

5

Robot Motion

5.1 Introduction

⇒ This chapter focus on motion model.

⇒ These models comprise the state transition probability $p(x_t | u_t, x_{t-1})$.

↓
} Plays important role in the
Prediction Step of the
Bayes filter

⇒ Probabilistic robotics generalizes kinematic equations to the fact that the outcome of a control is uncertain, due to control noise or unmodeled exogenous effects.

⇒ In theory, the goal of a proper probabilistic model may appear to accurately model the specific type of uncertainty that exist in robot actuation and perception.

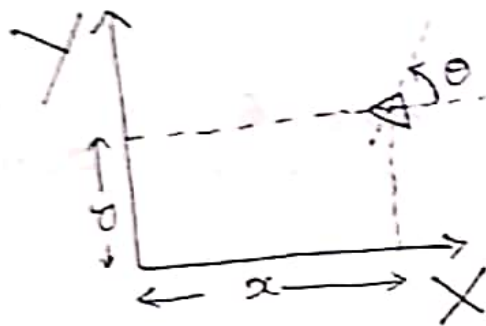
→ In practice, the exact shape of the model often seems to be less important than the fact that some provisions for uncertain outcome are provided in the first place.

5.2 > Preliminaries

5.2.1 > Kinematic configuration

⇒ It is calculus describing the effect of control actions on the configuration of a robot.

⇒ Mobile robot operating in planar environments, ~~where~~ kinematic state or pose, is summarized by three variables.



⇒ So, pose of the robot is described by the following vector:

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

⇒ The orientation of a robot is often called bearing or heading direction.

⇒ Pose without orientation will be called location.

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$$

⇒ Both the pose and the locations of objects in the environment may constitute the Kinematic state x_t of the robot-environment system.

5.2.2 > Probabilistic Kinematics

$$P(x_t | u_t, x_{t-1})$$

⇒ x_t and x_{t-1} are robot pose at time t and $t-1$ respectively.

⇒ u_t is motion command. (for duration of $(t-1) \rightarrow t$)

⇒ This chapter provides in detail two specific probabilistic motion models $P(x_t | u_t, x_{t-1})$, both for mobile robots operating in the plane.

⇒ First model

↳ Assumes that the motion data u_t specifies the velocity commands given to the robot's motors.

⇒ Second model

↳ Assumes that one is provided with odometry information.

(distance traveled, angle turned)

⇒ In practice, Odometry models tend to be more accurate than velocity models, for the simple reasons that most commercial robots do not execute velocity commands with the level of accuracy that can be obtained by measuring the revolution of the robot's wheels.

⇒ Odometry models are usually applied for estimation, whereas velocity models are used for probabilistic motion planning.

5.3 > Velocity motion model

⇒ The velocity motion model assumes that we can control a robot through two velocities:

→ Rotational velocity
→ Translational velocity

⇒ Translational velocity at time $t \Rightarrow V_t$

⇒ Rotational velocity at time $t \Rightarrow \omega_t$

So
$$u_t = \begin{pmatrix} V_t \\ \omega_t \end{pmatrix}$$

{ Counter-clockwise rotation positive }

{ Forward motion positive }

5.3.1) Closed Form Calculation

Input:

$$\alpha_{t-1} = (x, y, \theta)^T \quad \left\{ \text{Initial pose} \right\}$$
$$u_t = (v, \omega)^T \quad \left\{ \text{Control Command} \right\}$$
$$\alpha_t = (x', y', \theta')^T \quad \left\{ \text{hypothesized successor pose} \right\}$$

Output: $P(\alpha_t | u_t, \alpha_{t-1})$

↓

Probability of being at α_t after executing control u_t beginning in state α_{t-1} assuming the control is carried out for a fixed duration Δt .

$\alpha_1 - \alpha_6$ are robot specific motion error parameters.

⇒ The algorithm first calculates the controls of an error-free robot.
(\hat{v} and $\hat{\omega}$)

⇒ The function $\text{prob}(\alpha, b)$ models the motion error.

↓

Probability of parameter α under a zero-centered random variable with variance b .

Algorithm motion-model-velocity (x_t, u_t, p_{t-1}):

$$\mu = \frac{1}{2} \frac{(x-x') \cos \theta + (y-y') \sin \theta}{(y-y') \cos \theta - (x-x') \sin \theta}$$

$$x^* = \frac{x+x'}{2} + \mu(y-y')$$

$$y^* = \frac{y+y'}{2} + \mu(x'-x)$$

$$g^* = \sqrt{(x-x^*)^2 + (y-y^*)^2}$$

$$\Delta \theta = a \tan 2(y'-y^*, x'-x^*) \\ - a \tan 2(y-y^*, x-x^*)$$

$$\hat{v} = \frac{\Delta \theta}{\Delta t} g^*$$

$$\hat{\omega} = \frac{\Delta \theta}{\Delta t}$$

$$\hat{\gamma} = \frac{\theta' - \theta}{\Delta t} - \hat{\omega}$$

return $p_{\text{rob}}(v - \hat{v}, \alpha_1 |v| + \alpha_2 |\omega|)$
• $p_{\text{rob}}(\omega - \hat{\omega}, \alpha_3 |v| + \alpha_4 |\omega|)$
• $p_{\text{rob}}(\hat{\gamma}, \alpha_5 |v| + \alpha_6 |\omega|)$

⇒ Two possible implementation of Prob function.

① Error varies with normal distribution

Prob(a,b):

$$\text{return } \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi b}} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{a^2}{b}}$$

② Error varies with triangular distribution

Prob(a,b):

if $|a| > \sqrt{6}b$

return 0

else

$$\text{return } \frac{\sqrt{6}b - |a|}{6b}$$

5.3.2 > Sampling Algorithm

⇒ In sampling, one is given u_t and x_{t-1} and seeks to generate a random x_t drawn according to the motion model $p(x_t | u_t, x_{t-1})$

⇒ line 2 through 4 "perturb" the commanded control parameters by noise, drawn from the error parameters of the kinematic motion model.

1 Algorithm sample-motion-model-velocity (u_t, x_{t-1}):

2 $\hat{v} = v + \text{Sample}(\alpha_1 |v| + \alpha_2 |\omega|)$

3 $\hat{\omega} = \omega + \text{Sample}(\alpha_3 |v| + \alpha_4 |\omega|)$

4 $\hat{y} = \text{Sample}(\alpha_5 |v| + \alpha_6 |\omega|)$

5 $x' = x - \frac{\hat{v}}{\hat{\omega}} \sin \theta + \frac{\hat{v}}{\hat{\omega}} \sin(\theta + \hat{\omega} \Delta t)$

6 $y' = y + \frac{\hat{v}}{\hat{\omega}} \cos \theta - \frac{\hat{v}}{\hat{\omega}} \cos(\theta + \hat{\omega} \Delta t)$

7 $\theta' = \theta + \hat{\omega} \Delta t + \hat{y} \Delta t$

8 return $x_t = (x', y', \theta')^T$

\Rightarrow Sampling algorithm for normal distribution (b):

Sample(b):

return $\frac{b}{6} \sum_{i=1}^{12} \text{rand}(-1, 1)$

\Rightarrow Sampling algorithm for triangular distribution (b):

Sample(b):

return $b \cdot \text{rand}(-1, 1) \cdot \text{rand}(-1, 1)$

5.4 > Odometry motion model

⇒ Alternatively one might want to use the odometry measurements as the basis for calculating the robot's motion over time.

Odometry

↳ Commonly obtained by integrating wheel encoder information.

5.4.1 > Closed Form Calculation

⇒ Technically, Odometry are sensor measurements, not control.

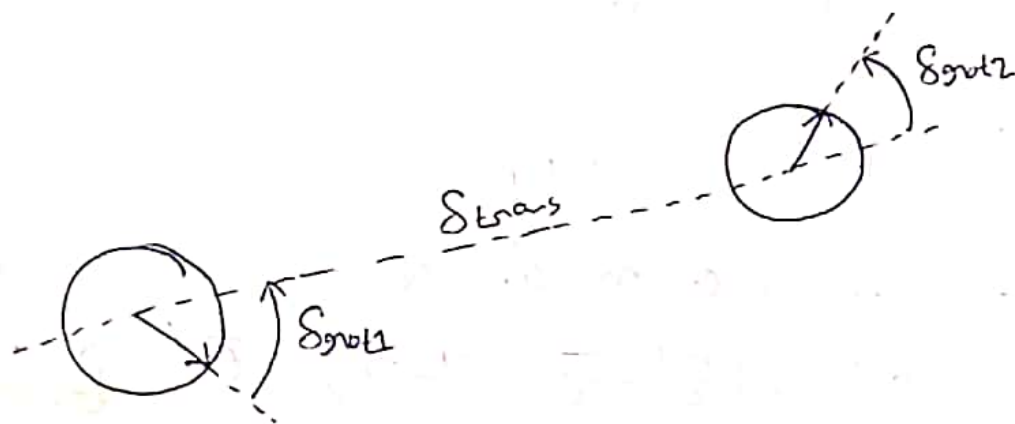
⇒ To model Odometry as measurements, the resulting Bayes filter would have to include the actual velocity as state variables — which increases the dimension of the state space.

↳ To keep state space small, it is therefore common to simply consider the odometry as if it was a control signal.

↳ The resulting model is as the case of many of today's best probabilistic robot systems.

⇒ The odometry model uses the relative information of the robot's internal odometry.

$$U_t = \begin{pmatrix} \bar{x}_{t-1} \\ \bar{x}_t \end{pmatrix} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{bar indicate that these} \\ \text{are odometry measurement} \end{array} \right\}$$



⇒ To extract relative odometry, U_t is transformed into a sequence of three steps:

- ① Rotation (δ_{rot1})
- ↓
- ② translation (δ_{trans})
- ↓
- ③ Rotation (δ_{rot2})

⇒ For each pair of position (\bar{s}, \bar{s}') has a unique parameter vector $(\delta_{rot1} \delta_{trans} \delta_{rot2})^T$.

⇒ Our motion model assumes that these three parameters are corrupted by independent noise.

Input: α_{t-1} {Anitid pose}

$$U_t = (\bar{\alpha}_{t-1}, \bar{\alpha}_t)^T \text{ {Pair of pose}}$$

α_t {hypothesized find pose}

Output: $P(\alpha_t | U_t, \alpha_{t-1})$

1 Algorithm motion model odometry ($\alpha_t, U_t, \alpha_{t-1}$):

2 $\delta_{rot1} = \text{atan2}(\bar{y}' - \bar{y}, \bar{x}' - \bar{x}) - \bar{\theta}$ { from }

3 $\delta_{trans} = \sqrt{(\bar{x} - \bar{x}')^2 + (\bar{y} - \bar{y}')^2}$ { Odometry }

4 $\delta_{rot2} = \bar{\theta}' - \bar{\theta} - \delta_{rot1}$

5 $\hat{\delta}_{rot1} = \text{atan2}(y' - y, x' - x) - \theta$ { from }

6 $\hat{\delta}_{trans} = \sqrt{(x - x')^2 + (y - y')^2}$ { given values }

7 $\hat{\delta}_{rot2} = \theta' - \theta - \hat{\delta}_{rot1}$

8 $P_1 = \text{prob}(\delta_{rot1} - \hat{\delta}_{rot1}, \alpha_1 \hat{\delta}_{rot1} + \alpha_2 \delta_{trans})$

9 $P_2 = \text{prob}(\delta_{trans} - \hat{\delta}_{trans}, \alpha_3 \hat{\delta}_{trans} + \alpha_4 (\hat{\delta}_{rot1} + \hat{\delta}_{rot2}))$

10 $P_3 = \text{prob}(\delta_{rot2} - \hat{\delta}_{rot2}, \alpha_1 \hat{\delta}_{rot2} + \alpha_2 \delta_{trans})$

11 return $P_1 \cdot P_2 \cdot P_3$

⇒ Here the implementer must observe that all angular difference must lie in $[-\pi, \pi]$.

⇒ The variables α_i through α_n are robot-specific parameters that specify the noise in robot motion.

5.4.1) Sampling Algorithm

⇒ If particle filters are used for localization, we could also like to have an algorithm for sampling from $p(x_t | u_t, x_{t-1})$

Input: x_{t-1} (initial pose)

u_t (odometry reading)

Output: x_t (distributed according to $p(x_t | u_t, x_{t-1})$)

1 Algorithm sample motion odometry (u_t, x_{t-1}):

2 $\delta_{rot1} = \text{atan2}(\bar{y}' - \bar{y}, \bar{x}' - \bar{x}) - \bar{\theta}$

3 $\delta_{trans} = \sqrt{(\bar{x} - \bar{x}')^2 + (\bar{y} - \bar{y}')^2}$

4 $\delta_{rot2} = \bar{\theta}' - \bar{\theta} - \delta_{rot1}$

5 $\hat{\delta}_{rot1} = \delta_{rot1} - \text{Sample}(\alpha_1 \delta_{rot1} + \alpha_2 \delta_{trans})$

6 $\hat{\delta}_{trans} = \delta_{trans} - \text{Sample}(\alpha_3 \delta_{trans} + \alpha_4 (\delta_{rot1} - \delta_{rot2}))$

7 $\hat{\delta}_{rot2} = \delta_{rot2} - \text{Sample}(\alpha_1 \delta_{rot2} + \alpha_2 \delta_{trans})$

8 $x' = x + \hat{\delta}_{trans} \cos(\theta + \hat{\delta}_{rot1})$

9 $y' = y + \hat{\delta}_{trans} \sin(\theta + \hat{\delta}_{rot1})$

10 $\theta' = \theta + \hat{\delta}_{rot1} + \hat{\delta}_{rot2}$

11 return $x_t = (x', y', \theta')^T$

5.5 > Motion and Map

⇒ In above motion model describes robot motion ~~at~~ in absence of any knowledge about the nature of environment.

⇒ In many cases, we are also given a map m , which may contain information pertaining to the places that a robot may or may not be able to navigate.

{ Example: Occupancy Map }

⇒ This consideration calls for a motion model that takes the map m into account.

$$p(x_t | u_t, x_{t-1}, m)$$

⇒ The motion model $p(x_t | u_t, x_{t-1}, m)$ should give better results than the map-free motion model $p(x_t | u_t, x_{t-1})$.

⇒ We will refer to $p(x_t | u_t, x_{t-1}, m)$ as map-based motion model.

⇒ Unfortunately, computing this motion model in closed form is difficult.

⇒ Luckily, there exists an efficient approximation for the map-based motion model, which works well if the distance between x_{t-1} and x_t is small.

↳ (i.e. Smaller than half of robot dimension)

$$P(x_t | u_t, x_{t-1}, m) = \gamma P(x_t | u_t, x_{t-1}) P(x_t | m)$$

→ $P(x_t | m) = 0$ if robot collides with an occupied grid cell in the map

const { Otherwise }

1. Algorithm motion model with map (x_t, u_t, x_{t-1}, m):

2 return $P(x_t | u_t, x_{t-1}) \cdot P(x_t | m)$

1 Algorithm Sample motion model with map (u_t, x_{t-1}, m):

2 do

3 $x_t = \text{Sample-motion-model}(u_t, x_{t-1})$

4 $\pi = P(x_t | m)$

5 until $\pi > 0$

6 return $\langle x_t, \pi \rangle$