They use Speed Up Robust Feature (SURF) for object identification and visual servoing using Position-based Visual Servoing (PBVS) to grasp an object and return the object to a person. During object identification, the authors raised the concern of matching error during identification which may result in misleading object recognition. They mitigate the problem using random sample consensus algorithm (RANSAC) to reject outliers and to find the homography matrix. Homography matrix transforms points in one image to the corresponding points in another image when a camera changes in position. The result of their investigation suggests a successful object retrieval to a person. They did not, however, present any comparison of their result with other approach for the Grasping problem.

From these papers, I observe that the having to mount a manipulator to a mobile platform introduce localization uncertainty where there is uncertainty on the base location of the manipulator arm, hence propagating the uncertainty to the path planning of the manipulator.

Pilania and Gupta (2015) propose a method of base uncertainty by using their novel hierarchical and adaptive mobile manipulator planner uncertainty called HAMP-U to account for the uncertainty of the base of a mobile robot

I also observe manipulator attached to a mobile platform often regard their grasping solution using two different approach; i.e. a probabilisitic approach for the mobile platform localization and a deterministic approach at the manipulation stage of the robot movement such as grasping (Venator, Lee, and Newman 2013; Gasparri et al. 2006). I also note that the total uncertainty solution presented by

SLAM does not extend to path planning approach.

2.5 The Planning for 6R Robots in Dynamic Environment

This section delves into a small number of research papers into motion planning in a dynamic environment for robot manipulators in three dimensional space, \mathbb{R}^3 . We pay close attention to algorithms derived from sampling-based planner which use stochastic approach to query the configuration space. The planning algorithms for robot motion in a dynamics environment dated back to 1985, albeit mainly applied on mobile robot (Mohanan and Salgoankar 2018).

Some planning algorithms that is non-probabilistic for robotic arm are also observed which are based on representation space (Su and Xie 2011; Liu et al. 2016), sequential expanded Langrangian homotopy (Dharmawan, Foong, and Soh 2018), and real-time adaptive motion planning (RAMP) (Vannoy and Xiao 2008). These works provide a new method of planning and tackle the problem at the local planning and at lower level of control to solve problems with the aid of a simulated environment. Their simulated environment, or a map model of the environment, includes dynamic objects that are then filtered and disregarded in the map registration pipeline. Their experimentation approach will be adopted in this research where, the map is informed with the presence of obstacles that are moving in the workspace without having another sub-module of the system tracking the object via motion tracking.

2.5.1 The Probabilistic Motion Planning

Kavraki et al. (1996) is the first group of researchers that used probability model for sampling the configuration space for holonomic robot motion such as a manipulator robot. The planner are called the probabilistic roadmap (PRM) motion planning.

The algorithm construct a graph structure to find path between an initial pose to a goal pose in two-dimensional configuration space, $n = 2$. Kavraki et al. (1996) also proof a more general solution for higher dimensional configuration space, $n > 2$. With graph structure, more than one path connect the initial pose to the goal pose. Therefore, PRM is a multi-query type planner.

Kunz et al. (2010) improve PRM by redefining the distance metric of a robot manipulator so that the robot can move around a moving obstacle in real-time. Their approach performs well in an uncluttered environment. Kunz et al. (2010) also redefined the distance function of the PRM to address dynamic objects, such as a walking person, into a two-dimensional map. Although the configuration space of the manipulator is in \mathbb{R}^3 , the map , constructed from a two-dimensional LiDAR scan, is in \mathbb{R}^2 .

In retrospect, the RRT was formulated for non-holonomic motion (LaValle 1998) targeting problems addressed in diffential-constrained motion such as a car on a plane. However, given the model of its metric space and consequently the configuration space, RRT are tractable for higher dimensional problem such as manipulator motion in 3D space (Wei and Ren 2018). RRT assume as static environment but Wei and Ren (2018) successfully change the way RRT samples a robot metric space so that it is fast enough to react with a changing environment. Also, unlike PRM, RRT works well in a cluttered environment because of the randomized sampling on the robot configuration space in the metric space.

Researchers have been modifying the PRM (Klasing, Wollherr, and Buss 2007; Likhachev et al. 2005; Jaillet and Siméon 2004; Pomarlan and Sucan 2013) and the RRT (Otte and Frazzoli 2015; Ferguson and Stentz 2007; Ferguson, Kalra, and Stentz 2006; Bekris and Kavraki 2007) to facilitate better performance. Unlike Kunz et al. (2010) and Wei and Ren (2018), so few have applied their planning algorihtms on a robot manipulator despite both algorithms provides mathematical framework for .

We will use the method demonstrated by Kunz et al. (2010) and Wei and

Ren (2018) to design our experiment of a moving obstacle collision avoidance with the implementation of the vanilla RRT to solve motion for robot manipulator in three-dimensional space, \mathbb{R}^3 . Different from the implementation by Wei and Ren (2018) our method implement the vanilla RRT where we do not represent the obstacle configuration space.

2.6 Summary

I conclude that uncertainty management of a manipulator is imperative for a flexible system in an industrial environment. I discover that uncertainty of the manipulator is best approached by considering the uncertainty motion of the robot and the uncertainty of its environment. I review papers that manage the uncertainty of both categories separately. I also look into a number of researches that incorporate both uncertainties into one framework by using simultaneous localization and mapping. All of these uncertainties management involves the use of statistical and probabilistic approach. I believe that incorporating both uncertainty categories into one framework using SLAM solution completely represent uncertainty management in a manipulator robot.

CHAPTER 3

MATHEMATICAL BACKGROUNDS

The role of this chapter is to provide the primer for the mathematical foundation of this thesis.

A six-axis robot with six revolute joints has been developed as the hardware platform to validate the Planner-SLAM solution proposed in this thesis. The robot has been named Richard Mini (code as r_mini). This chapter presents the features and mathematical model of this robot.

The chapter revolves around the geometric representation of the kinematic model of r_mini and the mathematical framework for the planner used in this research and the components of the SLAM solution.

3.1 The Kinematics of Richard Mini

3.1.1 The Mechanical Descriptions

Richard Mini (r_mini) has one fixed link, six moving links, six revolute joints, and six frames attached to the links. The links are named numerical: link1, link2, ..., link6 shown in figure 3.3. The same is true for the joints: joint1, joint2, ..., joint6. All joints are described by the frames attached to the links. Here, a frame is denoted as \vec{p} . These joints represent the state of the manipulator which parameterized the control space \mathbf{q} where $\mathbf{q} \in C^{control}$. $C^{control}$ is a 6-dimensional control space.

This thesis will use the superscript notation to refer the control space and the subscript as the equivalent representation in the configuration space. For

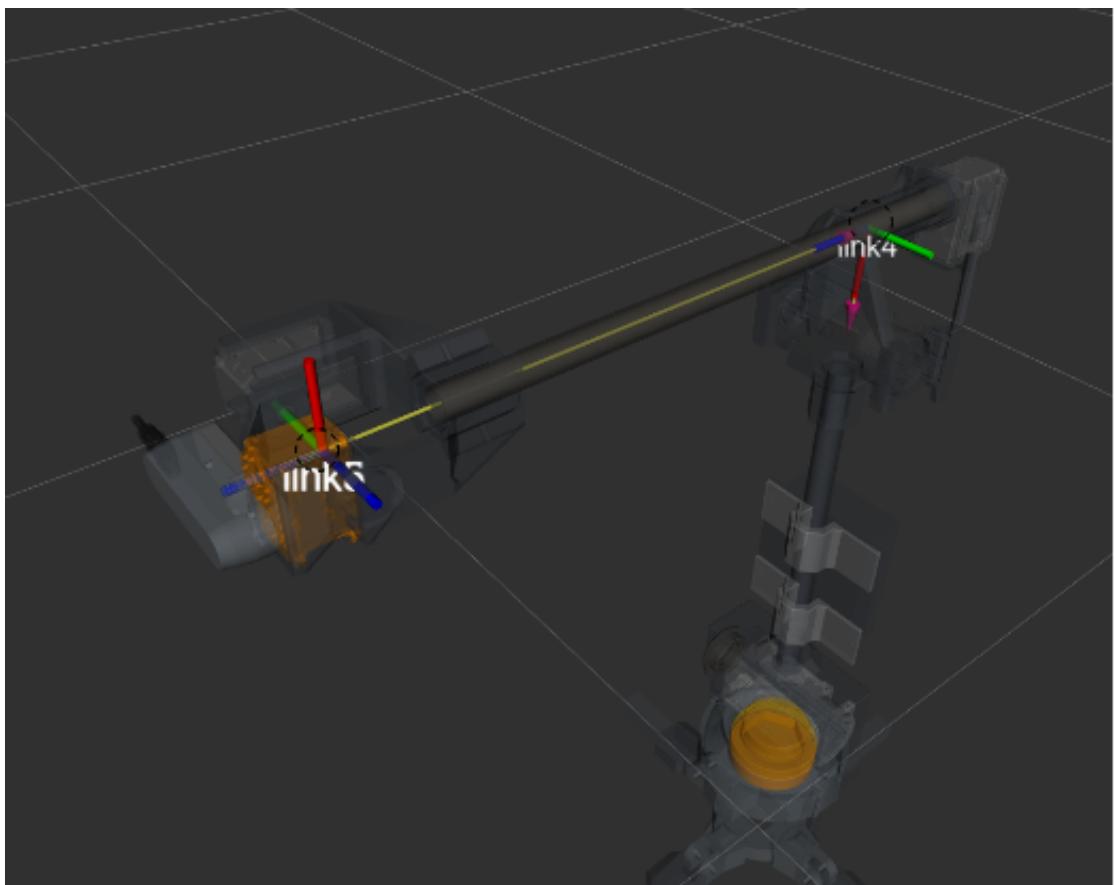


Figure 3.1: *r_mini* wrist conforms to Pieper condition where axis of rotation for joint4, joint5, and joint6 share points of intercept. The dash circle in the diagram a possible point of intercepts. Both point are valid for a Pieper condition

example, C^{ee} , refers to the control space of the end-effector where the controlling pipelines would take in $c^{ee} = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_6) \in C^{control}$, and the equivalent pose is in the configuration space, C_{ee} . r_mini follows the condition advised by Pieper (1968) :three last joints are collated and have a shared rotation axis point as prescribed in figure 3.1.

The figure 3.2 shows the $z-axis$ of the frames aligns with the rotation of the actuators on the robot.

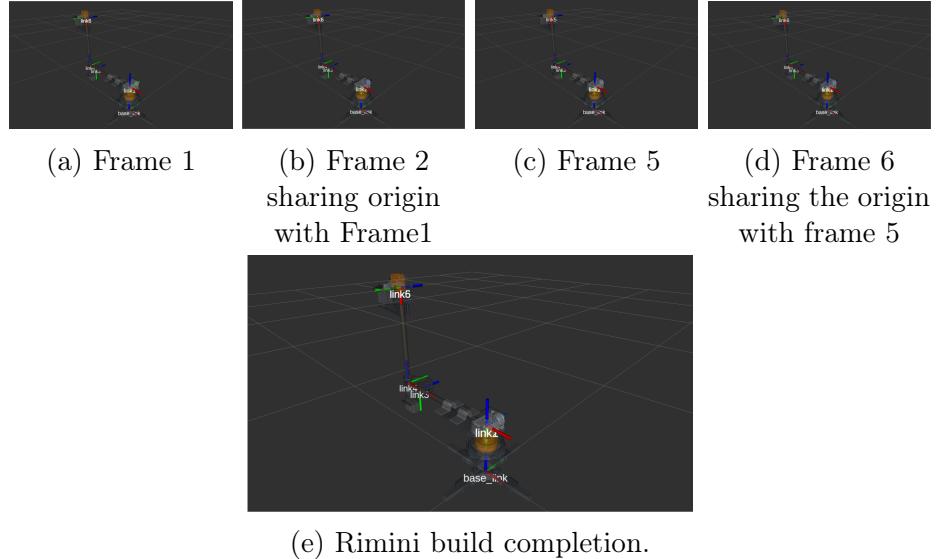


Figure 3.2: The location and orientation of Rimini. The choice of the orientation for each frames are based on Denavit-Hartenberg. The joints are values represented by the angle between two $x-axes$ around the $z-axis$ or rotation axis of each actuators

These three joints represent the wrist. r_mini also uses $Z-Y-Z$ Euler convention to present rotation state of the end effector. This convention conforms to the Wigner-D matrix parameterization where this research will use to estimate the orientation of the end-effector. However, the forward and inverse kinematic computation uses the quaternion.

3.1.2 Forward Kinematics of r_mini

The kinematics of r_mini follows the Denavit-Hartenberg (DH) convention. In this convention, the homogenous transformation of one frame to the next frame in

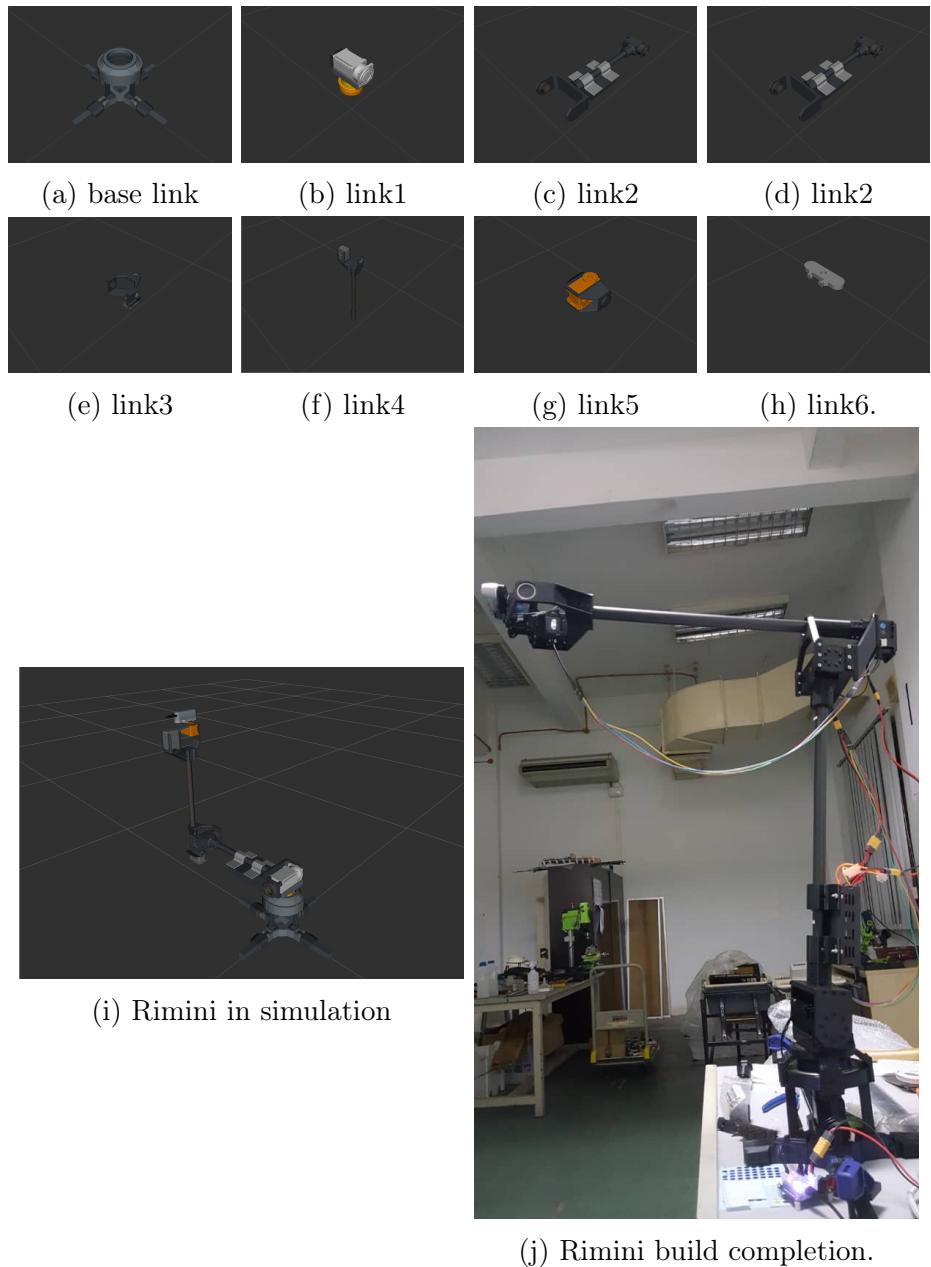


Figure 3.3: r_{mini} and its links

Table 3.1: DH-parameter table

Link (i)	a_i	α_i	d_i	θ_i
1	0	0	0.196	θ_1
2	0	-90°	0	θ_2
3	-0.373	0	0	θ_3
4	-0.08	-90°	0	θ_4
5	0	-90°	0.391	θ_5
6	0	-90°	0	θ_6

the kinematic chain of the robot does not entail any rotation about the $y - axes$. In so doing, the homogenous transformation between two frames are simplified. By disregarding the rotation about the $y - axis$, matrix-to-matrix multiplication between two frames required for homogenous transformation is computationally relax. To help satisfy this constraint about the $y - axis$, two condition should be followed:

- The axis x_i belonging to $frame_i$ should be perpendicular to the axis z_{i-1} belonging to the $frame_{i-1}$.
- The axis x_i intersects the axis x_{i-1}

Here, the subscript i represent the frame number, hence, the link and joint number. Based on these constraints, the DH parameters are summarized in table 3.1, where a_i is the offset of the $frame_i$'s $z - axis$ along the x_i , α_i is the rotation of $frame_i$ about the x_i , d_i is the offset of the $frame_i$'s $x - axis$ along the z_i , and θ is the $joint_i$ angle of rotation. DH-convention states that each joint values are defined by the angle between two $x - axes$. As an example joint1 is represented by the angle between frames attached to link1 and the base frame. Similarly joint2 is represented by the angle between x_1 and x_2 .

Each row in table 3.1 describe the homogenous transformation, A_i from the $frame_{i-1}$ to $frame_i$. The transformation is represented by four matrix operation:

$$A_i = \text{Rot}_{z,\theta_i} T_{z,d_i} T_{x,a_i} \text{Rot}_{x,\alpha_i} \quad (3.1)$$

where Rot , and T are the representation of rotation and translation in special Euclidean group $\mathbf{SE}(3)$. Here $A \in \mathbf{SE}(3)$. The homogenous transformation is represented by the homogenous transformation matrix defined as:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{R} & \mathbf{t} \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (3.2)$$

where $\mathbf{R} \in \mathbf{SO}(3)$ and $\mathbf{t} \in \mathfrak{R}^3$. $\mathbf{SO}(3)$ is the special orthogonal group that represent orientation of the frames in the Euclidean space \mathbf{R}^3 .

With each row of the DH-parameter table 3.1 represented by a homogenous transformation matrix A , we can map the r_mini configuration space \mathbf{q} into \mathfrak{R}^3 :

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{p}_6 &= f(\mathbf{q}) \\ &= A_1^0(\theta_1) A_2^1(\theta_2) A_3^2(\theta_3) A_4^3(\theta_4) A_5^4(\theta_5) A_6^5(\theta_6) \mathbf{p}_0 \end{aligned} \quad (3.3)$$

3.1.3 Inverse Kinematics of r_mini

The inverse kinematics solution for r_mini follows the analytical approach derived by Pires (2007), since both the IRB1600 and r_mini has the Pieper condition addressed in section 3.1.1. However, given that the analytical approach introduce multiple solution, accordingly, subjected the motion planning to singularities, this report adopts a numerical method approach which are used during the simulation and experimentation.

Newton-Raphson method to find the inverse kinematic solution of r_mini , c^{ee} . The generalization of the method uses the current value of the robot's encoder, $c^{current}$, and the termination value, $\epsilon = 0.005$, to end the iteration. Algorithm 1

delineate the the method.

Algorithm 1: getInverseKinematics

Input: c_{goal} , $c^{current}$, ϵ
Output: \hat{c}_{ee}

```

1  $e \leftarrow \text{getForwardKinematic}(c^{current})$ 
2 while  $\|e\| \neq \epsilon$  do
3    $\hat{c}^{estimate} \leftarrow c^{current} + \text{getInverseJacobian}(c^{current})e$ 
4    $e \leftarrow C_{goal} - \text{getForwardKinematic}(c^{estimate})$ 
5    $c^{current} \leftarrow c^{estimate}$ 
6  $\hat{c}^{ee} = c^{current}$ 
7 return  $\hat{c}$ 
```

3.2 r_mini 's Path Planner

This research uses RRT implementation provided by OMPL library packaged in the MoveIt software. The algorithm for the purpose of this research is shown in *algorithm 2*:

Algorithm 2: generateRRT

Input: $C_{initial}, C_{goal}, \Delta t, k, \mathcal{M}$
Output: \mathcal{T}

```

1  $\mathcal{T}.\text{initialize}(C_{initial}, C_{goal}, \mathcal{M})$ 
2 while  $c_{new} \neq C_{goal}$  do
3    $c_{random} \leftarrow \text{randomState}()$ 
4    $c_{near} \leftarrow \text{kNearestNeighbor}(k, c_{random}, \mathcal{T})$ 
5    $\mathbf{u} \leftarrow \text{selectInput}(c_{random}, c_{near})$ 
6    $c_{new} \leftarrow \text{newConfiguration}(c_{near}, \Delta t)$ 
7    $\mathcal{T}.\text{append}(c_{new}, c_{near}, \mathbf{u})$ 
8 return  $\mathcal{T}$ 
```

where k represent the, number of node in the tree generated by the RRT, \mathcal{M} , represent the collision map which is part of the planning scene where all RRT sampling takes place and \mathcal{T} is the tree that points to a non-colliding space. In this RRT implementation, the map are loaded or queried in line 1 each time the *generateRRT()* is invoked. Line 3 generates a random state bias towards the C_{goal} . Line 4 invokes the k-nearest neighbor to find a selection of nodes that is

closes to the state configuration, c_{random} . Line 5 is the important part of the sampling in the RRT where it represent the controlling input of the robot motion. Since, the robot are control in the joint-configuration space, the angular joint limit address the shape of the workspace. However, given the angular velocity, these limits are translated into the configuration space via the kinematic Jacobian which requires the information on the Δt . The limits implicitly ensures that the RRT, by executing line 5 within the context of the robots Jacobian, does not pass through the singularities of the robot. Hence, the configuration space of the manipulator also includes, C_{limit} , containing configuration that abides the joint-configuration space range and angular velocity limit.

The configuration space where the RRT-sampling is concerned is modified in this thesis where, the rotation representation and its sampling is in $R \in \mathbb{H}$, such that the parameterization of the Hamiltonian-space is the quaternions, $\mathbf{q} \in \mathbb{R}^4$. Therefore, the representation of the robot poses and also the non-colliding poses, (\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{t}) are explained in *equation 3.4*.

$$c_{pose} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{q} \\ \dots \\ \mathbf{t} \end{bmatrix} \quad (3.4)$$

The RRT sampling involves query into a map, that stores collision objects. This is the planning scene, denoted as collision map, where the RRT sampling occurs. The query are called when both initial pose and a goal pose are sent to the RRT planner input. The output of the pipeline is a set of non-colliding space where from there another pipeline, transform the configuration space into a control space. We will define the control space in the following section.

3.2.1 The Cyclical Space

The cyclical space is the subset of the planner solution where the RRT algorithm is invoke twice. During the generation of the cyclical space, the RRT output the

a trajectory from the initial pose, $c_{initial}$ to the goal pose, c_{goal} , into a controlling pipeline. The trajectory are then map from the configuration space into the joint-configuration space via the Newton-Raphson inverse kinematic solver (algorithm 1). To complete the set of the cyclical space, the entries in the initial pose and the goal pose are swapped, while invoking query into the collision map,

$$\tau = (C^{control}, t) \quad (3.5)$$

which forms a cyclical motion between the initial pose and the goal pose.
algorithm 3 line 4 algorithm 3 line 7
Here, $C_{cycle} = \overbrace{C_{initial \rightarrow goal}}^{\text{algorithm 3 line 4}} + \overbrace{C_{goal \rightarrow initial}}^{\text{algorithm 3 line 7}}$. Algorithm 3 block explains how the C_{cycle} space is constructed.

Algorithm 3: generateCycleSpace

```

Input:  $c_{initial}, c_{goal}, \Delta t$ 
Output: success_status
1 Function generateCycleSpace( $c_{goal}, c_{initial}$ ):
2   success_status  $\leftarrow$  false
3   while within iteration do
4      $\mathcal{T}_{initial \rightarrow goal} \leftarrow$  generateRRT( $c_{initial}, c_{goal}, \Delta t$ )
5     success_status  $\leftarrow$  moveRobot( $\mathcal{T}_{initial \rightarrow goal}, \Delta t$ )
6     if success_status = true then
7        $\mathcal{T}_{goal \rightarrow initial} \leftarrow$  generateRRT( $c_{goal}, c_{initial}, \Delta t$ )
8       success_status  $\leftarrow$  moveRobot( $\mathcal{T}_{goal \rightarrow initial}, \Delta t$ )
9   return success_status
10 Function moveRobot( $\mathcal{T}, \Delta t$ ):
11   for all index in  $\mathcal{T}.vertices$  do
12      $c^{cycle}(\text{index}) \leftarrow$  getIK( $\mathcal{T}.\text{vertex(index)}$ )
13      $t \leftarrow \mathcal{T}.\mathbf{u}(\text{index})\Delta t$ 
14      $\mathcal{T}.\text{append}(c^{cycle}, t)$ 
15   success_status  $\leftarrow$  TrajectoryController( $\tau$ )

```

The control space are represented by the trajectory in the joint-configuration space $C^{control} \subset C^{cycle} \in S$ where S is the 6-hypersphere. In *equation 3.5* the joint-configuration space are equivalent with the configuration space in *equation 3.4*. The control space is the direct controlling parameters for the movement of r_mini where it only handles the control space (or joint-state space). The

sampling of the RRT to generate the tree data structure, \mathcal{T} , are done within the $\mathbf{SO(3)} \times \mathbb{R}^3$ topology. The free configuration space, or the non-colliding pose, are represented by, $C_{free} = C_{workspace}/C_{obstacle}$. According to LaValle (1998), the $C_{obstacle}$ are also covers the physical constraint of the non-holonomic movement of the robot. However, in the case of an articulated robot arm in this research , the configuration limitation are the range of the joints and the angular velocity limit. Since, all of these measurements are in the n-hyperspace, to map them into the $\mathbf{SO(3)} \times \mathbb{R}^3$, we use the kinematic Jacobian.

3.3 The Spherical Harmonics

In this thesis, spherical harmonics are used to discern the estimate of the orientation of r_mini 's end effector via the raw data coming from the RGB-D sensor. The spherical analysis derives from the fourier transformation of non-periodic function. Here, we will represent the pointclouds coming from the RGB-D sensor as an unknown functions (Osteen, Owens, and Kessens 2012). With spherical harmonics, the state of the end effector are computed based on two overlapping functions \tilde{f} and \tilde{g} both representing the pointclouds. We project these functions into a unit-hypersphere $D^2 = \{x \in \mathfrak{R}^3 \mid \|x\|_2 = 1\}$. where the I parameterized the projection of \tilde{g} and \tilde{f} based on the same parameterization in D. M. Healy et al. (2003). Convolution of the two function are represented by inner product, acting on the Hilbert space, $L^2(S^2)$:

$$\langle \tilde{g}, \tilde{f} \rangle = \int_{\omega \in S^2} \tilde{g}(\omega) \overline{\tilde{f}(\omega) d\omega} \quad (3.6)$$

where $d\omega = \sin(\theta)d\theta d\psi$ and \tilde{g} , \tilde{f} are the arbitrary integral functions on S^2 and $\overline{\tilde{f}}$ is the complex conjugate.

The spherical Fourier transform of any function $\tilde{f} \in S^2$ is defined in $\tilde{F}_m^l = \langle \tilde{f}, Y_m^l \rangle$, where Y_m^l are the spherical harmonics gof degree $l \in \mathbb{N}_0$. of order $m \in [0, l] \in \mathbb{N}_0$. This forms the orthonormal basis over $L^2(S^2)$,

$$Y_m^l(\omega) = (-1)^m \sqrt{\frac{(2l+1)(l-m)!}{4\pi(l+m)}} P_m^l(\cos(\theta)) \exp(-jm\psi) \quad (3.7)$$

where P_m^l are the associated Legendre polynomials implemented by D. M. Healy et al. (2003).

The integral over the sphere are evaluated using the sampling theorem formulated by Driscoll and Dennis M. Healy (1994):

$$F_m^l = \frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{2\tilde{B}} \sum_{j=0}^{2\tilde{B}-1} w_j \tilde{f}(\theta_j, \psi_k) \bar{Y}^l(\theta_j, \psi_k) \quad (3.8)$$

,

where \tilde{B} is the spherical bandwidth, θ and ψ are the samples with the corresponding weight w . Equations 3.8 gives us a way to transform the function \tilde{f} and \tilde{g} which belongs in \Re^3 into the Hilbert space, i.e. the frequency domain, via this relationship:

$$\tilde{f}(\omega) = \sum_{l \geq 0} \sum_{m \leq l} \tilde{F}_m^l Y_m^l(\omega) \quad (3.9)$$

The implementation of the equations 3.7 3.8 and 3.9 are coupled with the datastructures of in equations 3.17 3.19 3.20 and 3.21 to form a correlation between the two overlapping functions $\tilde{g} \in L^2(S^2)$ and $\tilde{f} \in L^2(S^2)$:

$$\tilde{C} = \sum_{l>0} \sum_{m \leq l} \sum_{m' \leq l} \tilde{F}_m^l \overline{\tilde{G}_{m'}^l D_{m'}^l} \quad (3.10)$$

$$\tilde{C}_r = \sum_{l>0} \sum_{m \leq l} \sum_{m' \leq l} \tilde{F}_{m,r}^l \overline{\tilde{G}_{m',r}^l D_{m'}^l} \quad (3.11)$$

$$\tilde{C}_g = \sum_{l>0} \sum_{m \leq l} \sum_{m' \leq l} \tilde{F}_{m,g}^l \overline{\tilde{G}_{m',g}^l D_{m'}^l} \quad (3.12)$$

$$\tilde{C}_b = \sum_{l>0} \sum_{m \leq l} \sum_{m' \leq l} \tilde{F}_{m,b}^l \overline{\tilde{G}_{m',b}^l D_{m'}^l} \quad (3.13)$$

where \tilde{C} represent the correlation for the range encoding, and \tilde{C}_r , \tilde{C}_g , and, \tilde{C}_b represent the correlation for the red, blue, green, band images. The function D , the Weigner-D matrix, helps to rotate the spherical harmonics in the Hilbert space. The function is parameterized by the $Z - Y - Z$ Euler-angles rotation. Since, the end effector are parameterized with the same orientation, the orientation estimate of the robot's end effector are given by the argument max of the resultant correlation,

$$\mathbf{r}(\theta_4, \theta_5, \theta_6) = \underset{\mathbf{r} \in SO(3)}{\operatorname{argmax}} (\tilde{C} \boxplus \tilde{C}_r \boxplus \tilde{C}_g \boxplus \tilde{C}_b) \quad (3.14)$$

where \boxplus represent Gaussian data fusion technique.

3.4 The Use of Kinematics Jacobian and the Singularities or the Manipulator to Relax the Cost Function

Equation 3.15 is defined as,

$$\dot{\mathbf{q}} = J^{-1} \mathbf{v} \quad (3.15)$$

where the angular velocity in \mathbb{C}^3 changes abruptly. We explain that this abrupt changes is not just because of the zero-determinant of the Jacobian, J , but also because of the duality in the solution explained in section 3.1.3. At a point where the determinant of the Jacobian of the fundamental kinematics equations approaches to zero, the angular velocity of any of the joint state approaches to infinity. This behavior is represented by the mapping of the configuration space

to the end effector's state.

The fundamental kinematics equation demonstrate a peculiar characteristic. The equation 3.15 explains, regardless of the infinity velocity when approaching singularity, the task space does not reflect any abrupt or catastrophic movement. This behavior when discern in context of kinematic equation 3.15, shows that the robot configuration changes abruptly when traversing into a subset of the workspace that coincide with zero-determinant Jacobian. Should a closed-form solution to the subset of the function that represent the singularity in the workspace is needed, readers can venture into invoking the fundamental theory of determinants that give constraints and conditions to satisfy non-invertible Jacobian. However, caution ensues as this efforts may not be trivial if solved analytically. However, since the sampling space for the RRT includes the kinematic constraint and also the velocity constraint of the robot arm, the solution from the RRT, the trajectory of the robot will never cross the singularity region. This implies that, the determinant of the Jacobians, when sampled over the kinematic and velocity constraint of the robot, will never approach zero.

3.5 SLAM for r_mini

r_mini 's end effector is an RGB-D camera: the Intel Realsense 435D. The camera livefeeds point clouds, imagery, and a calibrated pointcloud imagery where each point are encoded with RGB-value; a depth image. The depth images are bound by noise. Hence, the mathematical model of the map are based on Bayesian probability model:

$$P(n|z_{1:t}) = \left[1 + \frac{1 - P(n|z_t)}{P(n|z_t)} \frac{1 - P(n|z_{1:t-1})}{P(n|z_{1:t-1})} \frac{P(n)}{1 - P(n)} \right] \quad (3.16)$$

where $P(n)$ are the prior probability distribution, $P(n|z_{1:t-1})$ are the previous estimate of the map and z_t is the measurement posterior distribution, and n ,

a node in a segmented space; the map model encoding of a octree datastructure. This maps impute the probability value into the segmented space, representing occupied and free space. To relax computation, the continuous values are conditioned to encode binary values by transforming the domain of the random variables n into a logarithmic scale using logit model. The numerator in equation 3.16 are normalizing parameter which can be disregarded without having to change the mean, mode, and the median of the maps distribution (Hornung et al. 2013). Hence, together with the relax logit function, equation 3.16 is reduced to:

$$L(n|z_{1:t}) = L(n|z_{1:t-1}) + L(n|z_t) \quad (3.17)$$

where

$$L(n) = \log \left[\frac{P(n)}{1 - P(n)} \right] \quad (3.18)$$

Equation 3.17 are constructed based on the pointcloud datastructure. The space, in the case of r_mini , the manipulator workspace, \mathcal{W} are divided into two values; zero for free space, and one for occupied space. Since, Realsense also produce RGB imageries, the map also valid for the occurrence of the color blue, red, and, green in as a subset of \mathcal{W} .

$$L_{red}(n) = \log \left[\frac{P_{red}(n)}{1 - P_{red}(n)} \right] \quad (3.19)$$

$$L_{green}(n) = \log \left[\frac{P_{green}(n)}{1 - P_{green}(n)} \right] \quad (3.20)$$

$$L_{blue}(n) = \log \left[\frac{P_{blue}(n)}{1 - P_{blue}(n)} \right] \quad (3.21)$$

With logistic encoding, the datastructure of the map is compact, relaxing

computational expenses and thus eliminate bottleneck on the rich streaming from the RGB-D sensor. This map model, also known as octomap encodes the posterior of the SLAM solution in equation. Given the stability of binary values in static environment mapping, a dynamic objects introduced in the workspace are not represented by the octomap datastructure.

The SLAM part of this thesis implements the RTAB-Map library and its framework to encode the map model and also the spherical harmonics implementation suggested in the earlier section as the localization engine for the instead the implementation that comes with the libary. The SLAM model starts with the cost function of the map a posteriori:

$$\Phi^* = \operatorname{argmax}_{\Phi} P(\Phi|Q^*, \mu) \quad (3.22)$$

where Φ is the map of the environment from the datastructure infused with the spherical harmonic terms. μ is the the set of waypoints generated by the planner.

$$\begin{aligned} Q^* &= \operatorname{argmax}_Q P(Q|\Phi, Z) \\ &= \operatorname{argmax}_{C_{ee}} \frac{P(Z|\Phi^*, C_{ee})P(C_{ee}|\Phi^*)}{P(Z)} \\ &= \operatorname{argmax}_{C_{ee}} \log P(Z|\Phi^*, C_{ee}) + \log P(C_{ee}|\Phi^*) \end{aligned} \quad (3.23)$$

where C_{ee} is the prior estimate of the state of the robot's task space on the map model in 3.22.

With these models, the cost function can be defined as:

$$Cost(\mathbf{c}) = \gamma\epsilon + \sum_{v \in V} \Phi^{t-1}[T_q Z]^2 \quad (3.24)$$

The cost function is differentiated with respect to \mathbf{c} to minimized the error ϵ everytime there is an update on the, sensor reading Z , map Φ and command

update from V .

To minimize this cost function, equation 3.24 are differentiated.

3.6 Summary

This chapter introduced the mathematical background that will be adopted and implemented into the following chapters. The geometry of r_{mini} configuration space, and its implicit representation, the control space, are explained. Further, this chapter introduce the SLAM solution to estimate the task space of the robot.

CHAPTER 4

EXPERIMENTATION, RESULT AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Benchmarking Experiment Design and Result on the Sampling-Based Planner in Static En- vironment

In this research, the planner for the dynamic obstacle avoidance are selected based on the performance of a benchmarking activity. Here, the procedure is explained.

Two poses are set for the benchmark represented in the form of *equation 3.4*. The following vectors explain the numerical value of these poses with respect to the frame attached to the base of r_{mini} .

$$c_{initial} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.0 \\ 0.71 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.71 \\ \dots \\ 0.43 \\ 0.25 \\ 0.42 \end{bmatrix} \quad c_{goal} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.0 \\ 0.71 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.71 \\ \dots \\ 0.46 \\ 0.29 \\ 0.43 \end{bmatrix} \quad (4.1)$$

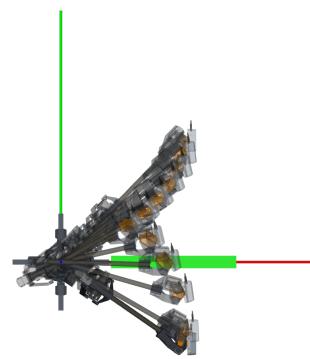
A box, with dimension, $0.5 \text{ m} \times 0.05 \text{ m} \times 0.575 \text{ m}$, are place in front of the robot, it's pose is described by the vector,

$$c_{box} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ \dots \\ 0.45 \\ 0 \\ 0.2874 \end{bmatrix}$$

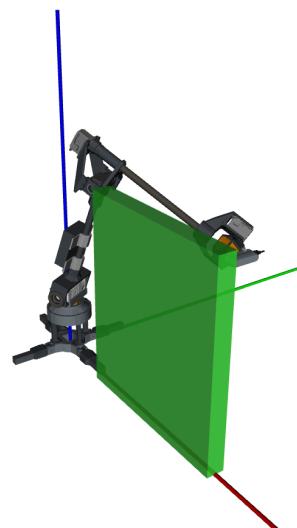
Figure 4.1 shows the simulation setup and the planning motion in action.

The simulation ran for 50 request from the initial pose to the goal pose. Time processing is given a 10 s limit. The memory limit is set to 1 Mb. The time limit for a request, including the motion and the processing time is set to 3637 s. This thesis uses these configurations and the default configuration of each planners in the MoveIt to start the benchmarking.

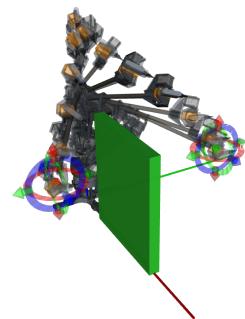
Figure 4.2 shows the compiled statistics of the time the solution were passed to the controller (in this case a virtual controller for simulation of r_mini in the simulated environment). RRT requires on average, 0.031 planning time while PRM requires 0.035 planning time from the initial pose to the goal pose when subjected to an obstacle very close to the robot. Wei and Ren (2018) explained the improved RRT algorithms, such as the bi-RRT, and the RRT-connect, solve a query faster. However, based on our benchmarking, vanilla RRT, or base-RRT, and PRM outperform their improved variants when completing the path query between an initial pose and a goal pose. To that end, this research uses vanilla RRT as the scheme for the high-level local planner. This result helps in selecting the motion planner for the dynamic obstacle avoidance.



(a)



(b)



(c)

Figure 4.1: The top view of the simulation shown in ,(a) , and the isometric view of the benchmark setup in (b). In (c) r_{mini} attempts to move around the static obstacle placed in it's immediate configuration workspace.

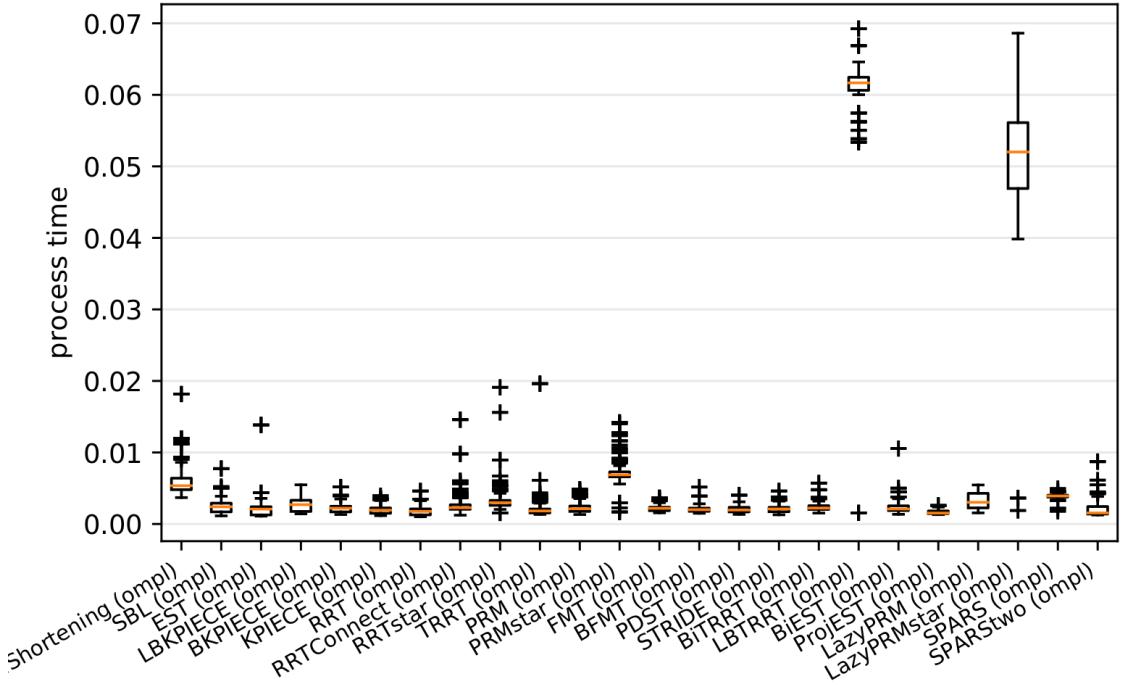


Figure 4.2: The benchmark result when two configurations are defined and pass to the OMPL planner pipeline. All planners completed a 50-cycle query from an initial pose to a goal pose. RRT requires the least amount of processing time at finding the motion planning solution, followed by the PRM.

4.2 Experiment Design for Moving Planning in Dynamic Environment

The cyclical space is populated by the RRT-Newton-Raphson pipeline where the generated trajectories are then pass to the control pipeline where the controller will spline the sparse trajectory waypoints. Two poses are defined in this experimentation which has been described in *equation 4.1*. A moving obstacle are placed in front-view of the robot. The obstacle is a cylinder with 0.1 m radius base at 1 m height. The obstacle moves from 0.3 m to 1.7 m away from the robot in oscillation. The period of motion is harmonic, such that, the robot follows a $x = 1 + 0.7 \sin(2\pi(0.0006)\Delta t)$. Two velocities values were used: 50% scale and 10% scale of end-effector's maximum velocity.

The planner is invoked 5 s before the obstacle is placed into the planning

Table 4.1: The simulated and hardware-connected result of the performance of RRT in a dynamic space. NC stands for No Collision after 5-minute runtime

condition \ iteration	time to 1 st collision,(s)				
	1 st	2 nd	3 th	4 th	5 th
simulation _{0.5ν}	64	NC	NC	133	18
hardware _{0.1ν}	205	16	17	134	13
simulation _{0.5ν}	13	23	11	9	13
hardware _{0.1ν}	17	4	15	7	10

scene. The cylinder is directly place into the planning scene such that no motion tracking is necessary for this research. The planner are requested to provide solution for the motion described by the cycle space. Five iterations are done with each given a five minutes runtime. The metric use for this experiment is the time on first collision where, when the prototype touches the cylinder, the iteration is terminated. This experimentatation is done, both, in simulation, and with the real robot hardware. However, for both the simulation and the hardware validation, the obstacle are augmented in simulated environment.

4.3 Result on RRT Planning

There are two hardware validations performed. One regarding the planning under dynamic environment where a synthetic obstacle, moving periodically, cuts through the line of planning in the cyclical space, C_{cycle} . The second experimentation involve the use of RTAB-Map impregnated with the PHASER implementation where the state estimation pipeline was swapped with the spherical harmonics approach.

4.3.1 Result on Path Planning Under Dynamic Environment

Table 4.1, shows the recorder time to collision of 20 iterations. The average time to collision is 40 s. There are two iterations where there are no collision recorded.

This poor performance is subjected to the algorithm 3, specifically in line 4 and line 7, RRT is called. Within this call (algorithm 2, line 1 consider an obstacle map that is outdated given the cylinder has moving further towards the manipulator when RRT: line 1. Within the RRT algorithm, there are no mechanism for the robot to stop or move at a lower rate to avoid the cylinder. *Figure 4.3* shows the sequence when the end-effector collide with the cylinder.

Despite the obstacle avoidance fails when the moving cylinder approaches the robot specifically when the centroid of the cylinder is nearing the $x - axes$ of the $c_{initial}$ and c_{goal} , the planner successfully avoid the obstacles when the lines 4 and 7 in algorithm 3 is invoked.

The planner shows reactive behavior when the cyclical space is initialize, via algorithm 3. *Figure 4.4* illustrates such behavior in the simulated environment, and *figure 4.5* shows the same behavior in the hardware reiteration of the experimentation. This is illustrated in *figure 4.6*, where the $joint_2$ and $joint_3$ changes the range of their movement while $joint_3$ changes the rate of its movement.

No significant changes are observed for $joint_4$, $joint_5$ and $joint_6$. This is the implication of the Pieper-condition manipulator design where, none of the $z - axis$ from the first three joints shares the same crossing point, which suggest the rotation acting by these joints are not a linear transformation. Due to the offset (affine transformation) of the joints' axis of rotation, these joints' there is a bijection mapping of these joints to the task-space. Also changes are also observed on the orientation of the frame attached to the end-effector, however, there are no bijection mapping of the three joints to the task-space's orientation.

4.3.2 Result on Obstacle-less Planning with SLAM

The result in *figure 4.7* explains the output of the state odometry pipeline. The \mathbb{R}^3 part of the task space, C_{ee} , is normalized to the origin $(0, 0, 0)$.

As the robot arm moves, changing the pose of the task space, velocity change

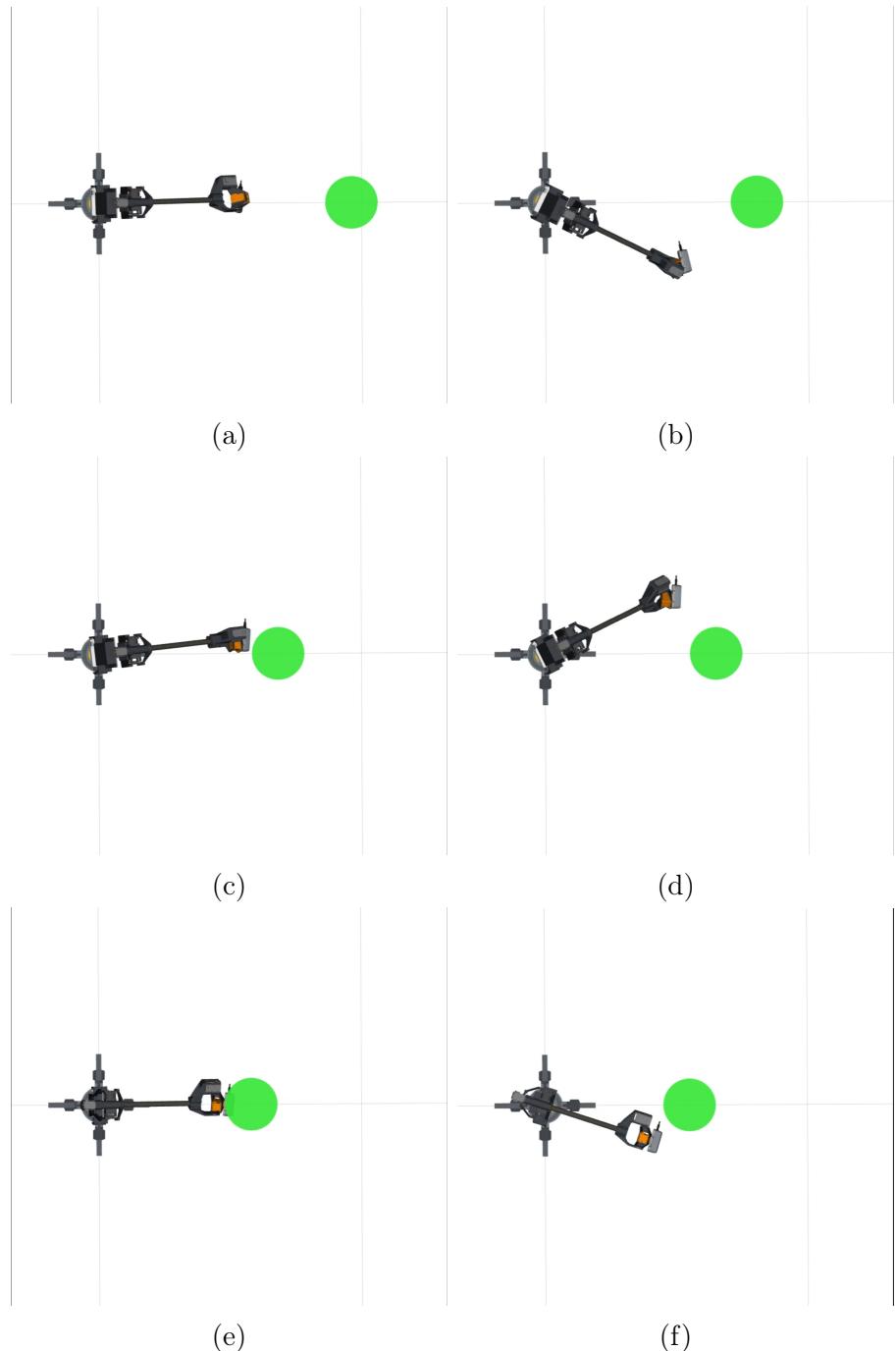


Figure 4.3: This sequence shows the manipulator follows an outdated trajectory and collides with the cylinder despite attempt to move away from the moving cylinder.

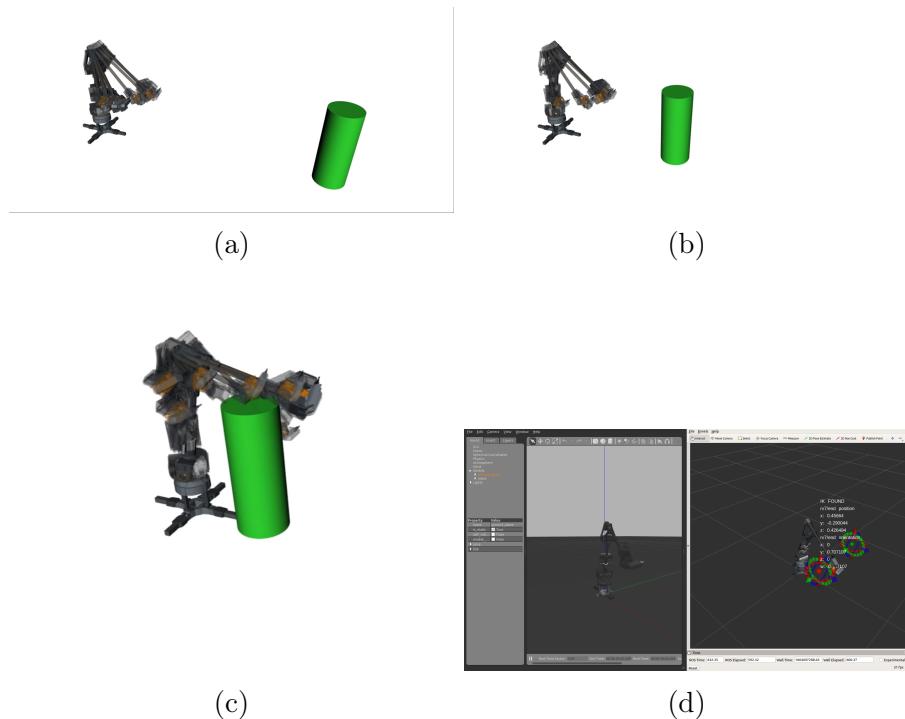


Figure 4.4: The chronology of attempts at avoiding a moving obstacle when the obstacle approaches the robot. The planning algorithm fails at avoiding the cylinder before it passes the x -location of the poses, $c_{initial}$ and c_{goal} . (c) shows the planner successfully provide a non-colliding solution when the cylinder is moving away from robot. (d) shows the Gazebo as the physic engine to replicate the robot hardware and encoders feedback and the cyclical space initialization.

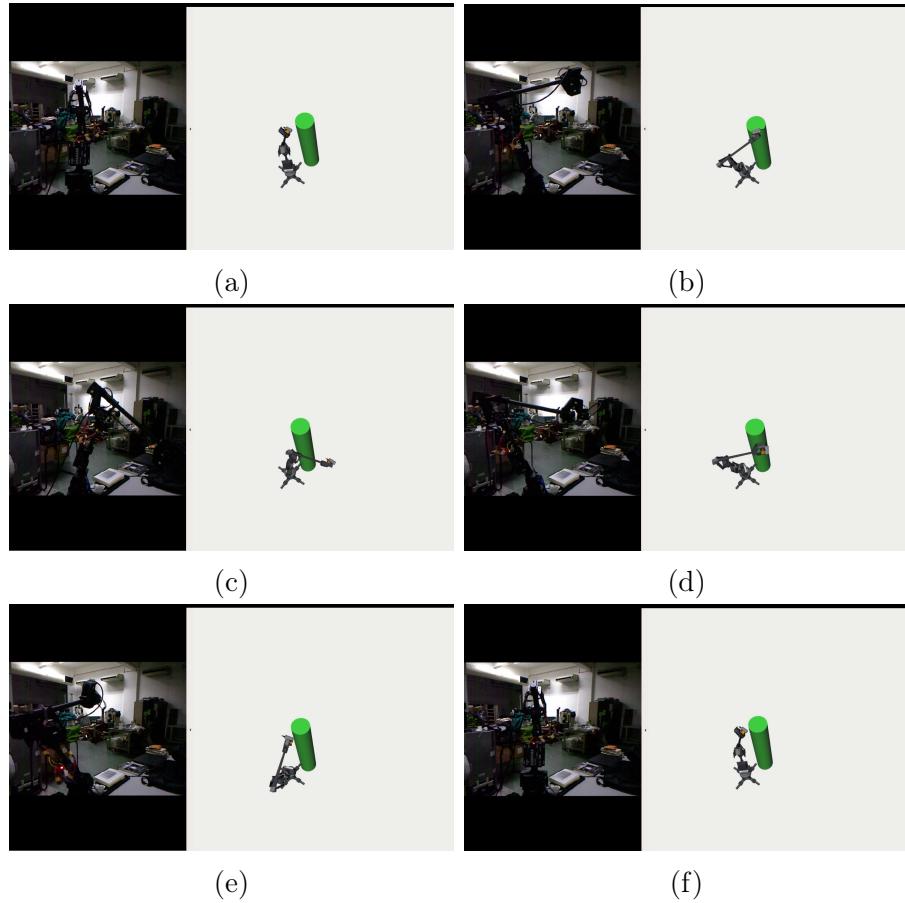


Figure 4.5: The sequence of motion when r_{mini} successfully avoid a moving obstacle when the obstacles at a turning point to move away from the hardware.

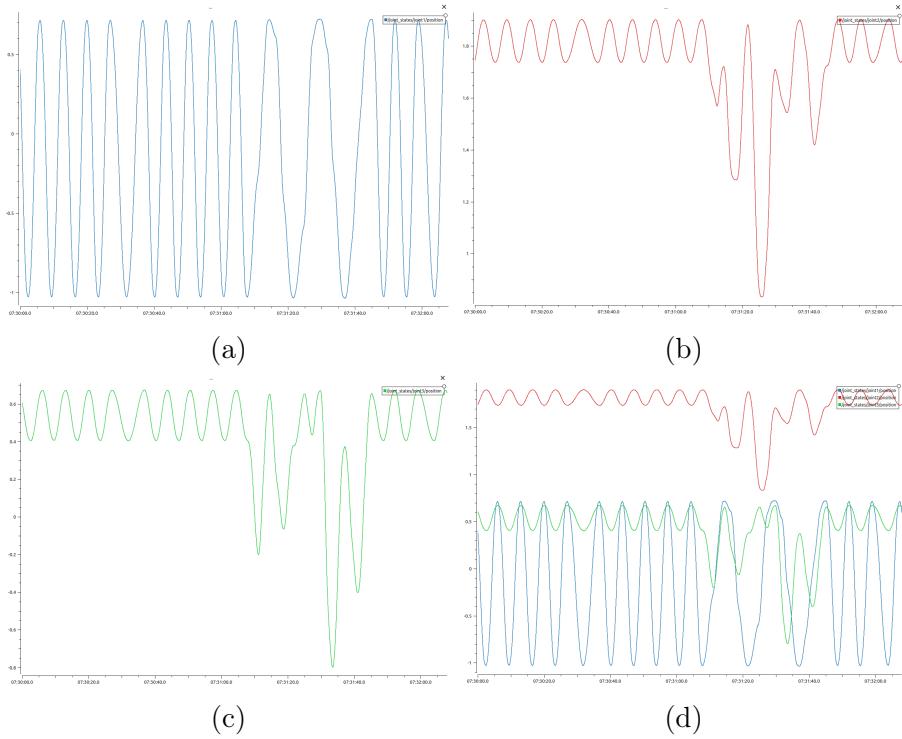


Figure 4.6: Reaction from $joint_1, joint_2, joint_3$ shows that the planner together with the cycle space behave reactively towards the moving object. No rapid movement or rate on the last three joints on r_{mini}

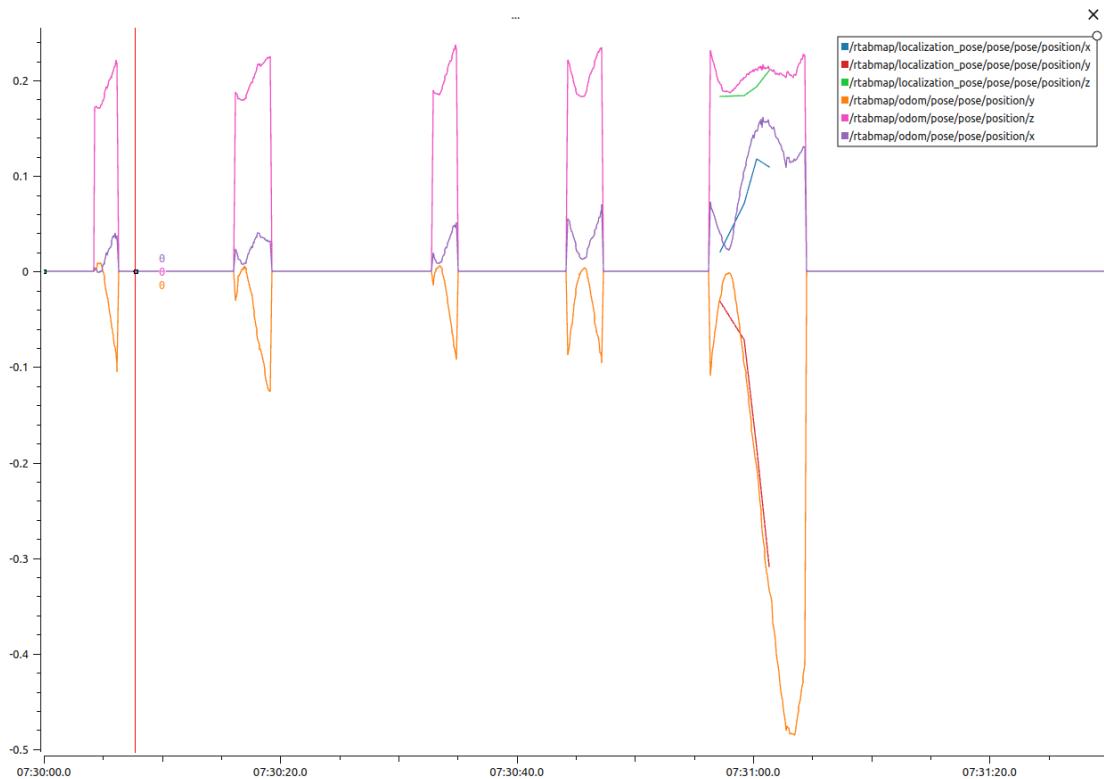


Figure 4.7: The odometry estimate of the end-effector's frame visualize for the \mathbb{R}^3 part of the task space, C_{ee} .

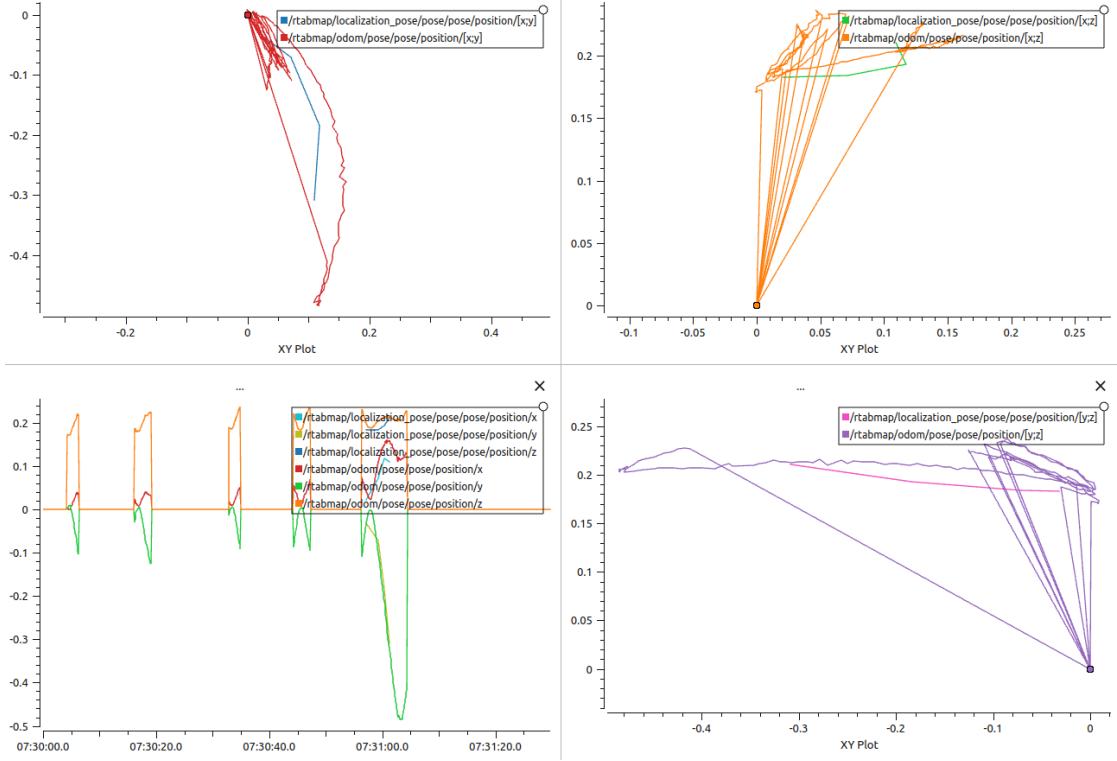


Figure 4.8: The odometry and RTAB-Map state estimation output compared together.

in the movement together with the angular velocity from the rotation change in the end-effector collapses PHASER’s state estimation despite the attempt to use the quaternion and the Hilbert’s space to discern the correspondence of two 3D point clouds snapshots. In the figure, there are singularities on most of the process. However, estimations are successfully broadcast between 4.3 s to 6.3 s, 16.1 s to 19.4 s, 32.8 s to 35.2 s, 44.2 s to 47.3 s, 56.2 to 64.5 s.

The absence of odometry estimation output, where the pipeline is silence, populates 73.4% of the process. The state estimation for the PHASER implementation is intermittent.

The pose estimation from the SLAM pipeline and also the odometry, where the visual odometry are taken into consideration during data fusion, are only appear between 57.2 s and 61.3 s as shown in *figure 4.8*.

In *figure 4.9*, the outputs of the visual odometry and the SLAM estimation are presented by the light blue lines in the left pane of the screenshot. The right

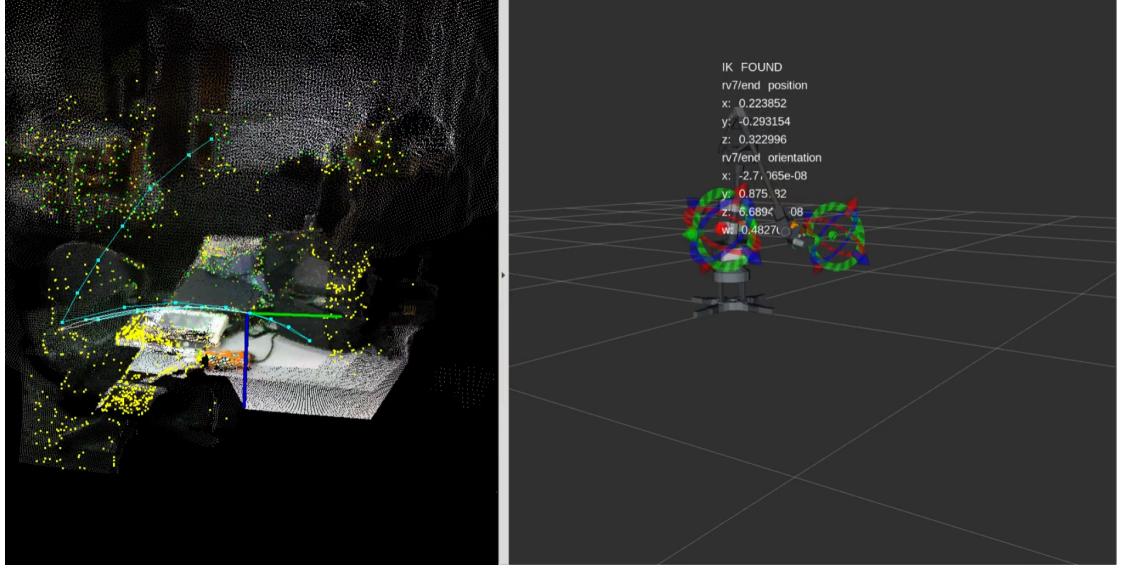


Figure 4.9: This screenshot shows the visual output of the RTAB-Map, where the state estimation and also the visual odometry together with the map of the environment are represented on the left pane of the snapshot. The right pane shows the initial and the goal pose for the C_{cycle}

shows, the initial and goal pose of the hardware.

The SLAM application on the path planning for this research would not be able to give a stream of pseudo-continuous data output from its pipeline. Since, an intermittent nature of these results were shown from the data, it is observed that, when the state estimation is mapped into the joint-space configuration, and then feeded into the controller's feedback pipeline, the motor could not abide to the trajectory solution populated by the planner. Hence, currently, with PHASER implementation of the state estimation, the SLAM solution and the planning algorithm will not reconcile and will not work without having an intermediate pipeline that can fill up the gap between the one estimation to the next from the RTAB-Map.

4.4 Summary

In this chapter, the result of four experimentations are presented. These results explain the capability of r_mini working in a static environment (via the bench-

marking) and in a dynamic environment where this research consequently test on the prototype. The later result shows the feasibility of SLAM at estimating the task space of r_{mini} .

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

In this research, a prototype is developed for compliant usage in industrial setup. The robot is a 6R manipulator, with six-degree-of-freedom. Each joint is actuated with Dynamixel servo and are back-drivable. The end-effector is equipped with an RGB-D sensor. The robot is named as *r_mini*. Since the Dynamixel motors are not supplemented with a mathematical model, the joints are controlled based on time-parameterized controller where, the set up of each of the motor's velocity profile depends on the angular velocity limits and the angular acceleration limit which was successfully tuned. All of the *r_mini* controllers parameters and system configuration, including its driver, are packaged as a stack of ROS packages.

A benchmark was done to ascertain the best sampling-based planner for the *r_mini*'s capability to avoid moving obstacles. The simulation for the benchmark considers a static object, placed in the manipulator's workspace. RRT was selected given its rapid processing time, 0.031 s, at giving a planning solution. Another simulation was done where a moving object with the shape of a cylinder is placed in the robot's workspace.

The simulation based on the moving obstacle is reiterated with the robot hardware. The hardware validates the same result as the simulation, where the robot's capability to avoid the moving obstacle, although successful, has not been consistent. The avoidance fails if the RRT is invoked when the obstacle is nearly approaching the C_{cycle} . The moving obstacle is augmented into the configuration space of the robot manipulator.

This thesis's SLAM implementation, by repurposing RTAB-Map as the

SLAM framework as the state estimation pipeline of the RTAB-Map, shows an intermittent and sparse estimation of the C_{ee} which fails to continuously estimate the joint-configuration of the manipulator.

Although the performance of the RRT on a dynamic obstacle imposed under the cyclical space prescribed in algorithm 3, is not satisfactory, the result shows that the robot is capable at reacting to an obstacles when the obstacle is moving.

5.1 Recommendation for Future Works

This thesis recommends a future work on improved state estimations of the RTAB-Map where the singularities reading during state estimation can be pass to a splining process. The splining would consider the last reading of the RTAB-Map estimation pipeline at, t_{last} , and the output from the *equation 5.1*,

$$\operatorname{argmax}_{t_{last} \leq t, C \in \{C_{cycle}, t\}} \|C - \hat{C}_{last}\|_2 \quad (5.1)$$

where \hat{C}_{last} is the last state estimation of the RTAB-Map before data silence.

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