

Roomba

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1 Introduction

The project is an implementation of a roomba-like system on Sunfounder's PiCar-V platform and a webcam attached to it is used. With the help of QR codes as landmarks, the webcam is turned into a distance-bearing sensor.

2 Architecheture

This project is be based on hierarchical architecture. Though it is a rather early and awkward architecture especially for dynamic world, since it emphasizes on constructing a detailed world model and then carefully planning the action, it is still suitable for PiCar-V and turning it into a Roomba. The reason is that the robot platform used in this project does not equip any sonar/distance sensor, which makes a reactive architecture such as subsumption difficult to realize. We will rely on a pre-constructed world model(or construed through SLAM) and focus on the planning part, as the sense of the robot is rather weak. Therefore the robot will only have static avoidance functionality.

3 Planner

The Boustrophedon cellular decomposition is utilized as the planner, please check the referred paper for details. The Boustrophedon cellular decomposition is a variance of trapezoidal decomposition in the sense of dividing the world into cells based on the shape and position of obstacles. Between cells, a usual graph traversal algorithm can be used to determine the route, and within cells, Boustrophedon paths will be generated for the local coverage. An example of such path is shown in

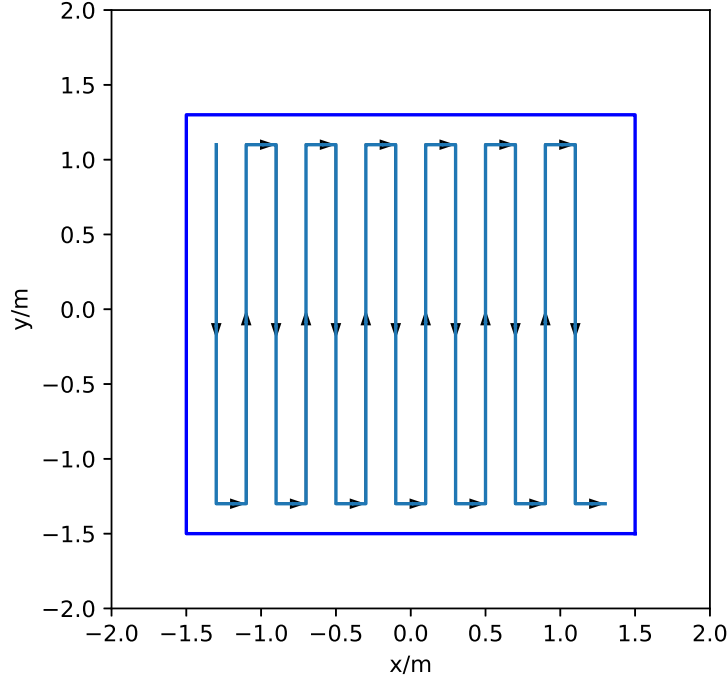


Figure 1: The Boustrophedon path generated within a rectangular cell

4 Localization

To further improve the performance of the planning, localization of the mobile car can be incorporated. One major problem for Sunfounder’s PiCar-V platform is the lack of a distance-bearing sensor that would make localization with landmarks much easier. However, with the help of known-sized QR tags as 3D object, it is plausible to convert a plain webcam into a distance-bearing sensor.

4.1 Distance and Pose estimation using PnP

With a simple pinhole model the scene view s of a camera is formulated as:

$$s \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} f_x & 0 & c_x \\ 0 & f_y & c_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} & r_{13} & t_1 \\ r_{21} & r_{22} & r_{23} & t_2 \\ r_{31} & r_{32} & r_{33} & t_3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \\ 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

where (X, Y, Z) is the coordinate of the object point in world reference frame, (u, v) is the coordinates of the projected object on the view. The first factor on the right hand side is the camera matrix which depicts the intrinsic properties of the camera, while the second factor is the rotation-translation matrix that transforms from world reference frame to the camera frame.

The rotation-translation matrix $R - T$ is solvable by first, detecting the QR code using library such as `zbar`. Second, finding the corner points of it and associate with their projections on the view. Once $R - T$ is obtained, one can solve directly for its inverse, as the inverse serves directly for pose estimation of the camera.

Given R which is the rotation matrix, the inverse of it is denoted as $R^{-1} = R^T$. Then the coordinates of the camera in world reference frame are obtained as

$$(x, y, z) = -R^T V.$$

And the distance between the camera and the object:

$$d = \sqrt{(X - x)^2 + (Y - y)^2 + (Z - z)^2}.$$

Furthermore, the Euler angles representation can also be acquired easily from R . As for car-like mobile robots, the motion is usually confined to 2-D plane. Consider such a plane is depicted is a right-hand coordinate system as $x - z$ plane and axis y is pointing to the ground. Then only Euler angle θ_y is of interest. Then the problem can be largely simplified. For a landmark $M(X, Y, \gamma)$ in world reference frame, the current pose of the camera is

$$(X - d \cos(\theta_y), Y + d \sin(\theta_y), \pi/2 - \theta_y + \gamma).$$

4.2 Bearing

The bearing of the object with respect to the camera can be calculated directly using the rotation-translation matrix $R - T$. But in the experiments such calculation turns out to be quite inaccurate and is not sufficient for real application. Therefore in the rest of the paper the bearing is obtained as

$$(c_x - c_c) \times \frac{d}{f_x},$$

where c_x is the x principle point as shown in the camera matrix, c_c is the center of the QR tag in camera frame and f_x is the x -direction focal length of the camera.

With this pose estimation, one can combine a control algorithm with feedback from QR codes detected by camera.

A picture showing the performance of such model is plotted as Fig. (2).

Figure 2: The QR code used as a landmark.

5 Kinematics and control law

The kinematics of the car is orthogonal to the current Ackerman model can be used to describe the kinematics of a car-like robot:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = v \cos \theta,$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = v \sin \theta,$$

$$\frac{d\theta}{dt} = \frac{v}{L} \tan \gamma,$$

where (x, y) is the position of the middle point of the back wheel axis of the robot in world reference frame. θ is the angle of pose of the robot. The steering wheel angle is γ and the velocity of the back wheel is v . L is the length of the vehicle or wheel base.

These equations can be re-written as:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{dx}{dt} \\ \frac{d\omega}{dt} \\ \frac{d\theta}{dt} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & 0 \\ \sin \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v \\ \omega \end{pmatrix}.$$

With the initial position-pose (x, y, θ) and the goal (x^*, y^*, θ^*) , it is more convenient to write the equations in polar system via a transformation:

$$\rho = \sqrt{\Delta_x^2 + \Delta_y^2},$$

$$\alpha = \arctan \frac{\Delta_y}{\Delta_x} - \theta,$$

$$\beta = -\theta - \alpha + \theta^*.$$

The linear control law for $-\pi/2 < \alpha \leq \pi/2$, i.e. the waypoint is in front of the vehicle is:

$$v = k_\rho \rho,$$

$$\omega = k_\alpha \alpha + k_\beta \beta,$$

where k_ρ , k_α , k_β are arbitrary coefficients that satisfies $k_\rho > 0, k_\beta < 0, k_\alpha - k_\rho > 0$.

The control law for the cases where the waypoint is behind the vehicle is the same as above, but with transformed angles:

$$\alpha' = -\pi - \beta,$$

$$\beta' = -\pi - \alpha,$$

and $v' = -v$.

6 implementation and setup

The visibility graph planner purposed in Sec.(??) is implemented in `visibility.ipynb` based on a visibility graph library `pyvisgraph` using Lee's visibility graph algorithm, the path finding algorithm is the Dijkstra's algorithm. The actual setup of the surroundings and the planned path is plotted as Fig.(3).

Figure 3: The actual setup of the surroundings and the planned path by visibility graph planner

The Voronoi graph planner purposed in Sec.(??) is implemented in `Voronoi.ipynb`, the obstacle is represented by a set of points. The Voronoi graph is generated using `scipy.spatial.Voronoi` and the graph is stored and managed using `networkx`. The path finding algorithm is also the Dijkstra's algorithm. The actual setup of the surroundings and the planned path is plotted as Fig.(4).

As of the controller of the robot, one can apply a time-sample linear controller together with an EKF based localization system with the QR tags. Yet for the sake of simplicity, in this project a straight line and constant turning controller is used.

7 Experiment and conclusion

The actual performance of the two planners are shown in Tab.(1). It can be seen that the

Figure 4: The actual setup of the surroundings and the planned path by Voronoi graph planner

| Table 1: Experiment results | | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------|-----------------|---------------|
| Way points | Planner | Error (m) | Drive time(s) |
| Strat point | Visibility graph | — | - |
| | Voronoi graph | — | - |
| Stop point 1 | Visibility graph | 0.1 ± 0.05 | 6.45 |
| | Voronoi graph | 0.1 ± 0.05 | 7.50 |
| Stop point 2 | Visibility graph | 0.15 ± 0.05 | 3.00 |
| | Voronoi graph | 0.2 ± 0.05 | 4.5 |

two planner performs no difference in terms of the driving accuracy. But the route provided by visibility graph planner is much faster than the path produced by Voronoi graph planner. As the visibility graph planner tends to give dangerous yet optimal path, while the Voronoi graph planner gives safe yet conservative path, in experiment the robot runs into the obstacle in about 30% of all runs, and the Voronoi graph planner never drives the robot into collision. The runs that collides with the obstacle are not taken into account in statistics.

The conclusion is visibility graph is for optimal path but poses higher risk of collision, and Voronoi graph planner yields reliable yet slow route. It depends on the task requirement to decide which one is best suitable.