

Modeling and Control for Vision Based Rear Wheel Drive Robot
and Solving Indoor SLAM Problem Using LIDAR

by

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ABSTRACT

To achieve the ambitious long-term goal of a fleet of cooperating Flexible Autonomous Machines operating in an uncertain Environment (*FAME*), this thesis addresses several critical modeling, design, control objectives for rear-wheel drive ground vehicles. Toward this ambitious goal, several critical objectives are addressed. One central objective of the thesis was to show how to build low-cost multi-capability robot platform that can be used for conducting *FAME* research.

A TFC-KIT car chassis was augmented to provide a suite of substantive capabilities. The augmented vehicle (FreeSLAM) costs less than \$500 but offers the capability of commercially available vehicles costing over \$2000.

All demonstrations presented involve rear-wheel drive FreeSLAM robot. The following summarizes the key hardware demonstrations presented and analyzed: (1) Cruise (v, θ) control along a line, (2) Cruise (v, θ) control along a curve, (3) Planar (x, y) Cartesian Stabilization for rear wheel drive vehicle, (4) Finish the track with camera pan tilt structure in minimum time, (5) Finish the track without camera pan tilt structure in minimum time, (6) Vision based tracking performance with different cruise speed, (7) Vision based tracking performance with different camera fixed look-ahead distance, (8) Vision based tracking performance with different delay from vision subsystem, (9) Manually remote controlled robot to perform indoor SLAM, (10) Autonomously line guided robot to perform indoor SLAM.

For most cases, hardware data is compared with, and corroborated by, model-based simulation data. In short, the thesis uses low-cost self-designed rear-wheel drive robot to demonstrate many capabilities that are critical in order to reach the longer-term *FAME* goal.

Dedicated to my parents

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	ix
CHAPTER	
1 INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW OF WORK	1
1.1 Introduction and Motivation	1
1.2 Literature Survey: Robotics-controls and SLAM approaches	3
1.3 Frameworks	6
1.4 Organization of Thesis	17
1.5 Summary and Conclusions	17
2 OVERVIEW OF GENERAL	
FAME ARCHITECTURE & C^4S REQUIREMENTS	19
2.1 Introduction and Overview	19
2.2 FAME Architecture and C^4S Requirements	19
2.3 Summary and Conclusions	23
3 VISION BASED COMPLETE LATERAL MODEL STUDIES AND	
SIMULATION	24
3.1 Introduction and Overview	24
3.2 Vision Based Complete Lateral Model Studies and Simulations	25
3.2.1 Nonlinear Model	25
3.3 Vision Dynamics	28
3.4 Vision Subsystem Based Complete Lateral Model	30
3.5 Frequency Domain System Analysis	32
3.5.1 Analysis of Model at Different Cruise Speed V_x	33
3.5.2 Analysis of Model at Different Look-Ahead Distance L	35

CHAPTER	Page
3.5.3	Analysis of Camera Vision Delay Issues 37
3.6	Summary and Conclusion 39
4	CASE STUDY FOR MODELING, CONTROL AND IMPLEMENT OF A SELF-DESIGNED REAR WHEEL DRIVE TESTBED : FREESLAM ROBOT 40
4.1	Introduction and Overview 40
4.2	Hardware Limitations 41
4.3	DC Motor Dynamics 44
4.4	Case Study for Vehicle Longitudinal Model and Linearized Lateral Model 49
4.5	Description of Nonlinear Model for Rear-Wheel Drive (RWD) Robot 50
4.5.1	Kinematic Model of FreeSLAM Robot 50
4.5.2	Nonlinear Dynamics Model for FreeSLAM Rear Wheel Drive Robot 52
4.6	Analysis of Linearized Model 54
4.6.1	Longitudinal Inner Loop Controller Design 57
4.6.2	On Ground Longitudinal Model 59
4.6.3	Longitudinal Model Inner Loop PI Controller Trade Studies 62
4.6.4	Lateral Inner Loop Controller Design 72
4.6.5	Lateral Model Inner Loop PI Controller frequency and Time Domain Studies 74
4.6.6	Time Domain Analysis for Robot Lateral Model 76
4.6.7	On Ground Lateral Model 77

CHAPTER	Page
4.7 Outer Loop: (v, θ) Cruise Control Along Line - Design and Implementation	79
4.8 Outer Loop: Planar (x, y) Cartesian Stabilization - Design and Implementation.....	82
4.9 Outer Loop Vision Based (v_x, θ) Control - Finish the Oval Track ..	85
4.9.1 Vision Based Black Line Guidance Outer Loop PD Controller Trade Studies	88
4.9.2 On Ground Lateral Model Outer Loop Controller Design ...	92
4.10 Complete Lateral Model for FreeSLAM Robot - Lateral Model with Pi Camera Vision Subsystem	94
4.11 Plot Analysis	95
4.11.1 Main Open Loop Transfer Functions	96
4.11.2 Line Tracking Performance Impact Factors.....	97
4.12 Finish the Track in Minimum Time - With/Without Pan Servo	104
4.13 Summary and Conclusion	107
5 SLAM WITH LIDAR SCAN DATA ONLY - HECTOR MAPPING	108
5.1 Introduction to SLAM (Simultaneous localization and mapping) ...	108
5.2 System Overview	109
5.3 Hector SLAM Approach.....	111
5.3.1 Hector SLAM Requirements	111
5.3.2 Hector Mapping-ROS API.....	111
5.3.3 Whole picture of Hector SLAM	111
5.3.4 Coordinate Frames	112
5.4 Definitions and Extended Kalman Filter Implementation	115

CHAPTER	Page
5.4.1 SLAM Problem Model and Parameters Definition	115
5.4.2 Extended Kalman Filter Implementation in Hector Mapping	117
5.4.3 Vectors Used in EKF Implementation	119
5.4.4 2D SLAM Visualization in RVIZ	122
5.4.5 Hector Mapping Node Implementation	125
5.5 EKF SLAM Implementation Results and Analysis	128
5.6 Summary and Conclusion	134
6 SLAM WITH SENSOR FUSION OF ODOMETRY AND LIDAR SCAN DATA - GMAPPING	135
6.1 Introduction and Overview	135
6.2 Detailed Modeling for Gmapping SLAM Approach	136
6.3 Probabilistic Laws	137
6.4 Sample Base Localization	139
6.5 Summary and Conclusion	141
7 SUMMARY AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS	142
7.1 Summary of Work	142
7.2 Directions for Future Research	143
REFERENCES	145
APPENDIX	
A MATLAB CODE	148
B CPP CODE	169
C C CODE	174
D PYTHON CODE	185
E ARDUINO CODE	191

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1.1 Bill of Material of FreeSLAM Robot	16
4.1 RN 260 Motor Dynamics	45
4.2 FreeSLAM Robot Nominal Parameter Values and Characteristics	47
4.3 Front Wheel Steer Angle δ_f Accuracy	48

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1.1 Side View of Self-Designed FreeSLAM Robot	8
1.2 FreeSLAM Robot Scan Mode	8
1.3 Duo's Differential Robot	9
1.4 360 Degree RP LiDAR	10
1.5 Adafruit 9DOF Inertial Measurement Unit (IMU)	11
1.6 Arduino Uno Open-Source Microcontroller Development Board	12
1.7 Adafruit Motor Shield for Arduino v2.3 - Provides PWM Signal to DC Motors	13
1.8 Raspberry Pi 3 Model B Open-Source Single Board Computer	13
1.9 Raspberry Pi 5MP Camera Module	14
1.10 EDIMAX WiFi Adapter - Enables Video Link from Robot to Central Laptop	14
1.11 Moallifusa 2 DOF Pan Tilt Servos	15
1.12 Spark Fun UART Chip	15
1.13 Spark Fun UART Pin Connections	16
2.1 <i>FAME</i> Architecture to Accommodate of Fleet of Cooperating Vehicles .	20
3.1 Kinematic Behavior of the Bicycle Model	26
3.2 Visualization of Vision Dynamics	29
3.3 The Block Diagram of the Overall Vision Based Lateral System	31
3.4 Root Locus of $V1(s)$ for Varying Cruise Speed V_x and Fixed Look- Ahead Distance $L = 15\text{m}$	33
3.5 Bode Plot of $V1(s)$ for Varying Cruise Speed V_x and Fixed Look-Ahead Distance $L = 15\text{m}$	34

Figure	Page
3.6 Root Locus of $V2(s)$ for Varying Cruise Speed V_x and Fixed Look-Ahead Distance $L = 15\text{m}$	34
3.7 Bode Plot of $V2(s)$ for Varying Cruise Speed V_x and Fixed Look-Ahead Distance $L = 15\text{m}$	35
3.8 Root Locus of $V1(s)$ for Varying Look-Ahead Distance L and Fixed Cruise Speed V_x	35
3.9 Bode Plot of $V1(s)$ for Varying Look-Ahead Distance L and Fixed Cruise Speed V_x	36
3.10 Root Locus of $V2(s)$ for Varying Look-Ahead Distance L and Fixed Cruise Speed V_x	36
3.11 Bode Plot of $V2(s)$ for Varying Look-Ahead Distance L and Fixed Cruise Speed V_x	37
3.12 Bode Plot of $V1(s)D(s)$ for Cruise Speed $V_x = 20\text{m/s}$, Look-Ahead Distance $L = 15\text{m}$ and Vision Subsystem Delay $t = 0.15\text{s}$	38
3.13 Bode Plot of $V1(s)D(s)$ for Cruise Speed $V_x = 20\text{m/s}$, Look-Ahead Distance $L = 15\text{m}$ and Varying Vision Subsystem Delay $t = 0.05\text{s}$, 0.10s , 0.15s , 0.20s	38
4.1 Encoder Resolution Before Average Filter Implementation	43
4.2 Encoder Resolution After Average Filter Implementation	43
4.3 Off Ground Motor Dynamics Comparison	46
4.4 Visualization of Kinematic Model for RWD Robot (The Bicycle Model)	51
4.5 Longitudinal Dynamics at Different Cruise Speed V_x	55
4.6 Lateral Dynamics at Different Speed V_x	56
4.7 Pole-Zero Map For Longitudinal Dynamics at Different Cruise Speed V_x	56

Figure	Page
4.8 Pole-Zero Map For Lateral Dynamics at Different Cruise Speed V_x	57
4.9 Block Diagram for Longitudinal Model Inner Loop Control	57
4.10 Longitudinal Plant e_a to v_x Step Response	60
4.11 T_{ry} (V_{ref} to V) Hardware and Simulation Result	61
4.12 Longitudinal Plant e_a to v_x Step Response	61
4.13 Bode Magnitudes for T_{ry} (With Pre-Filter and $g = 1-17, z = 0.5$)	63
4.14 Bode Magnitudes for T_{ry} (With Pre-Filter and $g = 9, z = 0.1-0.9$)	63
4.15 Bode Magnitudes for L and $g = 1-17, z = 0.5$	64
4.16 Bode Magnitudes for T (With Pre-Filter and $g = 1-17, z = 0.5$)	64
4.17 Bode Magnitudes for Sensitivity, $g = 1-17, z = 0.5$	65
4.18 Bode Magnitudes for Sensitivity, $g = 9, z = 0.1-0.9$	65
4.19 Bode Magnitudes for Complementary Sensitivity T , $g = 1-17, z = 0.5$.	66
4.20 Bode Magnitudes for Complementary Sensitivity T , $g = 9, z = 0.1-0.9$.	67
4.21 Bode Magnitude plot for Tru , $g = 1-17, z = 0.5$	68
4.22 Bode Magnitude plot for Tru , $g = 9, z = 0.1-0.9$	68
4.23 Bode Magnitude plot for $TruW$, $g = 1-17, z = 0.5$	69
4.24 Bode Magnitude plot for $TruW$, $g = 9, z = 0.1-0.9$	70
4.25 Bode Magnitude plot for $Tdiy$, $g = 1-17, z = 0.5$	71
4.26 Bode Magnitude plot for $Tdiy$, $g = 9, z = 0.1-0.9$	71
4.27 Block Diagram for Robot Lateral Model Inner Loop Control	72
4.28 Front Wheels Steering DC Servo Dynamics	72
4.29 Bode Plot for Open Loop $L_{lateral}$	74
4.30 Bode Magnitude Plot for T_{ry} without Prefilter W	75
4.31 Bode Magnitude Plot for T_{ry} with Pre-Filter W	76

Figure	Page
4.32 Step Response for T_{ry} without Pre-Filter W	76
4.33 Step Response for T_{ry} with Pre-Filter W	77
4.34 On Ground Lateral Plant	78
4.35 Lateral On Ground Inner Loop Try	79
4.36 Lateral On Ground Inner Loop Tru	79
4.37 Visualization of Cruise Control Along a Line	80
4.38 Robot Trajectory - Go Along a Line	81
4.39 Orientation Error - Go Alone a Line	81
4.40 Visualization of Planar (xy) Cartesian Stabilization Control System ...	82
4.41 Visualization of Longitudinal Distance to Target $e_s = \Delta\lambda$ and Angular Error $e_\theta = \Delta\phi$	83
4.42 Robot Position Control in xy Plane - Cartesian Stabilization (small K_θ $= 0.8$	84
4.43 Robot Position Control in xy Plane - Cartesian Stabilization (large K_θ $= 2$	84
4.44 Visualization for Vision Based Outer Loop Control System Block Di- agram	85
4.45 Feedback Black Line Tracking Error in Degrees	86
4.46 Simplified Block Diagram for Vision Based Lateral Outer Loop Control	86
4.47 Bode Plot for Open Loop L	88
4.48 Bode Magnitude Plot for Outerloop T_{ry}	89
4.49 Step Response for Outerloop T_{ry}	90
4.50 Bode Magnitude Plot for Outerloop T_{ru}	91
4.51 Bode Magnitude Plot for Sensitivity S	92

Figure	Page
4.52 T_{ry} for Lateral Outer Loop	93
4.53 T_{ru} for Lateral Outer Loop	94
4.54 Root Locus of $V1(s)$ for Varying Cruise Speed V_x and Fixed Look-Ahead Distance $L = 0.1m$	97
4.55 Bode Plot of $V1(s)$ for Varying Cruise Speed V_x and Fixed Look-Ahead Distance $L = 0.1m$	98
4.56 Robot Goes Off the Track Due to Too High Speed.....	99
4.57 Root Locus of $V1(s)$ for Varying Look-Ahead Distance L and Fixed Cruise Speed $V_x = 0.1 m/s$	100
4.58 Bode Plot of $V1(s)$ for Varying Look-Ahead Distance L and Fixed Cruise Speed $V_x = 0.1 m/s$	100
4.59 Trajectory of Robot When Small L is Applied.....	101
4.60 Bode Plot of $V1(s)D(s)$ for Cruise Speed $V_x = 20m/s$, Look-Ahead Distance $L = 15m$ and Vision Subsystem Delay $t = 0.15s$	102
4.61 Trajectory of Robot When Vision Delay is $0.1s$	103
4.62 Trajectory of Robot When Vision Delay is $0.15s$	104
4.63 Robot Finish the Track without Pan Servo in 24s	105
4.64 ψ_{error} Changing with Time without Implementing Pan Servo	105
4.65 Robot Finish the Track with Pan Servo in 20s	106
4.66 Yaw Error and Pan Servo Steer Changing with Time with Implementing Pan Servo	106
5.1 Big Picture Of Hector SLAM	112
5.2 Big Picture Of Hector SLAM	114
5.3 Standard Odometry Model	115

Figure	Page
5.4	Graphic Model of SLAM Problem Approach 116
5.5	Complete Model with Extended Kalman Filter Implementation 117
5.6	2D Grid Map 123
5.7	Bilinear Filtering Part 1 124
5.8	Bilinear Filtering of Occupancy Grid Map 125
5.9	LIDAR Point Cloud Feature Detect 127
5.10	Unknown Environment 2D Map Representation 128
5.11	Self Designed Area for Mapping 129
5.12	Comparison Between Generated Map and Real Floor Plan 130
5.13	Node rqt Graph 131
5.14	ROS tf Frames 132
5.15	Wireless SLAM in Room GWC 379C (5x3meters Room) 133
5.16	LIDAR Scan Frequency is Too Low 134
6.1	The Dynamic Bayes Network that Characterized the Evolution of Con- tols, States, and Measurements 139

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW OF WORK

1.1 Introduction and Motivation

In recent years, with the improvement of economy and society, road capacity and traffic safety are becoming serious problems. Heavy driving work and fatigue driving are two key reasons causing traffic accidents. In this case, how to improve traffic safety has become a fatal social issue. These problems have motivated new researches and applications, for example, the self-driving vehicles, which can achieve better road capacity and safer driving by using control and SLAM algorithms, etc.

As the evolution of electromechanical and computing technologies continue to accelerate, the possible applications continue to grow. This accelerated growth is observed within the robotics research. New technologies (e.g. Arduino, Raspberry Pi with compatible interfaces, software and actuators/sensors) now permit young hobbyists and researchers to perform very complicated tasks - tasks that would have required great hardware/programming expertise just a few years ago. Within this thesis, current off-the-shelf technologies (e.g. Arduino, Raspberry Pi, commercially available chassis kit) are exploited to develop low-cost ground vehicles that can be used for multi-vehicle robotics research. Short-term, the goal is to develop several low cost ground vehicle platforms that can be used for multi-vehicle robotics research. This goal is intended as a first step toward the longer-term goal of achieving a fleet of *Flexible Autonomous Machines operating in an uncertain Environment (FAME)*. Such a fleet can involve multiple ground and air vehicles that work collaboratively to accomplish coordinated tasks. Potential applications can include: Remote sens-

ing, mapping, intelligence gathering, intelligence-surveillance-reconnaissance (ISR), search, rescue and much more. It is this vast application arena as well as the ongoing accelerating technological revolution that continues to fuel robotic vehicle research.

This thesis addresses modeling, design and control issues associated with ground-based robotic vehicle. Particularly, LIDAR was used to implement Simultaneous Localization And Mapping (*SLAM*) algorithm (hector mapping) to perform indoor robot localization and mapping. Toward the longer-term *FAME* goal, several critical objectives are addressed. One central objective of the thesis was to show how to use low-cost chassis kit and convert it into somewhat “intelligent” multi-capability robotic platform that can be used for conducting *FAME* research. This thesis focuses on a rear-wheel drive robot (called FreeSLAM). Kinematic and dynamical models are examined. Rear-wheel drive means that the speed of the rear wheels are the same and controlled by a single dc motor (in our case two motors are treated identically and issued same voltage command). This vehicle class is non-holonomic: i.e. the two (2) (x, y) or (v, θ) controllable degrees of freedom is less than the three (3) total (x, y, θ) degrees of freedom. It is shown how continuous linear control theory can be used to develop suitable control laws that are essential for achieving various critical capabilities (e.g. speed control, control along a line/path, finish the track in minimum time, etc). Once the basic control issues are addressed, the vision-based lateral model is explained in detail. According to this model, three key parameters will greatly influence the tracking performance: robot cruise speed, fixed look-ahead distance and delay from vision subsystem. Each case above was well tested and discussed. Hector Mapping, which is one of the popular SLAM approaches to solve indoor SLAM problem was well discussed and implemented. Extended Kalman Filter is optimal filter to estimate the robotic pose (X , Y position and orientation) under Gaussian noise. Once we have those information, we can represent the 2D grid map of the

unknown environment using laser scan data.

To draw a brief conclusion, this chapter attempts to provide a fairly comprehensive literature survey - one that summarizes relevant literature and how it has been used. This is then used as the basis for outlining the central contributions of the thesis.

1.2 Literature Survey: Robotics-controls and SLAM approaches

In an effort to emphasize on the state of ground robotics vehicle modeling, hardware, design, control and SLAM basic approaches, the following topically literature survey is offered. In short, the following works are most relevant for the developments within this thesis:

- Tricycle-model vehicle steering control problem (presenting kinematic model) work within: [2]
- Rear-wheel drive vehicle modeling work within [3], (presenting dynamical model), addressing the affects of robot cruise speed V_x , vision subsystem look-ahead distance L and delay of vision subsystem T_d . Nominal parameters for the simulation in Chapter 3 was taken from [3]
- Camera based vision-based line/curve following work within both [3] and [14]
- Robot Operating System (ROS) architecture (ROS nodes, publisher and subscriber protocols and catkin working space etc.) within: [12]
- Extended Kalman Filter algorithm (EKF, implemented for filter the Gaussian noise for depth sensors) within: [1]
- Rao-Blackwellized Particle Filters algorithm (PF, for reducing non-Gaussian noise in SLAM problems) within: [6]

An attempt is made below to provide relevant insightful technical details.

- Rear-Wheel Drive Robot Modeling

Within this thesis, rear-wheel drive ground vehicle(Self-Designed FreeSLAM Robot) represents a central focus of the work. Here, rear-wheel drive means the car's driven wheels - i.e., the wheels that receive power from the engine (DC motors) - are the ones in back, and those two front wheels, are responsible for steering only. As such, two rear wheels are of the same speed. Nominally, we assume that the motors are identical. The motor inputs (vehicle controls) are voltages. Speed of the robot v_x depends on the applied voltages and the steering servo controls the direction (ψ in the following chapters).

Kinematic Model

A kinematic model for rear-wheel drive robot (ignoring dynamic mass-inertia effects) is presented within [3]. Within this kinematic model, it is assumed that the translational and angular velocities ($v_x, \dot{\psi}$) of the robot are realized instantaneously. Of course, it is not real because of real-world actuator(e.g. motor) limitations and mass-inertia constraints. From Newton's second law of motion, we know that an instantaneously achieved velocity requires infinite acceleration and force. In short, the kinematic model is less accurate than a dynamic model (which includes acceleration constraining mass-inertia effects).

Dynamic Model

A dynamic model can take the torques applied to the robot wheels as inputs (controls) to the system. This is done within [3]. The model presents within these works incorporates dynamic (acceleration constraining) mass-inertia effects as well as friction, wheel slippage etc. Given this, it is obvious that a dynamic model generally gives a much more accurate model of the vehicle robot.

Simultaneous localization and mapping

In robotic mapping, simultaneous localization and mapping (SLAM) is the computational problem of constructing or updating a map of an unknown environment while simultaneously keeping track of an agent's location within it. While this initially appears to be a chicken-and-egg problem there are several algorithms known for solving it, at least approximately, in tractable time for certain environments. Popular approximate solution methods include the particle filter and extended Kalman filter. SLAM algorithms are tailored to the available resources, hence not aimed at perfection, but at operational compliance. Published approaches are employed in self-driving cars, unmanned aerial vehicles, autonomous underwater vehicles, planetary rovers, newly emerging domestic robots and even inside the human body.

Extended Kalman Filter (EKF)

In robotics, EKF SLAM is a class of algorithms which utilizes the extended Kalman filter (EKF) for simultaneous localization and mapping (SLAM). Typically, EKF SLAM algorithms are feature based, and use the maximum likelihood algorithm for data association. For the past decade, the EKF SLAM has not been the major method for SLAM, until the introduction of FastSLAM.[1]

Associated with the EKF is the Gaussian noise assumption, which significantly impairs EKF SLAM's ability to deal with uncertainty. With greater amount of uncertainty in the posterior, the linearization in the EKF fails. In this thesis, EKF is used to estimate the current states of the vehicle robot, which are X, Y (current position) and (current orientation), those states are estimated and used to design controllers and solve localization problems.

Rao-Blackwellized Particle Filters algorithm (PF algorithm)

Recently Rao-Blackwellized particle filters have been introduced as effective means to solve the simultaneous localization and mapping (SLAM) problem. This approach

uses a particle filter in which each particle carries an individual map of the environment. Accordingly, a key question is how to reduce the number of particles. We present adaptive techniques to reduce the number of particles in a Rao-Blackwellized particle filter for learning grid maps. We propose an approach to compute an accurate proposal distribution taking into account not only the movement of the robot but also the most recent observation. This drastically decrease the uncertainty about the robot's pose in the prediction step of the filter. Furthermore, we apply an approach to selectively carry out re-sampling operations which seriously reduces the problem of particle depletion.

1.3 Frameworks

ROS(The Robot Operating System)

Robot Operating System (ROS) is a collection of software frameworks for robot software development, (see also Robotics middle-ware) providing operating system-like functionality on a heterogeneous computer cluster. ROS provides standard operating system services such as hardware abstraction, low-level device control, implementation of commonly used functionality, message-passing between processes, and package management. Running sets of ROS-based processes are represented in a graph architecture where processing takes place in nodes that may receive, post and multiplex sensor, control, state, planning, actuator and other messages. Despite the importance of reactivity and low latency in robot control, ROS, itself, is not a Real-time OS, though it is possible to integrate ROS with real-time code.

Both the language-independent tools and the main client libraries (C++, Python, LISP) are released under the terms of the BSD license, and as such are open source software and free for both commercial and research use. The majority of other packages are licensed under a variety of open source licenses. These other packages imple-

ment commonly used functionality and applications such as hardware drivers, robot models, data types, planning, perception, simultaneous localization and mapping, simulation tools, and other algorithms.

The main ROS client libraries (C++, Python, LISP) are geared toward a Unix-like system, primarily because of their dependence on large collections of open-source software dependencies. For these client libraries, Ubuntu Linux is listed as "Supported" while other variants such as Fedora Linux, Mac OS X, and Microsoft Windows are designated "Experimental" and are supported by the community. The native Java ROS client library, `rosjava`, however, does not share these limitations and has enabled ROS-based software to be written for the Android OS. `rosjava` has also enabled ROS to be integrated into an officially-supported MATLAB toolbox which can be used on Linux, Mac OS X, and Microsoft Windows. A JavaScript client library, `roslibjs` has also been developed which enables integration of software into a ROS system via any standards-compliant web browser.

ROS used in this thesis is the latest version: ROS JADE.

Self-Designed Rear Wheel Drive SLAM Robot Enhancement

As discussed above, and within the thesis, the rear wheel drive vehicle platform is augmented with the following:

(1) *Visualization of Full-Loaded(Enhanced) Real Rheel Drive FreeSLAM Robot - Vision Mode*

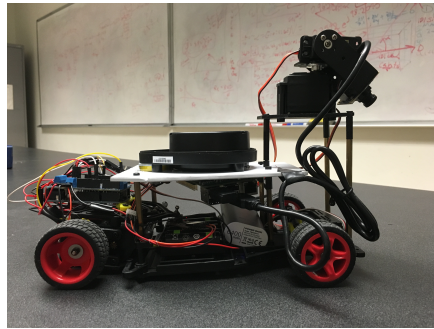


Figure 1.1: Side View of Self-Designed FreeSLAM Robot

FreeSLAM Robot: Vision Mode

Rear Wheel Drive, UAV Tracking, Camera vision sensing, Depth sensors

(2) *Visualization of Full-Loaded(Enhanced) Real Rheel Drive FreeSLAM Robot - Scan Mode*

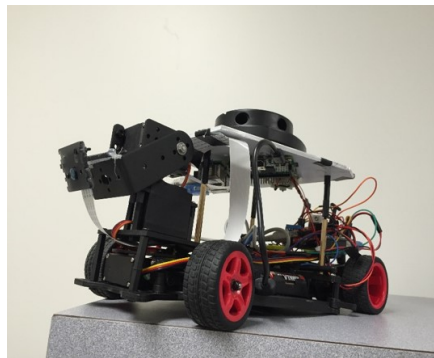


Figure 1.2: FreeSLAM Robot Scan Mode

FreeSLAM Robot : Scan Mode

High Accuracy LIDAR Sensing, Fixed Pan Servo, Less Speed for not Losing Landmarks

(3) *Duo's Differential Drive Robot*

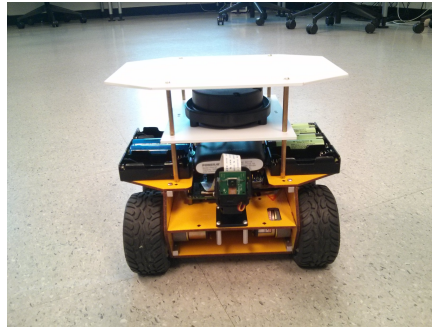


Figure 1.3: Duo's Differential Robot

(4) *360 Degree RP Lidar*

The RPLIDAR 360 Laser Scanner is a low cost 360 degree 2D scanner (LIDAR) solution. It performs 360 degree laser scanning with more than 6 meters distance detection range. The produced 2D point cloud data can be used in mapping, localization (SLAM) and object/ environment modeling. RPLIDAR emits a modulated infrared laser signal and the laser signal is then reflected by the object to be detected. The returning signal is sampled by vision acquisition in RPLIDAR and the DSP embedded in RPLIDAR starts processing the sample data, output distance value and angle value between the object and the RPLIDAR. Through processing the sample data is output through a communication interface.



Figure 1.4: 360 Degree RP LiDAR

Description:

- 360 laser scanner development kit with omnidirectional laser scan
- High speed laser triangulation vision system
- Ideal sensor for robot localization mapping
- User configurable scan rate (rotation speed) via PWM signal

Features: Omnidirectional laser scan, User configurable scan rate via the motor PWM signal, Plug Play using included USB cable, No coding job required, SLAM ready, 5.5hz (2000 sample/sec), 6 meters measurement range, Obstacle avoidance, mapping localization, navigation sensor.

Specifications: Distance range: 0.2 - 6m, Angular range: 0° - 360° , Distance resolution $<0.5\text{mm}$ (1 percent of the distance), Angular resolution: $\leq 1^{\circ}$, Sample duration: 0.5 milliseconds, Sample frequency: $\geq 2000\text{Hz}$, Scan rate: 5.5Hz, M2.5 x 15mm stand-offs.

Optical: Laser wavelength: 785 nanometer, Laser power: 3 milliwatt, Pulse length: 110 microsecond.

Applications:

- Robot localization mapping (SLAM)
- 3D modeling
- Obstacle avoidance and security
- Multitouch and human interaction

(5) *Adafruit 9DOF Inertial Measurement Unit (IMU)*

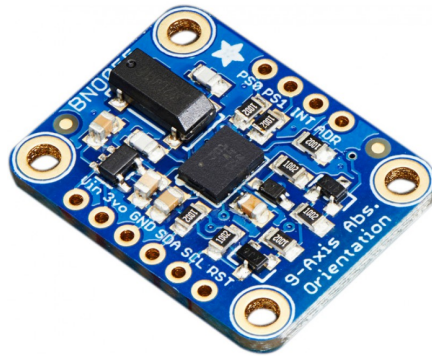


Figure 1.5: Adafruit 9DOF Inertial Measurement Unit (IMU)

Figure 1.5 is a visualization for the 9 DOF (degree of freedom) IMU we were using: BNO055. The BNO055 can output the following sensor data:

Absolute Orientation (100Hz), Angular Velocity Vector (100Hz), Acceleration Vector (100Hz), Magnetic Field Strength Vector (20Hz), Linear Acceleration Vector (100Hz), Gravity Vector (100Hz) and Temperature(1Hz). The gyroscope and accelerometer are the two sensors we have used the most.

(6) *an Arduino Uno open-source microcontroller development board (16MHZ ATmega328 processor, 32KB Flash Memory, 14 digital I/O pins, 6 analog inputs, \$25,*

see Figure 1.6) for both encoder-IMU-based speed (v, ω) or (v_x, δ_f) inner-loop control and encoder-IMU-ultrasound-based cruise-position-directional-separation outer-loop control



Figure 1.6: Arduino Uno Open-Source Microcontroller Development Board

(7) *an Arduino motor shield* (see Figure 1.7) for inner-loop motor PWM¹ speed control,

¹PWM or *pulse width modulation* is a method for generating a desired dc voltage level from a larger positive dc reference voltage. The reference voltage is switched on and off via FETs to produce a high frequency PWM (or square-wave like) signal. The FET inputs are controlled to adjust the duty cycle of the PWM signal. When the PWM signal is low pass filtered, the desired dc voltage is obtained (with some ripple). When the motor shield drives a dc motor, the motor-load moment of inertia as well as the motor's armature inductance will provide sufficient low pass filtering so that the resulting ripple is negligibly small. Given the above, complementary paired FETs can be used to produce negative dc voltages.

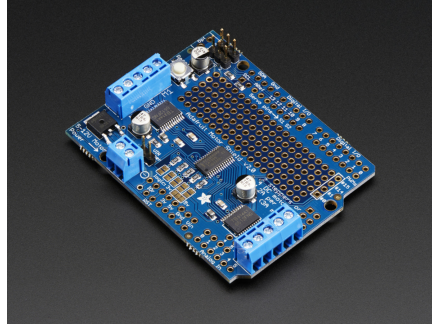


Figure 1.7: Adafruit Motor Shield for Arduino v2.3 - Provides PWM Signal to DC Motors

(8) *a Raspberry Pi III Model B single board computer* (A 1.2GHz 64-bit quad-core ARMv8 CPU, 802.11n Wireless LAN, Bluetooth 4.1, 1GB RAM 4 USB ports 40 GPIO pins, (like raspberry Pi II Model B), see Figure 1.8) for more demanding vision-based cruise-position-directional outer-loop control,

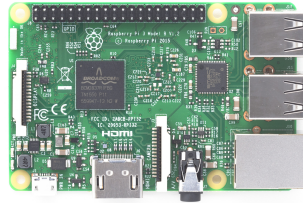


Figure 1.8: Raspberry Pi 3 Model B Open-Source Single Board Computer

(9) *Linux USB camera* (2592×1944 pixel or 5 MP static images; 1080p30 (30 fps), 720p60 and 640x480p60/90 MPEG-4 video, see Figure 1.9) for outer-loop cruise-position-directional control,

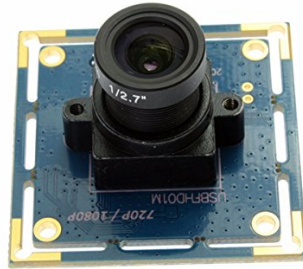


Figure 1.9: Raspberry Pi 5MP Camera Module

(10) *Wireless Communication between Raspberry Pi and PC*

FreeSLAM robot is able to establish wireless communication with host PC through ssh. This is done via WiFi - a wireless local area network based on the IEEE 802.11 (2.4, 5 GHz) standard. More precisely, PC can send commands to Pi and get data back wirelessly. see Figure 1.10) which serves as a transmitter on the robot.



Figure 1.10: EDIMAX WiFi Adapter - Enables Video Link from Robot to Central Laptop

Data will be sent to a remotely situated (< 30 m) TPLINK TL-WDR3500 wireless router (600 Mbps total bandwidth, 300 Mbps for 2.4GHz, 300 Mbps for 5GHz). The router transmits the radio signal to a wireless adapter on the nearby (< 30 m) laptop.

(11) *Mallofusa 2 DOF Pan Tilt with Mg995 Servos Sensor Mount* Each servo of this pan tilt has a scan range of 120 degrees with a 0.1 degree accuracy. This pan tilt is designed for line tracking, object tracking, video streaming, sensor fusion and extra.

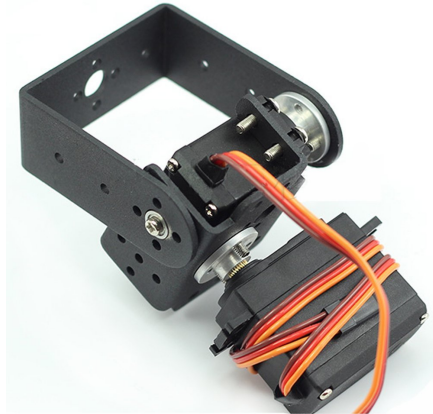


Figure 1.11: Moallifusa 2 DOF Pan Tilt Servos

(12) *USB to serial UART bridge*

SparkFun has a line of USB to serial UART bridge products designed to allow a user to communicate with a serial UART through a common USB port. It is harder to find computers with serial UART ports on them these days, but super common to find serial devices. Many of the official Arduino and clones share a common interface. This interface is essentially the 6 pin Single-In-Line (SIL), 0.1 pitch version of FTDI's TTL-232R cables.

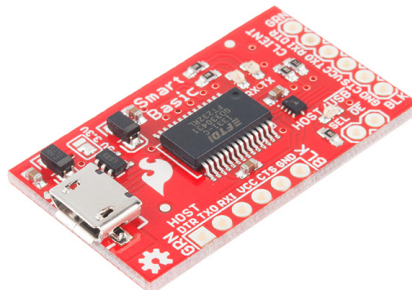


Figure 1.12: Spark Fun UART Chip

The key change from the FTDI cables to our Arduino compatible boards is that we swapped pin 6 from RTS to DTR. This change was required to match Arduinos method of resetting the ATmega328P using the DTR signal.

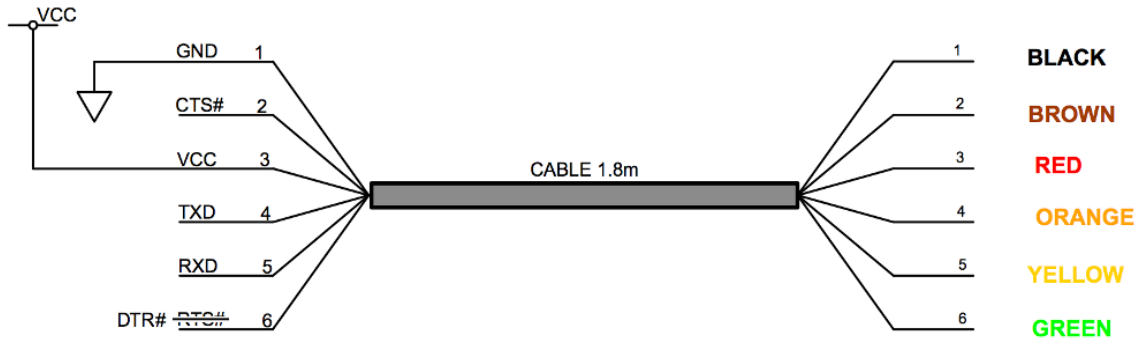


Figure 1.13: Spark Fun UART Pin Connections

Component	Price
Chassis and Motors	\$180
Futaba S3003 Servo	\$10
Arduino Uno	\$25
Adafruit Motor Shield	\$20
Raspberry Pi 2	\$40
WiFi adapter	\$25
Adafruit 9DOF IMU	\$20
Pi camera	\$20
Neato xv11 LIDAR	\$80
5V external battery for Raspberry Pi	\$20
Hitachi 18650 battery for motor	\$30
Total Price	\$470

Table 1.1: Bill of Material of FreeSLAM Robot

1.4 Organization of Thesis

The remainder of the thesis is organized as follows.

- Chapter 2 presents an overview for a general *FAME* architecture describing candidate technologies (e.g. sensing, communications, computing, actuation).
- Chapter 3 describes modeling and control issues for rear-wheel drive (RWD) ground vehicles. The ideas presented here using an academic (numerical) system provide a foundation for the work in Chapter 4.
- Chapter 4 presents system-theoretic as well as hardware results for our FreeSLAM ground robotic vehicle. Many demonstrations are described. This chapter contains the main work that was conducted.
- Chapter 5 describes one of the most popular SLAM algorithm - Hector Mapping. Hector Mapping requires LIDAR scan data only to estimated robot pose. Extended Kalman Filter implementation (to reduce Gaussian Noise) is well discussed.
- Chapter 6 summarized another SLAM approach - gmapping. For gmapping, sensor fusion of LIDAR scan data and odometry data (IMU and encoders) is required. Partical Filter is introduced in the case that input and observation noise are not Gaussian distribution.
- Chapter 7 talks about general future works and researches.

1.5 Summary and Conclusions

In this chapter, we described a general (candidate) *FAME* architecture for a fleet of cooperating robotic vehicles. This self-designed rear-wheel drive robot - FreeSLAM

robot can be a part of it. Besides, how we enhanced the robot is well addressed. In the following chapters, as we introduced before, both simulation and hardware implementation for modeling and controller design of the robot will be discussed in the following chapters.

Chapter 2

OVERVIEW OF GENERAL FAME ARCHITECTURE & C^4S REQUIREMENTS

2.1 Introduction and Overview

In this chapter, we describe a general architecture for our general *FAME* research. The architecture described attempts to shed light on command, control, communications, computing (C^4), and sensing (S) requirements needed to support a fleet of collaborating vehicles. Collectively, the C^4S and S requirements are referred to as (C^4S) requirements.

2.2 FAME Architecture and C^4S Requirements

In this section, we describe a candidate system-level architecture that can be used for a fleet of robotic vehicles¹. The architecture can be visualized as shown in Figure 2.1. The architecture addresses global/central as well as local command, control, computing, communications (C^4), and sensing (C^4S) needs. Elements within the figure are now described.

¹Here the term robotic vehicle can refer to a ground, air, space, sea or underwater vehicle.

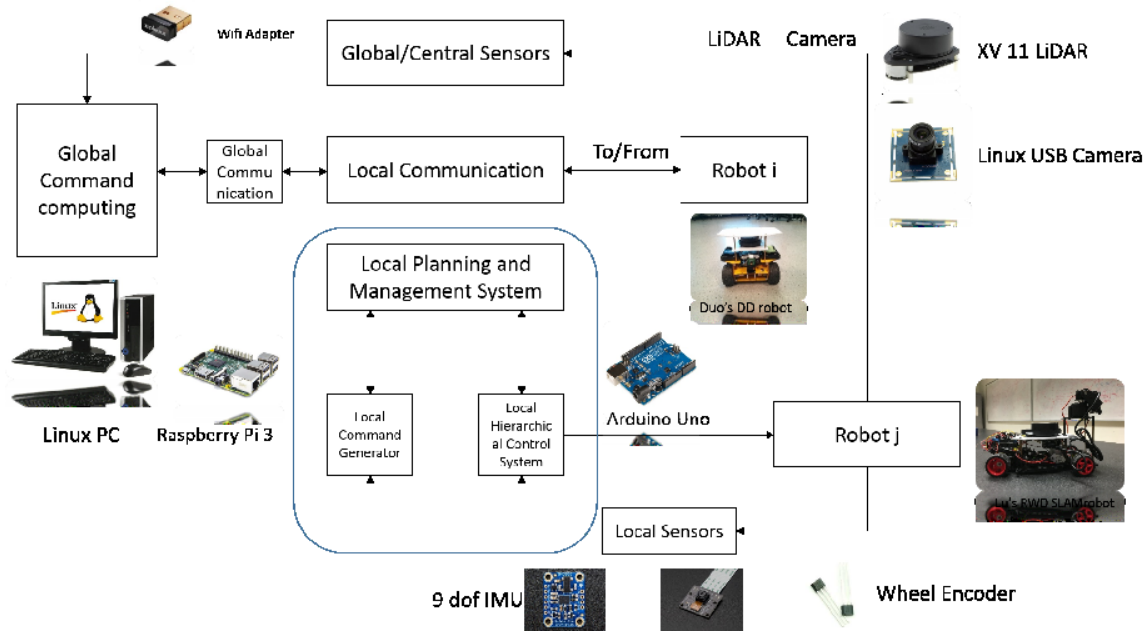


Figure 2.1: *FAME* Architecture to Accommodate of Fleet of Cooperating Vehicles

- **Central Command: Global/Central Command, Control, Computing.**

A global/central computer (or suite of computers) can be used to perform all of the very heavy computing requirements. This computer gathers information from a global/central (possibly distributed) suite of sensors (e.g. GPS, radar, cameras). The information gathered is used for many purposes. This includes temporal/spatial mission planning, objective adaptation, optimization, decision making (control), information transmission/broadcasting and the generation of commands that can be issued to members of the fleet. Within this thesis, we simply have a central command laptop.

- **Global/Central Sensing.** In order to make global/central decisions, a suite of sensors should be available (e.g. GPS, radar, cameras). This suite provides information about the state of the fleet (or individual members) that can be used by central command. Within this thesis, global sensing is achieved by

feeding back real-time video from our enhanced differential-drive robotic Thunder Tumbler vehicles to our central command laptop. Ongoing work includes a vision-lab-based localization system. Such a lab-based system offers the benefit that it can be fairly easily transported for use elsewhere (with some peruse calibration). Such a system can be used to examine a wide range of scenarios. Also ongoing is an effort to more profoundly exploit vision on individual vehicles.

- **Global/Central Communications.** In order to communicate with members of the fleet, a suite of communication devices must be available to central command. Such devices can include (wideband) spread spectrum transmitters/receivers, WiFi/Bluetooth adapters, etc. Within this thesis, we use (wideband) spread spectrum transmitters/receivers and WiFi adapters.
- **Fleet of Vehicles.** The fleet of vehicles can consist of ground, air, space, sea or underwater vehicles. Ground vehicles can consist of semi-autonomous/autonomous robotic vehicles (e.g. differential-drive, rear-wheel drive, etc.). Here, autonomous implies that no human intervention is involved (a longer-term objective). Semi-autonomous implies that some human intervention is involved. Air vehicles can consist of quadrotors, micro/nano air vehicles, drones, other air vehicles and space vehicles. Sea vehicles can consist of a variety of surface and underwater vehicles. Within this thesis the focus is on ground vehicles (e.g. rear-wheel drive robot - FreeSLAM robot).
- **Local Computing.** Every vehicle in the fleet will (generally speaking) have some computing capability. Some vehicles may have more than others. Local computing here is used to address command, control, computing, planning and optimization needs for a single vehicle. The objective for the single vehicle,

however, may (in general) involve multiple vehicles in the fleet (e.g. maintaining a specified formation, controlling the inter-vehicle spacing for a platoon of vehicles). Local computing can consist of a computer, micro-controller or suite of computers/micro-controllers. Within this thesis, we primarily exploit Arduino Uno micro-controller (16MHZ ATmega328 processor, 32KB Flash Memory, 14 digital I/O pins, 6 analog inputs, \$25) [19] and Raspberry Pi II (900 MHz quad-core ARM Cortex-A7 CPU, 1GB SDRAM, 40 GPIO pins, camera interface, \$35) [20] computer boards for local computing on a vehicle. They are low-cost, well supported (e.g. some high-level software development tools Arduino IDE and Raspberry Pi II IDLE), and easy to use.

- **Local Sensing.** Local sensing, in general, refers to sensors on individual vehicles. As such, this can involve a variety of sensors. These can include encoders, IMUs (containing accelerometers, gyroscopes, magnetometers), ultrasonic range sensors, Lidar, GPS, radar, and cameras. Within this thesis, we exploit magnetic encoders (A3144 Hall effect sensor, VELLEMAN 8 mm × 3 mm magnet, 12 per wheel), IMUs to measure vehicle rotation (9DOF, Accelerometer ± 2,4,6,8,16g. Gyro ± 245, 500, 2000°/sec. Compass ± 1.3 to ± 8.1 Gauss) [27], ultrasonic range sensors (40kHz, 0.02-3 m, approximately ±8° directional), and Raspberry Pi cameras (2592 × 1944, 30 fps, 150 MPs, MPEG-4) [24]. Lidar, GPS and radar are not used.
- **Local Communications.** Here, local communications refers to how fleet vehicles communicate with one another as well as with central command. In this thesis, vehicles exploit WiFi (IEEE 802.11 (2.4, 5GHz) standard) to send locally obtained Raspberry Pi camera video (2592 × 1944, 30 fps, 150 MPs,

MPEG-4) [24] to a central command laptop.

2.3 Summary and Conclusions

In this chapter, we described a general (candidate) *FAME* architecture for a fleet of cooperating robotic vehicles. Of critical importance to properly assess the utility of a *FAME* architecture is understanding the fundamental limitations imposed by its subsystems (e.g. bandwidth/dynamic, accuracy/static). This “fundamental limitation issue is addressed within Chapter 4 where self-designed rear-wheel drive FreeSLAM robot is used as a member of the fleet.

Chapter 3

VISION BASED COMPLETE LATERAL MODEL STUDIES AND SIMULATION

3.1 Introduction and Overview

Recent interest in self-driving car system and current advances in real-time image processing provide a suitable testbed for employing the visual information extracted from image sequences in the feedback loop of the control system.

Once including the vision part in the whole feedback control system, various strategies for controller design system are presented. We investigate the choice of the look-ahead distance L , which varies with the longitudinal velocity and is affected by the quality of the offset estimations. Several controller design techniques and closed loop simulations are presented.

The purpose of this chapter is to illustrate fundamental modeling and control design methods for a rear-wheel drive (RWD) robotic ground vehicle. This is achieved by presenting relevant model trade studies and then illustrating the design of an inner-loop $(v_x, \dot{\psi})$ speed and direction control law and associated trade-offs. Such a control law is generally the basis for any outer-loop control law.

3.2 Vision Based Complete Lateral Model Studies and Simulations

The dynamic model of the vehicle is described by a detailed 6-DOF nonlinear model. This model is too complex and not suitable for controller design. Due to the possibility decoupling of longitudinal and lateral dynamics, a linearized model of the lateral vehicle dynamics is used for controller design. Besides, closed loop simulations take into account the full nonlinear dynamic model of the vehicle.

3.2.1 Nonlinear Model

When physical parameters of the tires (tire pressure, road, tire surface condition) are fixed and cornering forces are determined solely by tire normal force, tire slip angle and tire slip ratio. In the simplified setting the tire normal force generated from the tire can be approximated by:

$$F_y = c\alpha \tag{3.1}$$

The quantity c characterizes the tire cornering capabilities and is referred to as *corneringstiffness*, and α is the tire slip angle between the orientation of the tire and its velocity. While c^* is the effective value of the cornering stiffness and μ is the road adhesiveness parameter. This relationship is captured by

$$c = \mu c^* \tag{3.2}$$

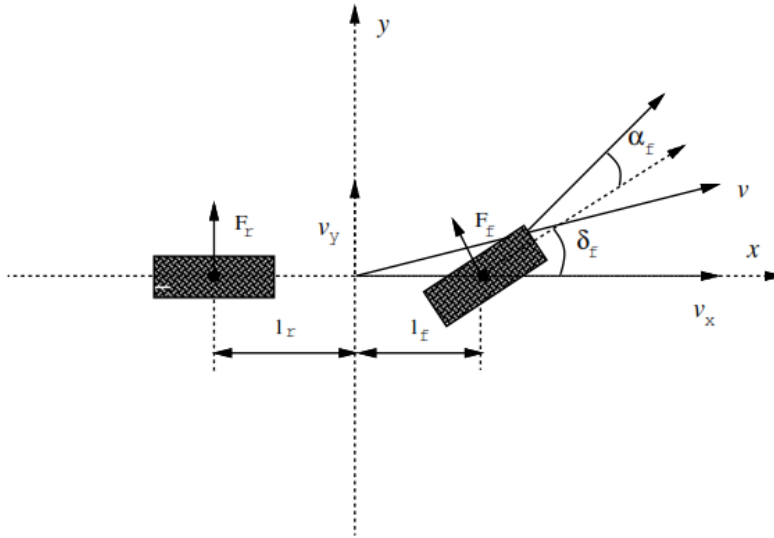


Figure 3.1: Kinematic Behavior of the Bicycle Model

The velocity $v = (v_x, v_y)$ expressed in inertial vehicle frame and the yaw rate of the vehicle $\dot{\psi}$ characterizes the motion of the vehicle. The forces acting on the front and rear wheels are F_f and F_r . Side slip angles are denoted α_f , α_r and those are the angles between the current steering angle and the vehicle's current orientation. Besides, the steering angle of the front wheel is δ_f , the distance of the axles to the center of the gravity of the vehicle are l_f and l_r .

The kinematic behavior of the vehicle which is shown above is approximated by the bicycle model, with two front and rear wheels lumped together. Lateral dynamics can be linearized by current longitudinal velocity. The net lateral force and the net torque acting on the center of the gravity of the vehicle are:

$$F = F_f + F_r \quad (3.3)$$

$$\tau = F_f l_f + F_r l_r \quad (3.4)$$

The variables and additional parameters in the model are:

v_x denotes longitudinal speed

α_f, α_r side slips angle between steering angle and front and rear tire velocities

vehicle yaw angle

δ_f front wheel steering angle

δ commanded steering angle

m total mass of the vehicle

I_ψ total inertia of the vehicle around centre of gravity

l_f, l_r distance of the front and rear axles from the CG l distance between the front

and the rear axle $l_f + l_r$ c_f, c_r cornering stiffness of the front and rear tires

Nominal Parameters

Here in the simulations, parameters are taken from [3].

The values of the parameters of the particular model used in simulations are: $\mathbf{m} = 1573\text{kg}$, $I_{psi} = 2753\text{kgm}_2$, $l_f = 1.137\text{m}$, $l_r = 1.530\text{m}$, $c_f = 2 \times 60000 \text{ N/rad}$, $c_r = 2 \times 50000 \text{ N/rad}$. The cornering stiffness is doubled since the two tires are lumped together. The individual normal forces acting at the front and rear tires are:

$$F_f = c_f \alpha_f \quad (3.5)$$

$$F_r = c_r \alpha_r \quad (3.6)$$

where slide slip angles α_f and α_r between the steering angle and the tire velocity are:

$$\alpha_f = \delta - \arctan\left(\frac{v_y + l_f \dot{\psi}}{v_x}\right) \approx \delta - \frac{v_y + l_f \dot{\psi}}{v_x} \quad (3.7)$$

$$\alpha_r = -\arctan\left(\frac{v_y - l_r \dot{\psi}}{v_x}\right) \approx \frac{-v_y + l_r \dot{\psi}}{v_x} \quad (3.8)$$

The net lateral force F and the net torque τ at the center of gravity are:

$$F = ma = m(\dot{y} + v_x \dot{\psi}) = F_f + F_r \quad (3.9)$$

$$\tau = I_\psi \ddot{\psi} = F_f l_f - F_r l_r \quad (3.10)$$

the lateral dynamics have the following form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{v}_y \\ \ddot{\psi} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{c_f + c_r}{mv_x} & -v_x + \frac{c_r l_r - c_f l_f}{mv_x} \\ -\frac{l_f c_f + l_r c_r}{I_\psi v_x} & -\frac{l_f^2 c_f + l_r c_r}{I_\psi v_x} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_y \\ \dot{\psi} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{c_f}{m} \\ \frac{l_f c_f}{I_\psi} \end{bmatrix} \delta_f$$

3.3 Vision Dynamics

The equations capturing the evolution of the measurements extracted from images (Implementing OpenCV in Raspberry Pi Camera) are as follows:

$$\dot{y}_L = v \varepsilon_L - v_y - \dot{\psi} L \quad (3.11)$$

$$\dot{\varepsilon}_L = v K_L - \dot{\psi} \quad (3.12)$$

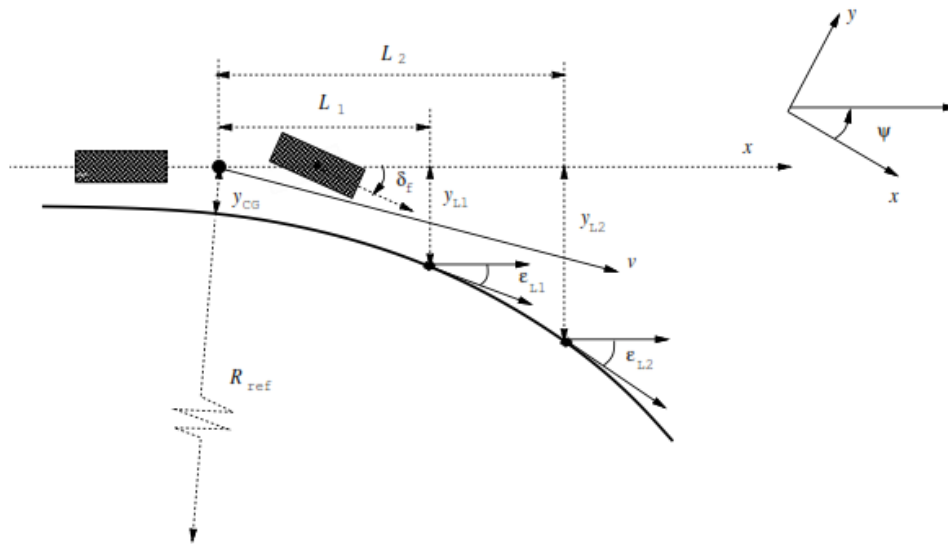


Figure 3.2: Visualization of Vision Dynamics

The vision system estimates the offset from the center line y_L and the angle between the road tangent and heading of the vehicle ε_L at some look-ahead distance L .

The additional parameters and measurements of the vision system are:

- y_L the offset from the center-line at the look-ahead distance
- ε_L the angle between the tangent to the road and the orientation of the vehicle with respect to the road
- L look ahead distance at which the measurements are taken
- K_L is the disturbance

3.4 Vision Subsystem Based Complete Lateral Model

Combining the vehicle lateral dynamics with the vision dynamics.

$$\dot{x} = Ax + Bu + E\omega \quad (3.13)$$

$$y = Cx + Du + F\omega \quad (3.14)$$

The state $x = [v_y, \dot{\psi}, y_L, \varepsilon_L]^T$ and control input $u = \delta_f$, and disturbance $\omega = K_L$.

Here is the state space equations for the complete dynamic model:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{v}_y \\ \ddot{\psi} \\ \dot{y}_L \\ \dot{\varepsilon}_L \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{c_f+c_r}{mv_x} & -v_x + \frac{c_rl_r-c_fl_f}{mv_x} & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{-l_fc_f+l_rc_r}{I_\psi v_x} & -\frac{l_f^2c_f+l_r^2c_r}{I_\psi v_x} & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & -L & 0 & v_x \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_y \\ \dot{\psi} \\ y_L \\ \varepsilon_L \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{c_f}{m} \\ \frac{l_fc_f}{I_\psi} \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \delta_f + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ v_x \end{bmatrix} K_L$$

There are two subsystems in this whole complete model. The first one is the on-board vehicle sensors subsystem, where inertial sensors (9 DOF IMU and encoders) are used for measuring lateral acceleration $\ddot{y} = (\dot{v}_y + v_x\dot{\psi})$ and the yaw rate $\dot{\psi}$. Meanwhile, the vision subsystem estimates y_L and ε_L . The road curvature K_L is working as a exogenous disturbance signal.

The output equations have following form:

$$y = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{c_f+c_r}{mv_x} & \frac{c_rl_r-c_fl_f}{mv_x} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_y \\ \dot{\psi} \\ y_L \\ \varepsilon_L \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{c_f}{m} \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \delta_f$$

The block diagram of the overall camera vision based lateral system is showed in Figure 2.4.

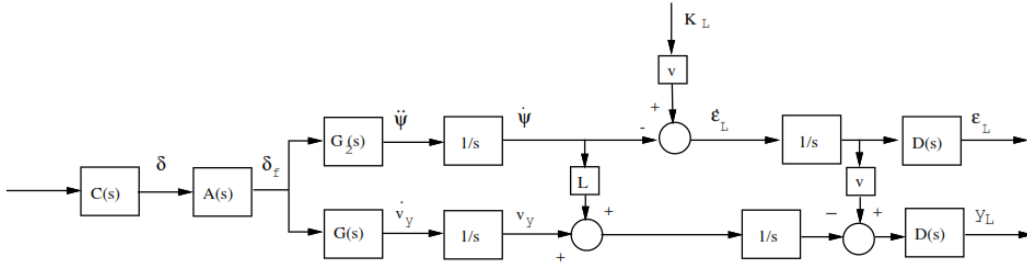


Figure 3.3: The Block Diagram of the Overall Vision Based Lateral System

There are two important transfer functions: The first one is $V_1(s)$ between the front wheel steering angle δ_f and y_L and the second one is $V_2(s)$ between δ_f and ε_L . The transfer functions $V_1(s)$ and $V_2(s)$ share a denominator $P(s)$:

$$P_s = s^2(s^2v_x^2mI_\psi + sv_x(I_\psi(c_f+c_r) + m(c_fl_f^2 + c_rl_r^2)) + c_fc_rl^2 + mv_x^2(c_fl_f + c_rl_r)) \quad (3.15)$$

and the visualization of those two important transfer functions are:

$$V_1(s) = \frac{y_L}{\delta_f} = \frac{s^2v_x^2c_fI_\psi + sv_xc_r c_f(l_fl_r + l_r^2) + c_r c_f v_x^2 l + L(s^2v_x^2c_f l_f m + sv_x c_r c_f l)}{P(s)} \quad (3.16)$$

$$V_2(s) = \frac{\varepsilon_L}{\delta_f} = \frac{s^2c_f l_f m v_x^2 + s c_f c_r v_x l}{P(s)} \quad (3.17)$$

Where δ_f denotes the front wheel steering angle, y_L is the offset from the center line at the look-ahead distance, ε_L is the angle between the tangent to the road and the orientation of the vehicle with respect to the road and L is the camera look-ahead distance.

3.5 Frequency Domain System Analysis

Under the situation that: vehicle cruise speed $V_x = 20m/s$ and fixed look-ahead distance $L = 15m$.

$$P = 1.732e09s^4 + 2.436e10s^3 + 2.675e11s^2 \quad (3.18)$$

$$V_1 = \frac{y_L}{\delta_f} = \frac{819.7s^2 + 6108s + 7390}{s^4 + 14.06s^3 + 154.4s^2} \quad (3.19)$$

$$V_2 = \frac{\varepsilon_L}{\delta_f} = \frac{49.56s + 369.5}{s^3 + 14.06s^2 + 154.4s} \quad (3.20)$$

The core of the analysis lies in the understanding of the behavior of the vehicle at various speeds (the complex nonlinear model can be linearized at different cruise speed V_x), under various road conditions. Then, we analysed how different look-ahead distance L affects the dynamic behavior of the vehicle. Besides, the delay of vision subsystem is very important too.

In the following subsection, we study the system close loop performance by analyzing root locus and bode plot. When we apply a P controller ($K = 1$) to the plant V_1 and V_2 , then we have $L = PK$, which is the open loop transfer function. Last, we can draw bode plots and root locus for the open loop transfer functions and we know the closed loop dynamics then.

3.5.1 Analysis of Model at Different Cruise Speed V_x

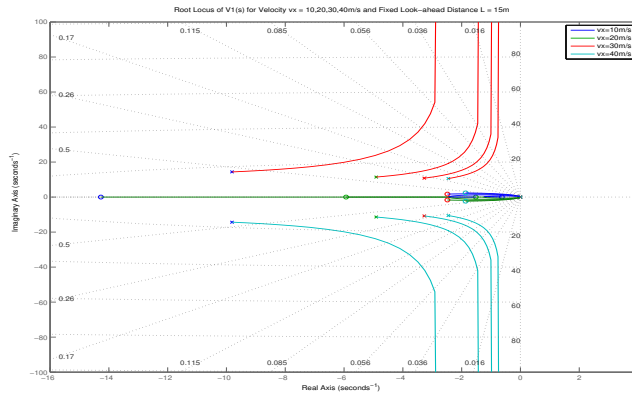


Figure 3.4: Root Locus of $V1(s)$ for Varying Cruise Speed V_x and Fixed Look-Ahead Distance $L = 15\text{m}$

Figure 3.4: As the root locus of $V1_s$ shows, overall, the double integrator at the origin corresponds to the integration action between lateral acceleration and position at the look-ahead. The two poles and zeros in the left half plane characterize the vehicle dynamics.

By increasing the cruise speed V_x , both two poles and two zeros in the left half plane are moving towards to the imaginary axis.

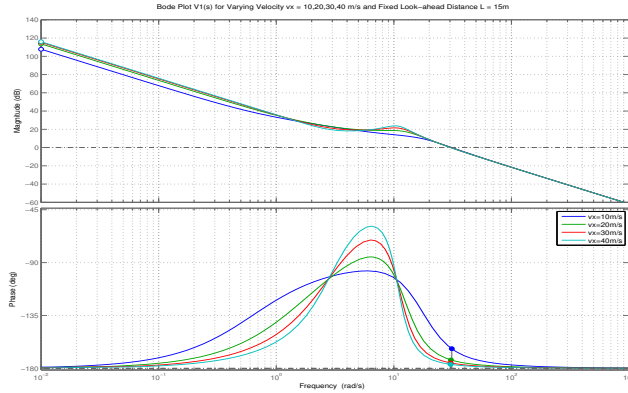


Figure 3.5: Bode Plot of $V1(s)$ for Varying Cruise Speed V_x and Fixed Look-Ahead Distance $L = 15\text{m}$

Figure 3.5: Bode plot $V1(s)$ for varying cruise speed $V_x = 10, 20, 30, 40$ m/s with a fixed camera look-ahead distance and no vision subsystem delay. It shows that increasing the cruise speed V_x will decrease the Phase Margin (PM). Under the condition that cruise speed $V_x = 40\text{m/s}$ (maximum speed in the plot), the Phase Margin (PM) is only 3.42 degrees which is not good.

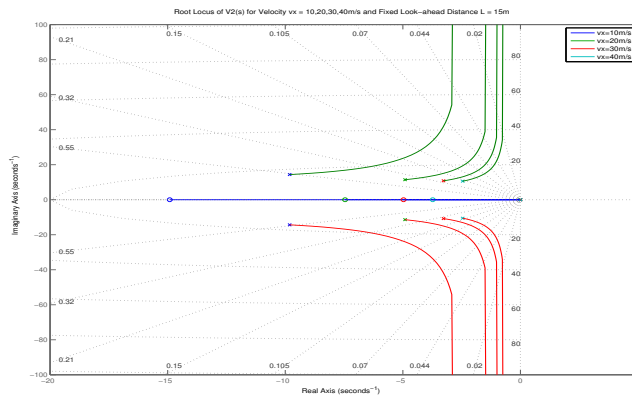


Figure 3.6: Root Locus of $V2(s)$ for Varying Cruise Speed V_x and Fixed Look-Ahead Distance $L = 15\text{m}$

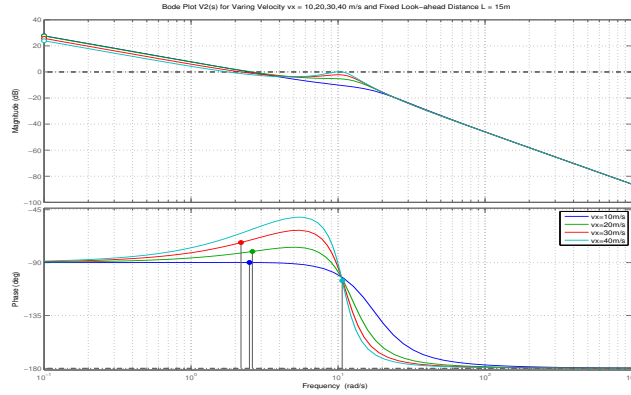


Figure 3.7: Bode Plot of $V_2(s)$ for Varying Cruise Speed V_x and Fixed Look-Ahead Distance $L = 15\text{m}$

3.5.2 Analysis of Model at Different Look-Ahead Distance L

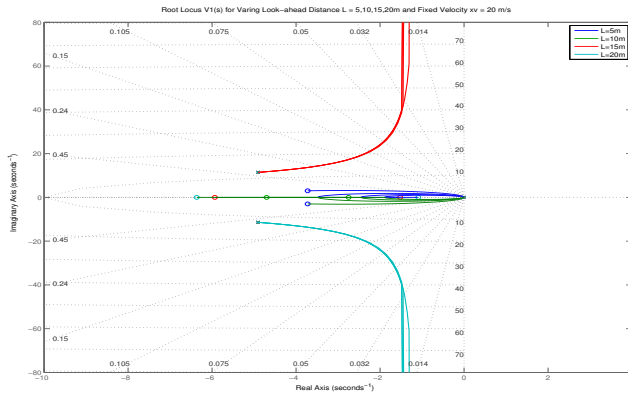


Figure 3.8: Root Locus of $V_1(s)$ for Varying Look-Ahead Distance L and Fixed Cruise Speed V_x

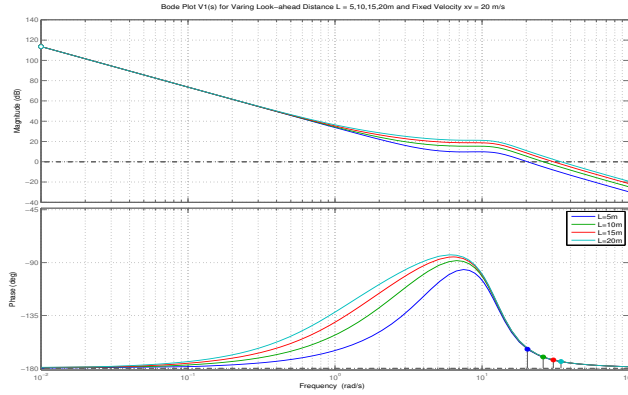


Figure 3.9: Bode Plot of $V_1(s)$ for Varying Look-Ahead Distance L and Fixed Cruise Speed V_x

Figure 3.9: Bode plot $V_1(s)$ for varying look-ahead distance $L = 5, 10, 15, 20$ m at $V_x = 20\text{m/s}$ without delay. As the plot represents, increasing the look-ahead distance L adds substantial phase lead at the crossover frequencies.

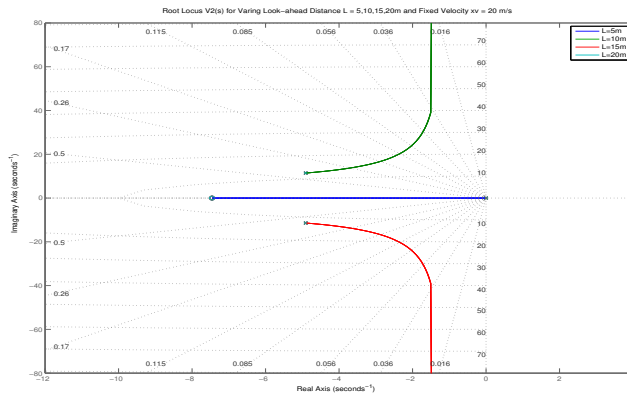


Figure 3.10: Root Locus of $V_2(s)$ for Varying Look-Ahead Distance L and Fixed Cruise Speed V_x

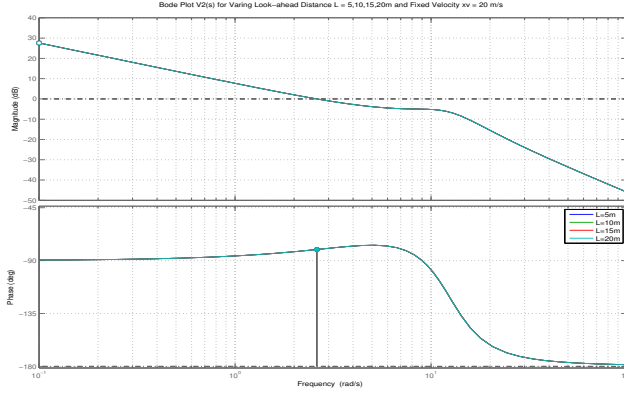


Figure 3.11: Bode Plot of $V_2(s)$ for Varying Look-Ahead Distance L and Fixed Cruise Speed V_x

3.5.3 Analysis of Camera Vision Delay Issues

One important parameter which will effect the overall system is the delay associated with the latency of visual processing. As shown in the overall system block diagram, the component is a pure time delay element $e^{-T_d s}$ representing the latency T_d of the vision subsystem. This delay component becomes:

$$D(s) = e^{-T_d s} \approx \frac{2 - T_d s}{2 + T_d s} \quad (3.21)$$

$V_1(s)D(s)$ demonstrate the effect of vision subsystem latency.

Under certain condition:

$$D(s) = \frac{-0.15s + 2}{0.15s + 2} \quad (3.22)$$

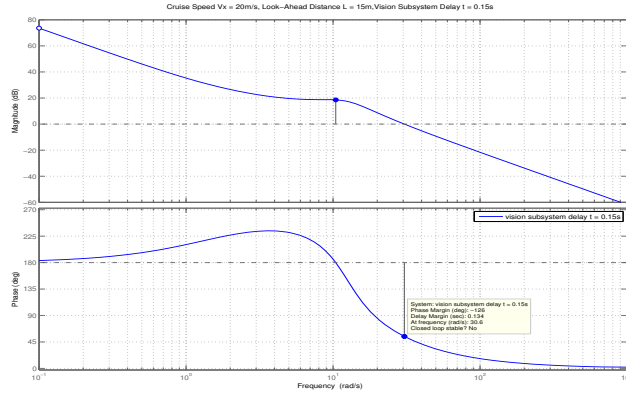


Figure 3.12: Bode Plot of $V_1(s)D(s)$ for Cruise Speed $V_x = 20\text{m/s}$, Look-Ahead Distance $L = 15\text{m}$ and Vision Subsystem Delay $t = 0.15\text{s}$

In this Situation, the Phase Margin (PM) is -126° which shows that the open loop system $V_1D(s)$ is unstable due to the 0.15s vision subsystem latency.

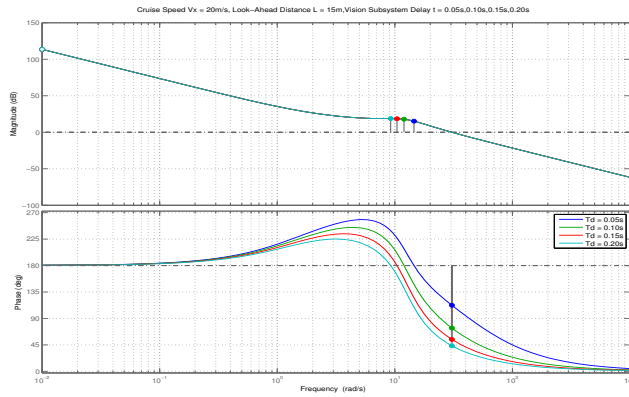


Figure 3.13: Bode Plot of $V_1(s)D(s)$ for Cruise Speed $V_x = 20\text{m/s}$, Look-Ahead Distance $L = 15\text{m}$ and Varying Vision Subsystem Delay $t = 0.05\text{s}, 0.10\text{s}, 0.15\text{s}, 0.20\text{s}$

Figure 3.13: The presence of the delay adds an additional phase lag over the whole range of frequencies. In this case, the phase margin (PM) of all circumstances will diminishes and the systems are becoming unstable.

3.6 Summary and Conclusion

Within this Chapter 3, we discussed the vision based lateral complete model, simulation results were well presented and analysed. In the following chapter, hardware implementations will be introduced and compared to the simulation results.

Chapter 4

CASE STUDY FOR MODELING, CONTROL AND IMPLEMENT OF A SELF-DESIGNED REAR WHEEL DRIVE TESTBED : FREESLAM ROBOT

4.1 Introduction and Overview

In this chapter, we describe how to significantly enhance a self-designed rear-wheel drive FreeSLAM vehicle with the capabilities described in Chapter 1. i.e. magnetic wheel encoders for estimating translational/rotational speeds and distances, IMU for vehicle posture θ estimation, camera for directional information, xv 11 hacked LIDAR for depth information, Wi-Fi adapter for wireless communication between PC and Raspberry Pi, Arduino for less intense computations, Raspberry Pi II for more intense (e.g. video based) computations. Both modeling and control issues are addressed. A TITO LTI vehicle-motor model is used as the basis for designing $(v, \dot{\psi})$ inner-loop control laws. Two outer-loop control law types are presented, analyzed and implemented in hardware: (1) (v, θ) cruise control - track following (using camera, encoder and IMU), (2) planar (x, y) Cartesian stabilization (using encoders and IMU). Once the basic control issues are addressed, the vision-based lateral model is explained in detail. According to this model, three key parameters will greatly influence the tracking performance: robot cruise speed, fixed look-ahead distance and delay from vision subsystem. Each case above was well tested and discussed. The underlying theory for each control law is explained and justified. Finally, the results from our many hardware demonstrations are presented and discussed.

4.2 Hardware Limitations

Understanding fundamental hardware limitations is critical to understand what is realistically achievable. This is addressed for each of the following: xv 11 hacked LIDAR, encoders, Raspberry pi camera, Arduino Uno, IMU, and Raspberry Pi II. The following is common to all hardware implementations for our rear-wheel drive robot.

- **Arduino D-to-A (Actuation).** In this thesis, the Arduino actuation rate to the motor shield is 10Hz (0.1 sec actuation interval) or about $60\text{rad}/\text{sec}$. Given this, the widely used factor-of-ten rule yields maximum control bandwidth of 6 rad/s. Associated with classic D-to-A actuation is a zero order hold half sample time delay.

$$ZOH(j\omega) = \frac{1 - e^{-j\omega T}}{j\omega} = e^{-j\omega 0.5T} \frac{j2 \sin \omega 0.5T}{j\omega} = T e^{-j\omega 0.5T} \left[\frac{\sin 0.5\omega T}{0.5\omega T} \right] \quad (4.1)$$

The half sample time delay is seen in the term $e^{-j\omega 0.5T}$. From the following first order Pade approximation

$$e^{-s\Delta} = \frac{e^{-s0.5\Delta}}{e^{s0.5\Delta}} \approx \frac{1 - s0.5\Delta}{1 + s0.5\Delta} = \left[\frac{\frac{2}{\Delta} - s}{\frac{2}{\Delta} + s} \right] \quad (4.2)$$

it follows that a time delay Δ has a right half plane (non-minimum phase) zero at $z = \frac{2}{\Delta}$. With $\Delta = 0.05$ (half sample time delay associated with ZOH), we get $z = \frac{2}{0.05} = 40$. This then yields, using our factor-of-ten rule, a maximum control bandwidth of about 4 rad/s. We thus see that a maximum inner-loop control bandwidth of about 4-6 rad/sec is about all we should be willing to push without further (more detailed) modeling.

- **Arduino A-to-D (Sampling).** In this thesis, the sampling time for all experimental hardware demonstrations is 10 Hz (0.1 sec actuation interval) or about

60 *rad/sec*. Given this, the widely used factor-of-ten rule yields maximum control bandwidth of 6 rad/s. It should be noted that the Arduino has a 10-bit ADC ($2^{10} = 1024$) capability . This translates to about 0.1% of the maximum speed. If we associate a maximum voltage 5 V with 10 bits and a maximum speed of 3 m/sec, it follows that a 1 bit error translates into a $\frac{3}{1024} \approx 0.003$ *m/sec* speed error. This is not very significant so long as the speeds that our vehicles are likely to operate at are not too low. If the speed is greater than 3 cm/sec, then this 1 bit error (0.003) will represent less than 10%; 5% for speeds exceeding 6 cm/sec. Again, we'd have to travel very slowly for this 1 bit error to matter.

- Wheel Encoder Limitations.** In this thesis, 12 small magnets and one hall effect sensor are used to serve as an self-designed encoder. Encoders on a vehicle's wheels can be used to measure wheel angular speed, wheel angular rotation, wheel translational speed, wheel linear translation. Lets focus on the latter because it corresponds to vehicle linear translation when moving along a straight line. For our differential-drive Thunder Tumbler vehicles, we use eight encoders on each wheel. As such, our angular resolution is $\frac{2\pi}{12} = \frac{\pi}{6}$ or 30° . This amount of error seems very large. Because we could not fit more magnets on the wheel, we maxed out at eight. We then decided to see what we could achieve with this low-cost speed-position measuring solution. A consequence of using wheel encoders for measuring distance traveled is the inevitable accumulation of dead-reckoning error. The spatial resolution associated with an 12 magnet system is $x_{resolution} = r_{wheel}\theta_{mag_{resolution}} = (2.4cm)(\frac{2\pi}{12}) \approx 1.31$ cm. How do we use this information? Let the variable 'counter' denote the number of pulses that we have counted due to wheel rotation. (The count increments each time a magnet crosses the Hall effect sensor.) The distance traveled at each count is $\Delta x = 0.0131 \times counter$ m.

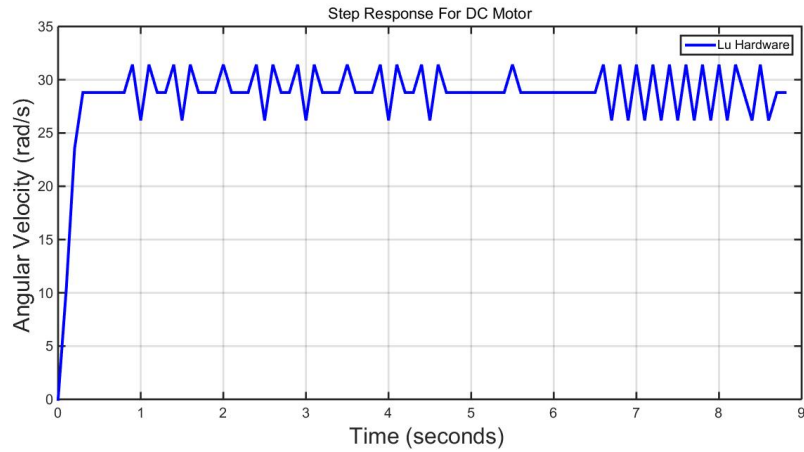


Figure 4.1: Encoder Resolution Before Average Filter Implementation

Original Encoder Resolution

Average angular velocity is 28.8 rad/s and peak to peak ripple is 5.2 rad/s .

After implementing average filter (a signal processing method)

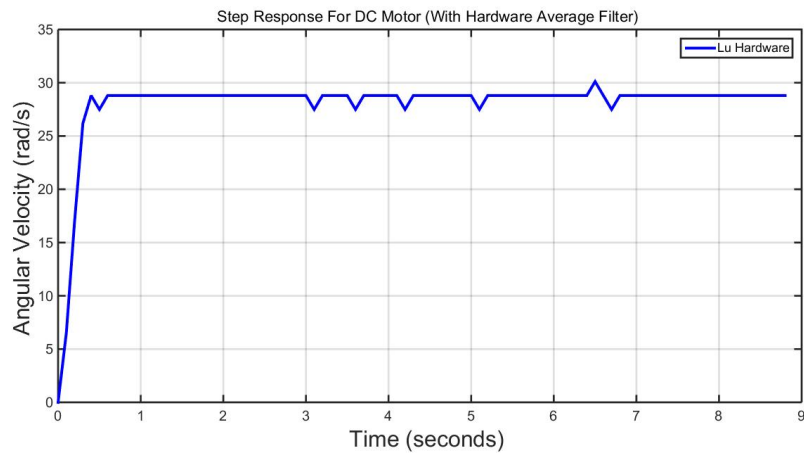


Figure 4.2: Encoder Resolution After Average Filter Implementation

Filtered Encoder Resolution

After implementing the average filter, we can make the following observations that peak to peak ripple is 2.6 rad/s , which has been greatly reduced.

4.3 DC Motor Dynamics

Estimation of Vehicle-Motor Model Parameters. The dc motor parameters were estimated by iterating between experiments and model-based time simulations. Motor armature inductance L_a was neglected. Armature resistance R_a was measured using Ohm's law: $R_a = \frac{V}{I_a}$. Settling time, steady state speed and armature current were used to solve for two parameters: angular speed damping β , back emf and torque constant $K_b = K_t$. The transfer function from armature voltage control input to angular shaft velocity for a dc motor-load combination is given by:

$$\frac{\omega}{V} = \left[\frac{\frac{K_m}{R_a I}}{s + \frac{R_a b + K_b K_m}{R_a I}} \right] \quad (4.3)$$

From this, we observe that the

$$\text{Motor DC Gain} = \frac{K_t}{K_t K_b + R_a b} \quad (4.4)$$

$$\text{Motor Dominant Pole} = \frac{R_a b + K_b K_t}{R_a I} \quad (4.5)$$

Motor Model for FreeSLAM rear wheel drive robot is RN 260-c.

Here are the parameters:

Motor(Actuator) transfer function:

$$\frac{\Omega(s)}{U_a(s)} = \frac{K_t}{L_a J s^2 + s(L_a B + R_a J) + K_e K_t + R_a B}$$

Here, e_a represents the applied armature voltage. This is the control input for an armature controlled dc motor. Other relevant variables are as follows: i_a represents the armature current, e_b represents the back emf, τ represents the torque exerted

Table 4.1: RN 260 Motor Dynamics

	Current (A)	Speed (rpm)	Torque (g*cm)	Voltage (V)
No Load	0.13	10000	0	4.5
Max Efficiency	0.51	7950	18	4.5
Max Output	1.07	5000	44	4.5
Stall	2	0	88	4.5

by the motor on the motor shaft-load system, ω represents the motor shaft angular speed.

Relevant motor parameters are as follows: L_a represents the armature inductance (often negligibly small in many applications), R_a represents the armature resistance, K_e represents the back emf motor constant, K_t represents the motor torque constant, b represents a load-motor speed rotational damping constant, and I represents the moment of inertia of the motor shaft-load system.

- **R_a Armature Resistance**

$$U_a = E_a + I_a R_a \quad (4.6)$$

$$P_1 = U_a I_a \quad (4.7)$$

$$P_M = E_a I_a \quad (4.8)$$

$$R_a = \frac{P_1 - P_M}{I_a^2} \quad (4.9)$$

- **L_a Armature Inductor**

$$L_a = 0.2mH \quad (4.10)$$

- **K_t motor torque constant and K_e motor back EMF constant**

$$T_e = K_t I_a \quad (4.11)$$

$$I_a = 1.07A \quad (4.12)$$

$$T_e = 44g \cdot cm \quad (4.13)$$

$$= 0.0043N \cdot m \quad (4.14)$$

$$K_e = K_t \quad (4.15)$$

Off Ground Motor Dynamics Comparison Between Hardware and Simulation Result

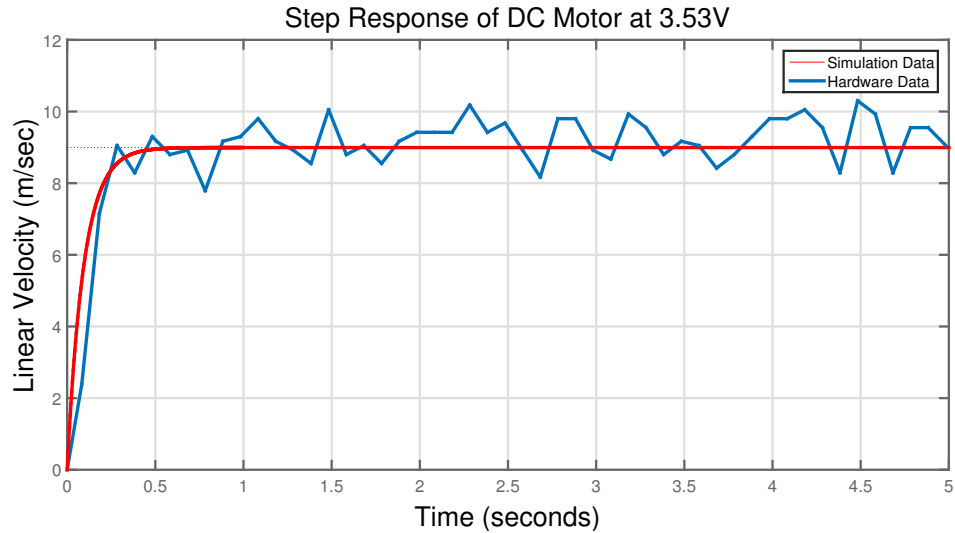


Figure 4.3: Off Ground Motor Dynamics Comparison

From figure 4.3, we can make the following observations:

When the input voltage of DC motor is 3.53V, we can measure the steady state of wheel linear velocity which is 9 *m/sec*. Motor dynamics can be estimated as a standard first order system. Settling time T_s of the system is 0.3 seconds with a step response peak-peak ripple of 2.4 *m/s*.

DC Motor Dynamics (first order plant)

$$P_{motor} = \frac{27.1}{s + 10.64} \quad (4.16)$$

Table 4.2: FreeSLAM Robot Nominal Parameter Values and Characteristics

Parameters	Definition	Nominal Values
m	Fully Loaded Mass	1.47kg
m_0	Mass (Not Loaded)	0.83kg
I	Moment of Inertia (Estimated using Cube)	0.0015kgm ²
r	Wheel Radius	0.024m
d_w	Distance Btw 2 Rear Wheels	0.134m
L_a	Armature Inductance	0.2mH (neglected)
R_a	Armature Resistance	2.523 Ω
K_b	Back EMF Constant	0.004V/(rad/sec)
K_t	Torque Constant	0.004Nm/A
v_{max}	Max. Observed Speed (Enhanced Vehicle)	5m/s
v_{max0}	Max. Observed Speed (Original vehicle)	7.2m/s
e_{amax}	Max. Motor Voltage	7.2V
a_{max}	Max. Accel. (Enhanced)	3.2m/sec ²
$\omega_{wheelmax}$	Max. Angular Vel. (Enhanced)	208.3 rad/sec

Table 4.3: Front Wheel Steer Angle δ_f Accuracy

Front Wheels Steering to The Right					
Arduino Servo PWM Command Increasement	Previous Steering Angle	Current Steering Angle	Actual Angle Increasement	Error	Percentage Error
N/A	N/A	5.9375	N/A	N/A	N/A
+5	5.9375	11.0625	5.125	+0.125	2.5%
+5	11.0625	16.0000	4.9375	-0.0625	1.25%
+5	16.0000	20.9375	4.9375	-0.0625	1.25%
+5	20.9375	25.8125	4.875	-0.125	2.5%
Front Wheels Steering to The Left					
N/A	N/A	-5.1250	N/A	N/A	
-5	-5.1250	-10.6875	-5.5625	-0.5625	11.25%
-5	-10.6875	-15.5625	-4.875	+0.125	2.5%
-5	-15.5625	-20.4375	-4.875	+0.125	2.5%
-5	-20.4375	-25.5625	-5.125	-0.125	2.5%
Avg. Steering Angle Error		3.28%			

Front Wheel Steering Angle Accuracy

To detect the accuracy of the front wheel steering inner loop, BON055 IMU is used to test the accuracy of response to Arduino servo command. Due to hardware limitations, range of steering angle is $-30^\circ \sim +30^\circ$ (+ denotes steering to the right).

4.4 Case Study for Vehicle Longitudinal Model and Linearized Lateral Model

Within this section, we address modeling, analysis and control design for rear wheel drive SLAM robot. Both kinematic and nonlinear models are examined. Nominal model parameters were accurately measured for FreeSLAM robot. The nonlinear dynamical model is a three degree-of-freedom (*dof*) sixth order model that ignores actuator (DC motor) dynamics. The linear model is fourth order if the two position variables (X, Y) are removed from the model. The dynamical model is linearized about constant translational speed conditions. The goal is to understand the model to develop speed dependent cruise control laws. The studies presented shall serve as the basis for future cruise control system designs and hardware implementations. Linearization about a constant speed (i.e. uniform rectilinear motion) results in decoupled longitudinal and lateral dynamics. As we will mention in Chapter 5, all those motions we applied to the robot, are called control data in the observatory model, they can be represented as:

$$u_{t_1:t_2} = u_{t_1}, u_{t_1+1}, u_{t_1+2}, \dots, u_{t_2} \quad (4.17)$$

The linear longitudinal model (throttle to longitudinal speed v_x) is first order, stable and minimum phase. It is easy to control and trivial. The linear lateral model (steering angle to yaw angle) is third order and it is a little bit harder to control. Model characteristics were analyzed as a function of speed (for future cruise control developments). The (steering angle to yaw rate $\dot{\psi}$) linear lateral model is stable for all speeds because the vehicle exhibits rear-wheel-dominated concerning ($l_f c_f < l_r c_r$). Given this, it follows that the linear lateral dynamics (steering angle to yaw) are marginally stable for any speed (due to an integrator to generate yaw from yaw rate).

The longitudinal input is applied longitudinal force F (can be thought of as equivalent to throttle). The associated output is speed. The lateral input is the front wheel

steering angle δ_f . The associated output is yaw angle ψ . A PI controller (with roll-off and a command pre-filter) was used for lateral angle (directional control). Control law parameters were selected at each speed in order to achieve a 5 seconds speed settling time and 2.5 seconds yaw settling time both with less than 7 percent overshoot to step reference commands. With this implementation, we then show how the control law parameters change as a function of speed again, for future cruise control law developments.

In short, the chapter presents results that will be useful for future cruise control law developments, for example, robot accurately line tracking and simultaneously localization and mapping and path planning etc.

4.5 Description of Nonlinear Model for Rear-Wheel Drive (RWD) Robot

Within this section, we examine two models for the rear wheel drive vehicle (FreeSLAM robot). The first is an ideal kinematic model one that neglects mass-inertia effects. The second one is a more accurate dynamics model that captures mass-inertia effects. It is the latter dynamics model that will be used to conduct relevant speed dependent linear trade studies within this section.

4.5.1 Kinematic Model of FreeSLAM Robot

This section describes a kinematic model for my rear wheel drive FreeSLAM robot. Being a kinematic model, it ignores mass-inertia effects. Many of the equations of motion developed from this point forward will be based upon a simplification in which both the front and rear wheels of the vehicle are lumped together to form a single front and a single rear tire. This simplification is often referred to as a single *bicycle model*. The latter of these names belies the utility of this approach. One can find more complicated models which include roll and pitch dynamics. Such models are often

used only for simulation. The *bicycle model* is more useful for analysis and control law development. Consider Figure 4.4. Within this figure, a body-fixed coordinate system is affixed to the vehicle's rear axle.

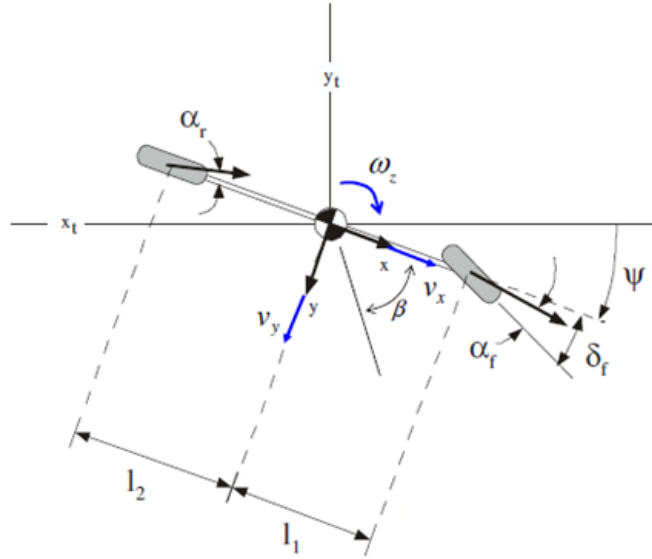


Figure 4.4: Visualization of Kinematic Model for RWD Robot (The Bicycle Model)

The vehicle's kinematics are as follows.

$$\dot{x} = v \cos \Psi$$

$$\dot{y} = v \sin \Psi$$

$$\dot{\Psi} = \frac{v \tan \Psi}{L}$$

where:

- Ψ is the vehicle angle with respect to the X - axis
- $v_x = \dot{x}$ and $v_y = \dot{y}$ are the x and y projections of v .

- L is the distance between the front and rear wheels.
- δ is the front wheel steering angel

4.5.2 Nonlinear Dynamics Model for FreeSLAM Rear Wheel Drive Robot

Nominal model parameters were measured. The following defines key model variables.

- v_x denotes longitudinal speed
- α_f, α_r side slips angle between steering angle and front and rear tire velocities
- ψ vehicle yaw angle
- δ_f front wheel steering angle
- δ commanded steering angle
- m total mass of the vehicle
- I total inertia of the vehicle around centre of gravity

The nonlinear (single track) dynamics model is used within this thesis. Nominal model parameters were accurately measured for FreeSLAM robot. The nonlinear vehicle model is described by the following dynamics equations:

$$m(\dot{v}_x - v_y r) = -c_a v_x^2 + f_{lf} \cos \delta_f + f_{lr} - f_{sf} \sin \delta_f \quad (4.18)$$

$$m(\dot{v}_y + v_x r) = f_{sf} \cos \delta_f + f_{sr} + f_{lf} \sin \delta_f \quad (4.19)$$

$$I\dot{r} = l_f f_{sf} \cos \delta_f - l_r f_{sr} + l_f f_{lf} \sin \delta_f \quad (4.20)$$

and the following represents front and rear slip angles:

$$\alpha_f = \delta_f - \left(\frac{v_y + l_f r}{v_x} \right) \quad (4.21)$$

$$\alpha_r = - \left(\frac{v_y - l_r r}{v_x} \right) \quad (4.22)$$

Additional relationships that are useful are the following:

$$a_y = \dot{v}_y + r v_x \quad (4.23)$$

$$v_y = v \sin \beta \quad (4.24)$$

The longitudinal and lateral models can be described as the following fourth order matrix.

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{v}_x \\ \dot{v}_y \\ \dot{\psi} \\ \ddot{\psi} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{-2v_x c_d}{m} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{c_f + c_r}{m v_x} & 0 & -v_x + \frac{c_r l_r - c_f l_f}{m v_x} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & \frac{-l_f c_f + l_r c_r}{I v_x} & 0 & -\frac{l_f^2 c_f + l_r^2 c_r}{I v_x} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_x \\ v_y \\ \psi \\ \dot{\psi} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{m} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{c_f}{m} \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{l_f c_f}{I} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} F \\ \delta_f \end{bmatrix}$$

$$y = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_x \\ v_y \\ \psi \\ \dot{\psi} \end{bmatrix}$$

It is a decoupled TITO LTI system for the following reasons: we can observe the zeros in both first column and first row in matrix A , which means longitudinal state v_x is not influencing the 3 lateral states (v_y , ψ and $\dot{\psi}$). In the same way, those three lateral states are not influencing the longitudinal state (v_x). According to the analysis above, we can make a brief conclusion that it is a decoupled TITO LTI System.

The values of the parameters of the FreeSLAM model used in simulations are : $m = 1.47\text{kg}$, $I = 0.0015 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2$, front wheel stiffness $c_f = 0.0368 \text{ N/rad}$, rear wheel stiffness $c_r = 0.0368 \text{ N/rad}$, the concerning stiffness is increased by factor 2 since the two tires are lumped together.

However, we have to state here that both longitudinal and lateral plant are not that accurate for the following three reasons:

- When we calculate the moment of inertia of the robot, it has been estimated as a cube
- front and rear wheel rotary stiffness (c_f and c_r) are under estimation
- the state space neglects static friction of the ground

Since the system dynamic estimation is not that accurate, we'll introduce System Identify method in the following subsection by introducing on-ground test. Comparison between the estimated model and System ID based model will be well explained.

4.6 Analysis of Linearized Model

Longitudinal Model(first order)

$$P_{longitudinal} = \frac{v_x}{F} = \frac{0.6803}{(s + 0.1116)} \quad (4.25)$$

Lateral Model (third order)

when equilibrium linear velocity v_e is 0.1 m/s

$$P_{Lateral} = \frac{\dot{\psi}}{\delta_f} = \frac{0.368(s + 0.484)}{(s + 1.007)(s + 0.457)} \quad (4.26)$$

Longitudinal Dynamics

Bode frequency response plot for the longitudinal plant as we change the equilibrium speed v_x in increments of 0.1 m/sec . We make the following observations:

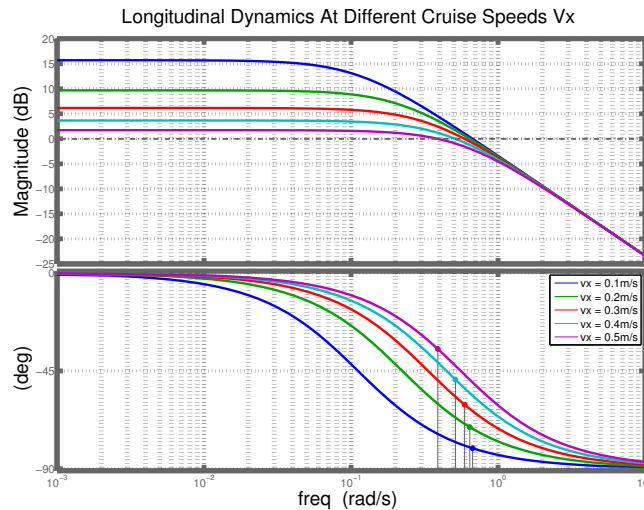


Figure 4.5: Longitudinal Dynamics at Different Cruise Speed Vx

Lateral Dynamics

Bode frequency response plot for the lateral plant as we change the equilibrium speed v_x in increments of 0.1 m/sec . We make the following observations:

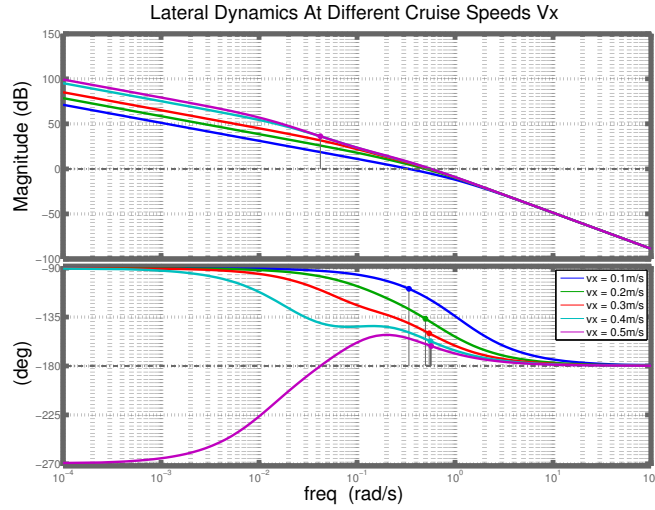


Figure 4.6: Lateral Dynamics at Different Speed V_x

Speed Dependent Pole Movement.

Bode frequency response plot for the lateral plant as we change the equilibrium speed v_x in increments of 0.1 m/sec . We make the following pole movement observations:

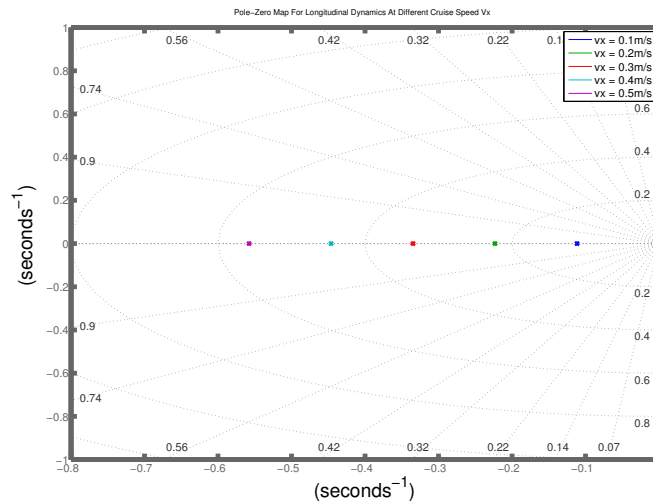


Figure 4.7: Pole-Zero Map For Longitudinal Dynamics at Different Cruise Speed V_x

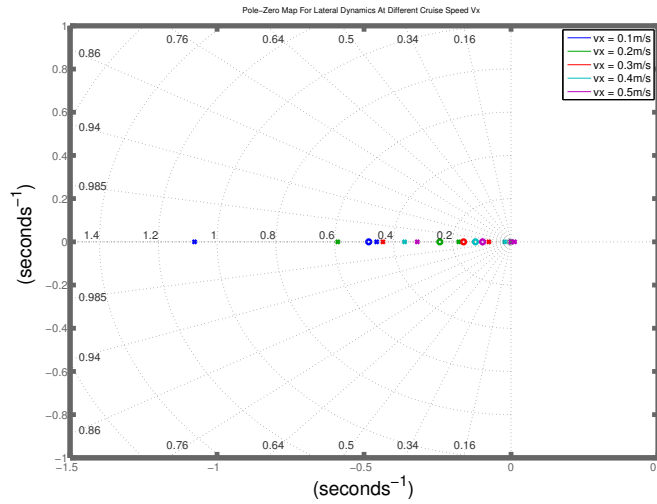


Figure 4.8: Pole-Zero Map For Lateral Dynamics at Different Cruise Speed V_x

4.6.1 Longitudinal Inner Loop Controller Design

Inner Loop Controller Design: PI With One Pole Roll-Off and Command Pre-filter

Based on the simple (decoupled first order) LTI model obtained in the previous section.

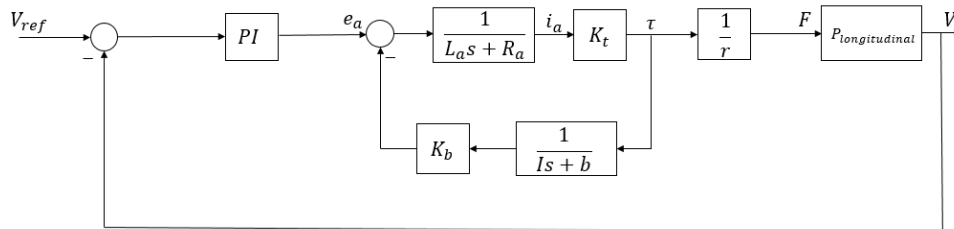


Figure 4.9: Block Diagram for Longitudinal Model Inner Loop Control

Longitudinal Plant:

$$P_{long} = \frac{V_x}{F} = \left[\frac{0.6803}{(s + 0.1116)} \right] \quad (4.27)$$

Then combining the motor dynamics we have obtained in Chapter 3

$$\frac{F}{e_a} = 0.215 \left[\frac{(s + 14.53)}{(s + 16.67)} \right] \quad (4.28)$$

we get the final longitudinal inner loop plant:

$$P_{long_inner} = P_{long} \frac{F}{e_a} = 0.146 \left[\frac{(s + 14.53)}{(s + 0.1116)(s + 16.67)} \right] \quad (4.29)$$

As we can see here, the dominant pole is ($s = -0.1116$) and the fast pole ($s = -16.67$) comes from the motor dynamics.

Here we design a PI controller with roll-off and pre-filter. The controller has the form (PI plus roll-off):

$$K_{inner} = \frac{g(s + z)^m}{s} \left[\frac{100}{s + 100} \right]^m \quad (4.30)$$

Because the rear wheel drive vehicle will have the same rear wheel speed, K_{inner} will be the same for driving two DC motors.

Then, we are going to design for a phase margin (PM) of 60 deg and unity-gain crossover frequency (ω_g) of 3 *rad/sec*. The open loop transfer function L is given by

$$L = P_{long_inner} K_{inner} = \frac{g(s + z)^m}{s} \left[\frac{0.146(s + 14.53)}{(s + 0.1116)(s + 16.67)} \right] \left[\frac{100}{s + 100} \right]^m \quad (4.31)$$

According to the phase margin $PM = 180^\circ + \angle L(j\omega_g)$, we can compute the z value, i.e.

$$PM = 180^\circ - 90^\circ + m \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{\omega_g}{z}\right) + \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{\omega_g}{14.53}\right) - \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{\omega_g}{0.1116}\right) - \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{\omega_g}{16.67}\right) - m \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{\omega_g}{100}\right) = 60^\circ \quad (4.32)$$

As a result

$$\tan^{-1}\left(\frac{3}{z}\right) = 58.12^\circ \quad (4.33)$$

$$z = 1.87 \quad (4.34)$$

Now after getting z , we obtain g by knowing that $|L(j\omega_g)| = 1$.

$$\frac{0.146g\sqrt{\omega_g^2 + z^2}\sqrt{\omega_g^2 + 14.53^2}}{\omega_g\sqrt{\omega_g^2 + 0.1116^2}\sqrt{\omega_g^2 + 16.67^2}} = 1 \quad (4.35)$$

$$g = 19.9 \quad (4.36)$$

This values of g and z yields

$$\Phi_{actual}(s) \approx s(s + 0.1116)(s + 16.67) + 0.146g(s + z)(s + 14.53) \quad (4.37)$$

A reference command pre-filter

$$W = \frac{z}{s + z} \quad (4.38)$$

The final g and z we have chosen are $g = 11.68$, $z = 02.02$.

The pre-filter W will ensure that the overshoot to a step reference command approximates that dictated by the second order theory.

4.6.2 On Ground Longitudinal Model

Actually, there is a slightly difference between the actual vehicle longitudinal on ground model with the model we have calculated.

Here is the on-ground longitudinal plant, we can see that the hardware result and simulation result are matched:

$$P_{long} = \frac{v_x}{e_a} = \frac{0.3274}{(s + 1.176)} \quad (4.39)$$

Longitudinal Plant e_a to v_x Step Response

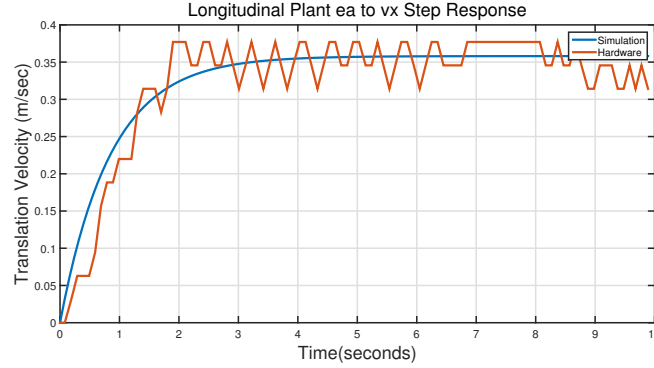


Figure 4.10: Longitudinal Plant e_a to v_x Step Response

- steady state is 0.35 m/s
- peak-peak ripple is 0.06 m/s

When we design the controller, settling time is set to 2 seconds and damping ratio is set to 0.9 (omega n is set to 2.78 rad/s and overshoot is around 0.15%), PI controller parameters are $g = 11.68$ and $z = 2.02$.

Then we have T_{ry} :

$$T_{ry} = WPK(1 + PK)^{-1} \quad (4.40)$$

$$T_{ry} = \frac{7.716}{s^2 + 5s + 7.716} \quad (4.41)$$

Finally we do the longitudinal inner loop performance studies:

T_{ry} (V_{ref} to V) Hardware and Simulation Result

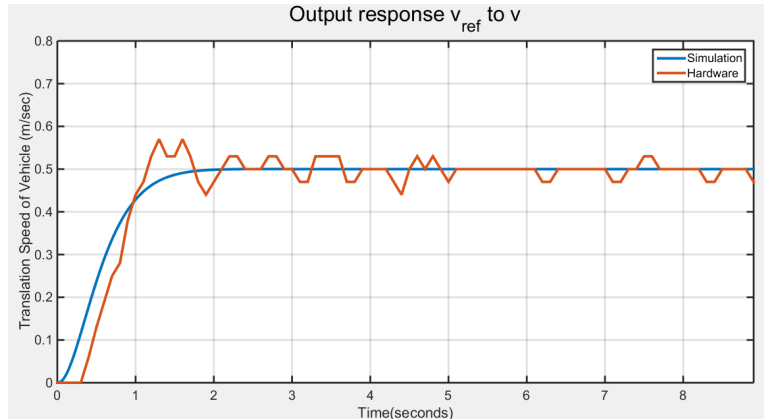


Figure 4.11: T_{ry} (V_{ref} to V) Hardware and Simulation Result

- steady state is $0.5m/s$, which is desired linear velocity
- peak-peak ripple is $0.06m/s$

T_{ru} (V_{ref} to DC motor input voltage e_a) Hardware and Simulation Result

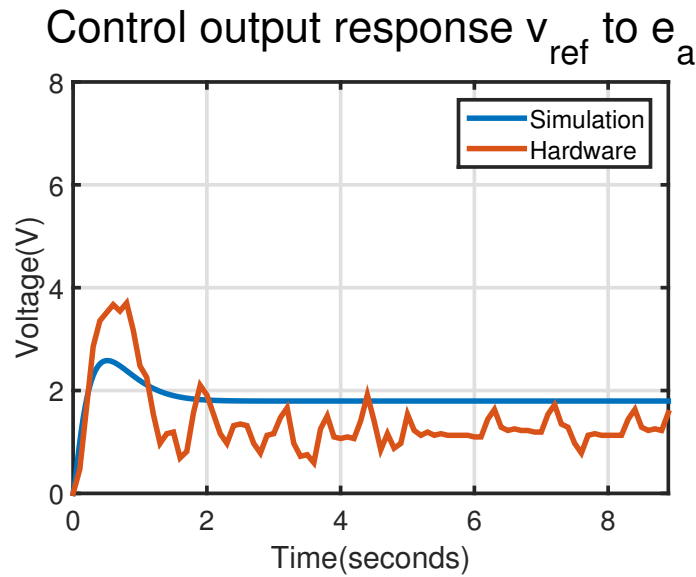


Figure 4.12: Longitudinal Plant e_a to v_x Step Response

- steady state of hardware result is $1.7 V$

- peak-peak ripple of hardware result is 0.7 V
- simulation and hardware result are matched

We can draw a brief conclusion from the plots above that the simulation and hardware results are matched well.

4.6.3 Longitudinal Model Inner Loop PI Controller Trade Studies

In what follows, $L = PK = KP$ denotes the open loop transfer function, $S = (1+L)^{-1}$ denotes the closed loop sensitivity transfer function. $T = L(1+l)^{-1}$ denotes the closed loop complementary sensitivity transfer function, KS denotes the transfer function from (unfiltered) reference commands to controls (DC motor voltages e_a), and SP denotes the transfer function from input disturbances to the wheel speeds. We now examine trade studies for gain g and zero z variations.

From Reference Command to Output T_{ry} : Magnitude Responses

When g is varied (g is from 1 to 17, $z = 0.5$), one obtains the closed loop T_{ry} magnitude responses in Figure 4.13 and Figure 4.14 contains magnitude responses for z variations ($g = 9$ and z is from 0.3 to 0.7). In this case, the pre-filter has been implemented.

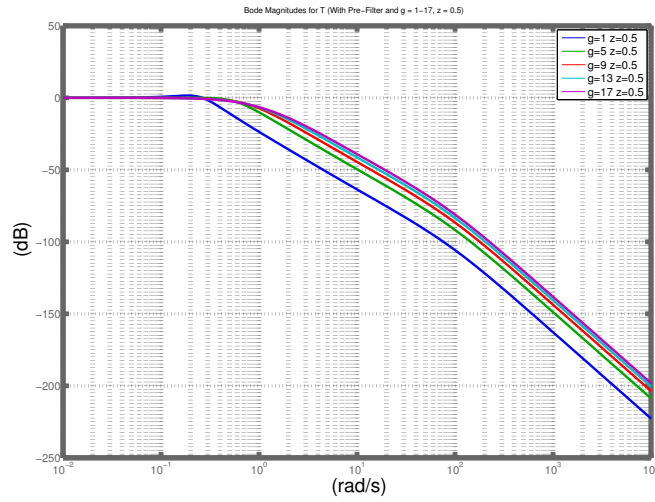


Figure 4.13: Bode Magnitudes for T_{ry} (With Pre-Filter and $g = 1-17$, $z = 0.5$)

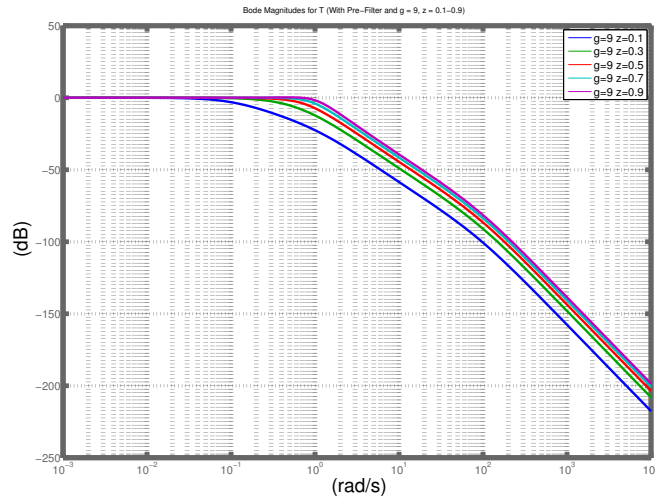


Figure 4.14: Bode Magnitudes for T_{ry} (With Pre-Filter and $g = 9$, $z = 0.1-0.9$)

From Figure 4.13 & 4.14, we observe the following:

- System bandwidth increases with increasing g or z
- Increasing z increases all peak magnitudes, peak magnitudes do not increase with a increasing g

Open Loop L Analysis

Figures 4.15 & 4.16 show the bode plots of $L = PK$ for specific (g, z) variations.

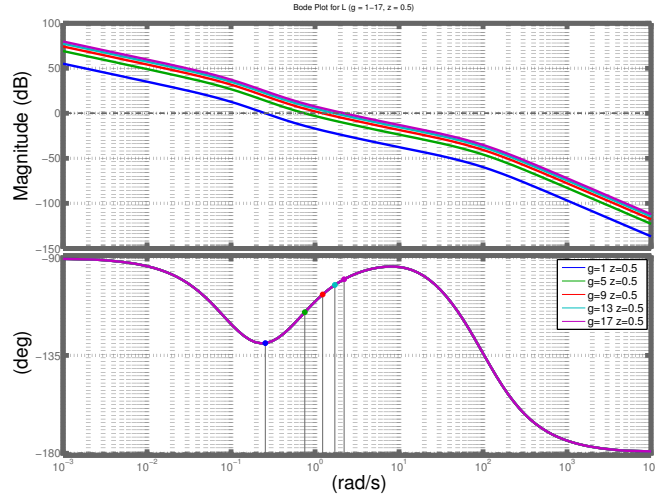


Figure 4.15: Bode Magnitudes for L and $g = 1-17, z = 0.5$

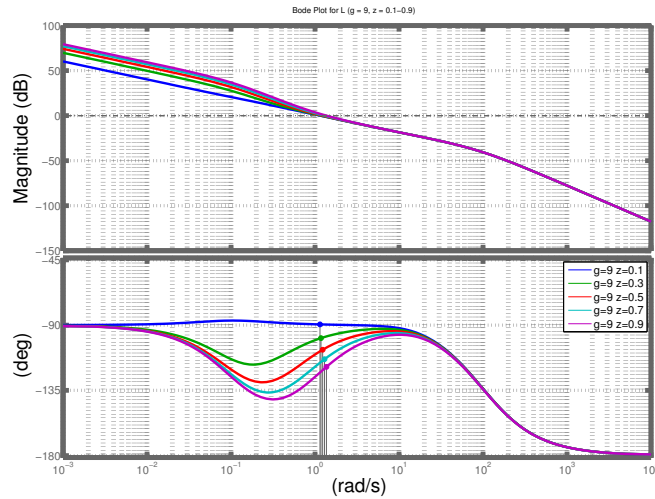


Figure 4.16: Bode Magnitudes for T (With Pre-Filter and $g = 1-17, z = 0.5$)

We observe that low frequency reference command r will be followed, low frequency output disturbances d_o will be attenuated and high frequency sensors noise n

will be attenuated too. Besides, the phase margin increases as the g is increasing.

Sensitivity (Longitudinal Decoupled Model)

Figures 4.17 & 4.18 contain sensitivity S bode-magnitude values for specific (g, z) variations.

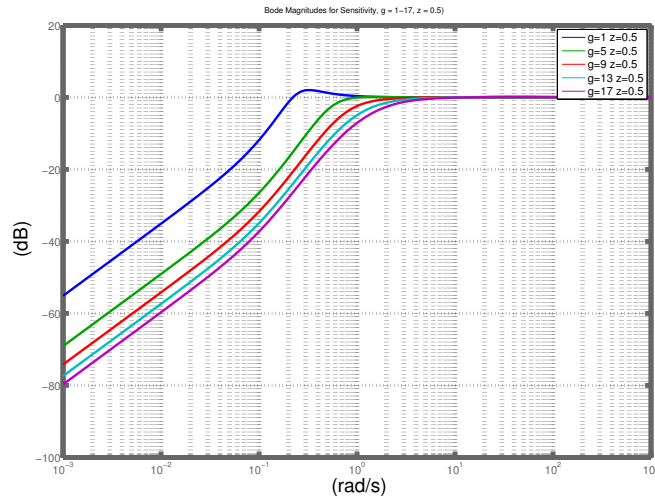


Figure 4.17: Bode Magnitudes for Sensitivity, $g = 1-17$, $z = 0.5$

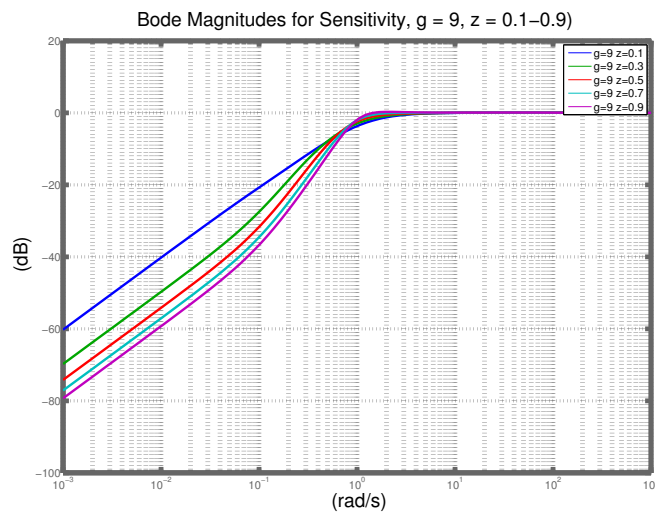


Figure 4.18: Bode Magnitudes for Sensitivity, $g = 9$, $z = 0.1-0.9$

From Figure 4.17 & 4.18, we make the following observations:

- Increasing g results in smaller sensitivities at low frequencies and a slightly larger peak sensitivity.
- Increasing z results in smaller sensitivity at low frequencies but increases peak sensitivities somewhat (since it gives "less lead near crossover").

Complementary Sensitivity

Figures 4.19 & 4.20 contain complementary sensitivity bode magnitude values for specific (g, z) variations.

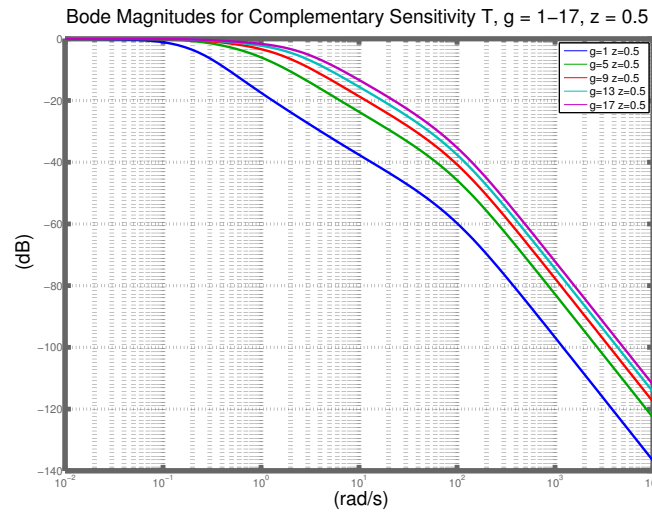


Figure 4.19: Bode Magnitudes for Complementary Sensitivity T, $g = 1-17$, $z = 0.5$

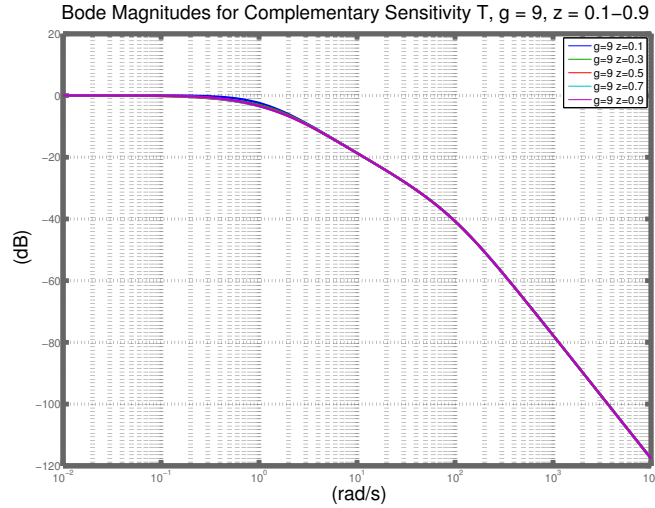


Figure 4.20: Bode Magnitudes for Complementary Sensitivity T , $g = 9$, $z = 0.1-0.9$

- Increasing g will result in a larger bandwidth and a smaller peak complementary sensitivity T , (but worse high frequency noise attenuation; a trade-off here must be made).
- Increasing z will result in larger bandwidth and a larger peak complementary sensitivity T . High frequency noise attenuation is the same for different z values.

Reference to Control (Unfiltered)

Figure 4.21 & 4.22 contain (unfiltered) reference to control bode magnitude plot for specific (g, z) variations. As the plots above, these plots are for the reference cruise speed v_x to DC Motor input voltage e_a longitudinal speed control system. As such, they tell us what control responses result from desired $\omega_{rearwheel}$ commands. This is addressed below.

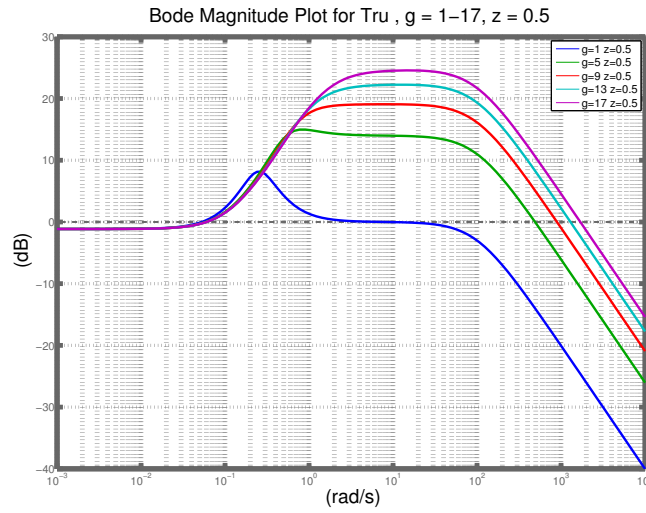


Figure 4.21: Bode Magnitude plot for Tru , $g = 1-17$, $z = 0.5$

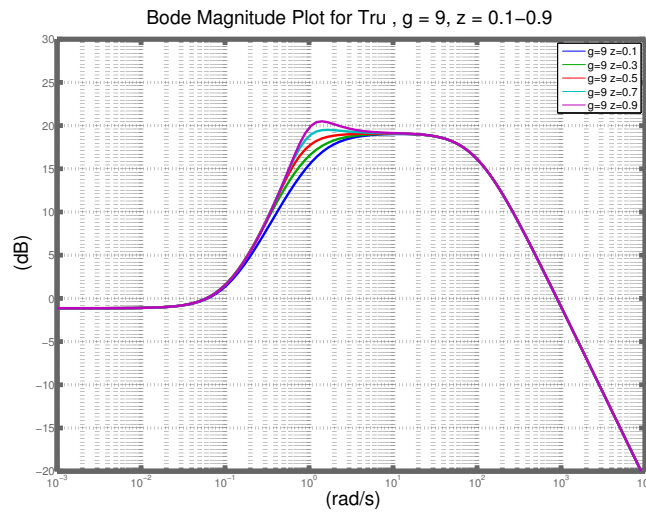


Figure 4.22: Bode Magnitude plot for Tru , $g = 9$, $z = 0.1-0.9$

- Increasing g or z increases the peak T_{ru} at all except low frequencies.
- Increasing g increases peak T_{ru}
- Increasing z increases peak T_{ru}

Reference to Control (Filtered)

As discussed above, a command pre-filter can significantly help with control action. We therefore use a command pre-filter $W = \frac{z}{s+z}$ on the reference command. Figures 4.23 & 4.24 contain (filtered) reference to control bode magnitudes for specific (g , z) variations. Here the reference command is desired robot cruise speed v_x and the control value stands for the input voltage e_a to the rear wheel DC motors.

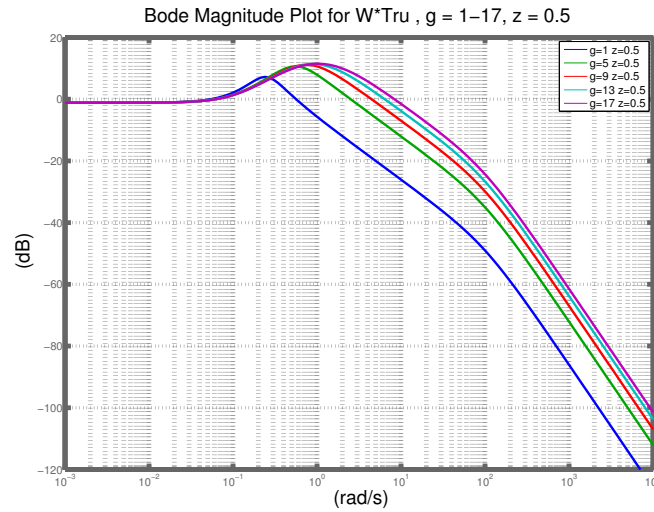


Figure 4.23: Bode Magnitude plot for TruW , $g = 1-17$, $z = 0.5$

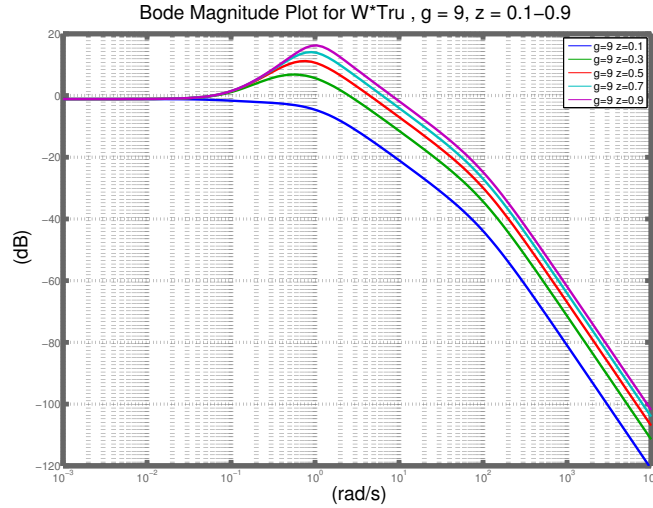


Figure 4.24: Bode Magnitude plot for $TruW$, $g = 9$, $z = 0.1-0.9$

- Increasing g or z increases the size of WT_{ru} at all but low frequencies.
- Increasing g increases the peak WT_{ru} only slightly.
- Increasing z increases the peak WT_{ru} , but it does not impact WT_{ru} at low frequencies.

The above plots suggest that overshoot and saturation due to filtered v_x commands reference command should not be too much of an issue - unless, of course, very large reference commands are issued to the inner-loop control system.

Input Disturbance to Output T_{diy} Figures 4.25 & 4.26 contain input disturbance to control singular values for specific (g, z) variations. As such, they tell us what cruise speed v_x responses result from input (DC motor input voltage e_a) disturbances.

Figures 4.25 & 4.26 contain the bode magnitude values for T_{diy} for specific (g, z) variations. We make the following observations:

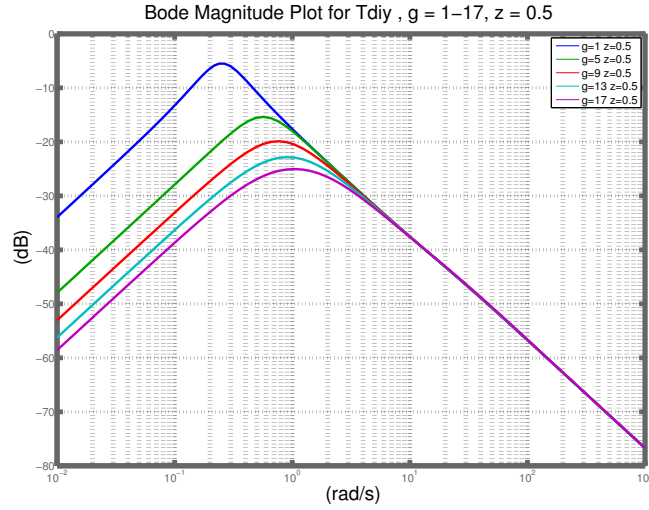


Figure 4.25: Bode Magnitude plot for T_{diy} , $g = 1-17$, $z = 0.5$

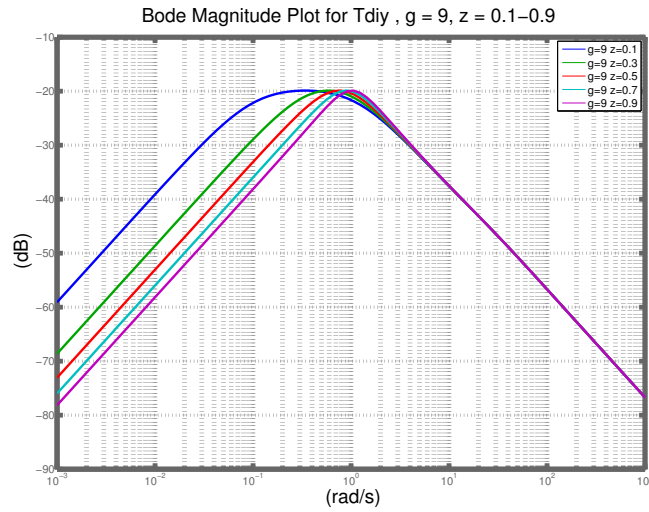


Figure 4.26: Bode Magnitude plot for T_{diy} , $g = 9$, $z = 0.1-0.9$

From Figures 4.25 & 4.26, we make the following observations.

- peak T_{diy} decreases with increasing g (z has little impact on peak)
- increasing g reduces T_{diy} at all frequencies except at high frequencies

- increasing z reduces T_{diy} at low frequencies.
- frequency at which peak T_{diy} occurs increases with increasing g (also with increasing z but to a lesser extent)

4.6.4 Lateral Inner Loop Controller Design

Lateral Inner Loop Controller Design: PI With One Pole Roll-Off and Command Pre-filter base on the lateral model we've gotten in section 4.3.

Robot Lateral Model Inner Loop Controller Design

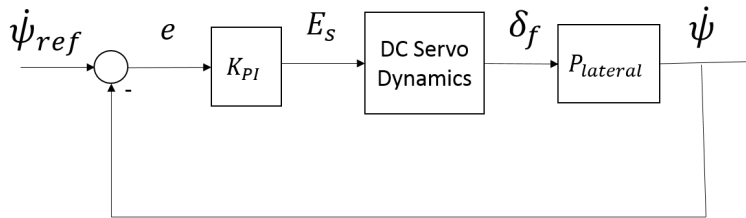


Figure 4.27: Block Diagram for Robot Lateral Model Inner Loop Control

Front Wheels Steering DC Servo Dynamics

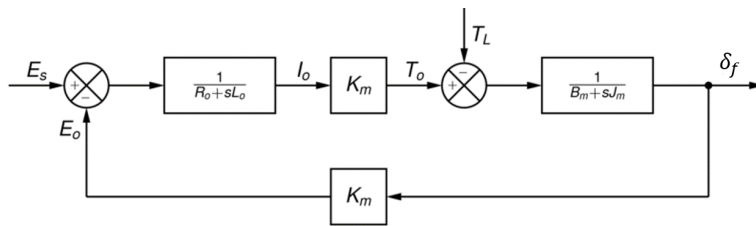


Figure 4.28: Front Wheels Steering DC Servo Dynamics

The Plot above is a complete model for the robot lateral dynamics. Actually we can control the steering angle of the DC Servo directly using Arduino Uno `servo.write` digital write command. In other word, we can control the parameter front wheel steering angle δ_f directly, as a result, DC motor dynamics was not carefully analysed

in this chapter. Besides, because the response for front wheel steering DC Servo Dynamics is fast, the *ServoDynamics* block can be estimated as a constant number block 1.

Robot Lateral Plant:

when v_x is 0.1 m/s

$$P_{Lateral} = \frac{\dot{\psi}}{\delta_f} = \left[\frac{0.368(s + 0.484)}{(s + 1.077)(s + 0.457)} \right] \quad (4.42)$$

Due to the integrator down there, it is not appropriate for us to implement a PI controller in this case. There are basically two ways to design the inner loop controller for this lateral model: The first choice is using a simple PI controller and the second option is implementing a model-based phase-lead compensator.

Let's talk about the simple PI controller (with high frequency roll-off and pre-filter) design first. The PI controller has the form:

$$K_{lateral} = \frac{g(s + z)^m}{s} \left[\frac{100}{100 + s} \right]^{m+1} \quad (4.43)$$

Then, we are going to design for a phase margin (PM) of 60 deg and unity-gain crossover frequency (ω_g) of 5 rad/sec . The open loop transfer function L is given by

$$L = P_{lateral}K_{lateral} = \frac{g(s + z)^m}{s} \left[\frac{0.368(s + 0.484)}{(s + 1.077)(s + 0.457)} \right] \left[\frac{100}{100 + s} \right]^{m+1} \quad (4.44)$$

In this case, $K_p = g$ and $K_i = gz$

Lastly, we compute the ideal g and z here. In my design, $g = 18$, $z = 1.2$.

$$W = \frac{z}{s + z} \quad (4.45)$$

Here, pre-filter W will ensure that the overshoot to a step reference command approximates that dictated by the second order theory.

4.6.5 Lateral Model Inner Loop PI Controller frequency and Time Domain Studies

In what follows, $L = PK = KP$ denotes the open loop transfer function, $S = (1+L)^{-1}$ denotes the closed loop sensitivity transfer function. $T = L(1+l)^{-1}$ denotes the closed loop complementary sensitivity transfer function, KS denotes the transfer function from (unfiltered) reference commands to controls (front wheel steering angle δ_f), and SP denotes the transfer function from input disturbances to the wheel speeds. We now examine studies for this system in both frequency and time domain.

Open Loop L Frequency Domain Analysis

Figure 4.29 show the bode plot for $L = PK$ for designed g and z .

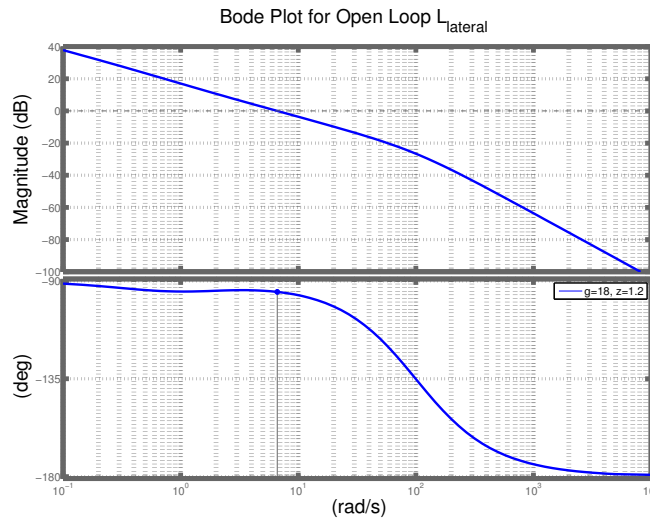


Figure 4.29: Bode Plot for Open Loop $L_{lateral}$

From Figure 4.29, we observe the following:

We observe that low frequency reference command r will be followed, low frequency

output disturbances do will be attenuated and high frequency sensors noise n will be attenuated too.

With the PI controller $g = 18$ and $z = 1.2$, the crossover frequency of open loop L is 6.63 rad/s with a phase margin (PM) equals 84.9° . This means the open loop L is stable and the system is relatively faster than the longitudinal open loop system, which reflect the hardware performances.

T_{ry} without a pre-filter W

Figure 4.30 shows the frequency response for T_{ry} without a pre-filter ($\frac{1.2}{s+1.2}$). System should be fast but not that robust like the system with a pre-filter.

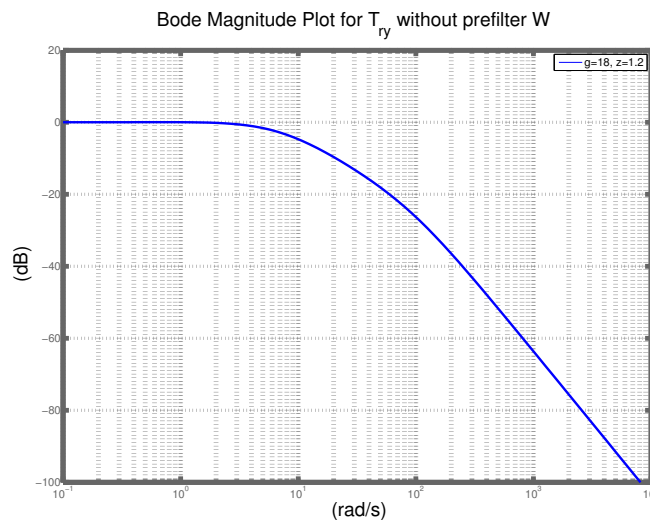


Figure 4.30: Bode Magnitude Plot for T_{ry} without Prefilter W

From Figure 4.24, we can observe that the ($-3dB$) bandwidth is 7.26 rad/s .

T_{ry} with a pre-filter W

Figure 4.31 shows the frequency response for T_{ry} with implementing a pre-filter ($\frac{1.2}{s+1.2}$). As expected, the system is more robust but the low frequency pole (comes with the pre-filter W) reduces the bandwidth. Please see time domain analysis section

for more details.

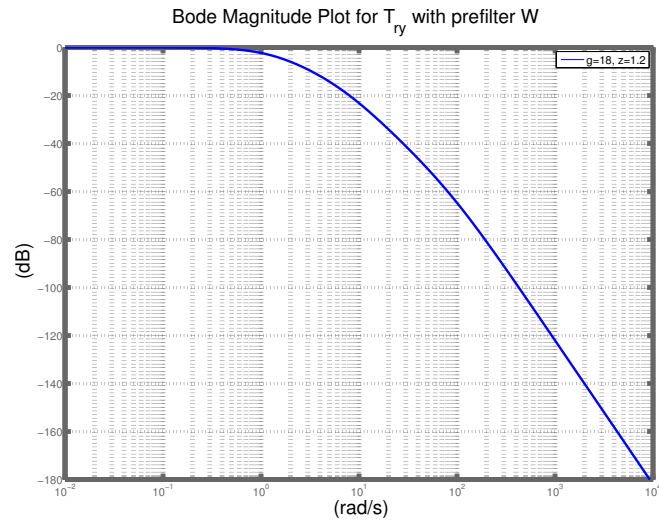


Figure 4.31: Bode Magnitude Plot for T_{ry} with Pre-Filter W

4.6.6 Time Domain Analysis for Robot Lateral Model

Step Response for T_{ry} without pre-filter W

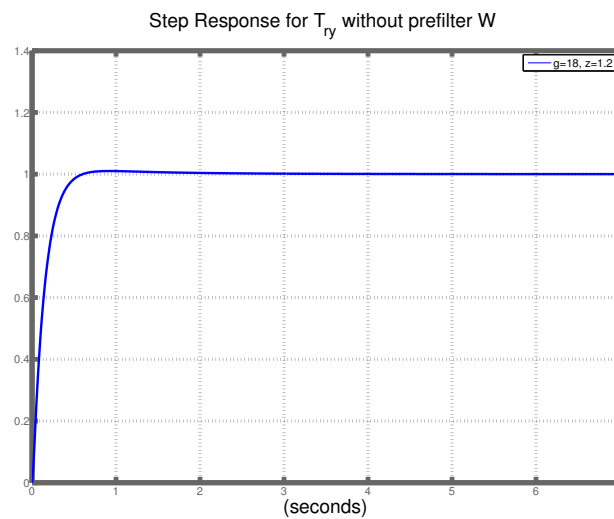


Figure 4.32: Step Response for T_{ry} without Pre-Filter W

As we observe from Figure 4.32, the output angular velocity $\dot{\psi}$ follows reference

command $\dot{\psi}_{ref}$ very well with a 1 % overshoot and 1.2s settling time.

Step Response for T_{ry} with pre-filter W

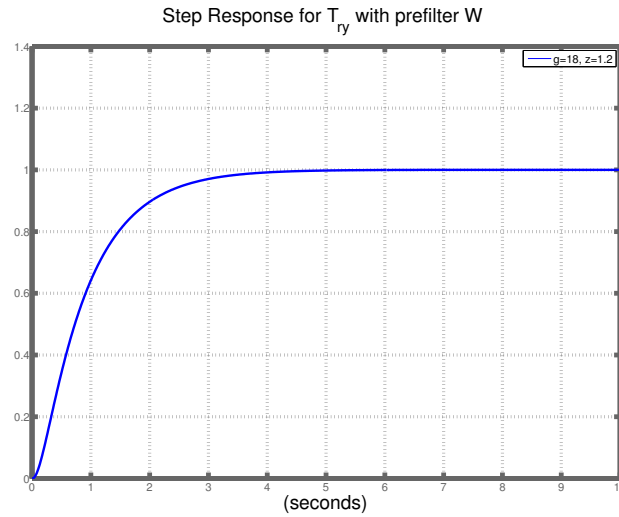


Figure 4.33: Step Response for T_{ry} with Pre-Filter W

As we observe from Figure 4.33 , the output angular velocity $\dot{\psi}$ follows reference command $\dot{\psi}_{ref}$ very well with no overshoot and a relatively larger settling time, which is 5.9 seconds. Compared to the step response for T_{ry} without a pre-filter W , the system is slower but more robust (no overshoot).

4.6.7 On Ground Lateral Model

Actually, there is a slightly difference between the actual vehicle on ground lateral model with the numerical model we have calculated. Here is the on-ground lateral plant, we can see that the hardware result and simulation result are matched:

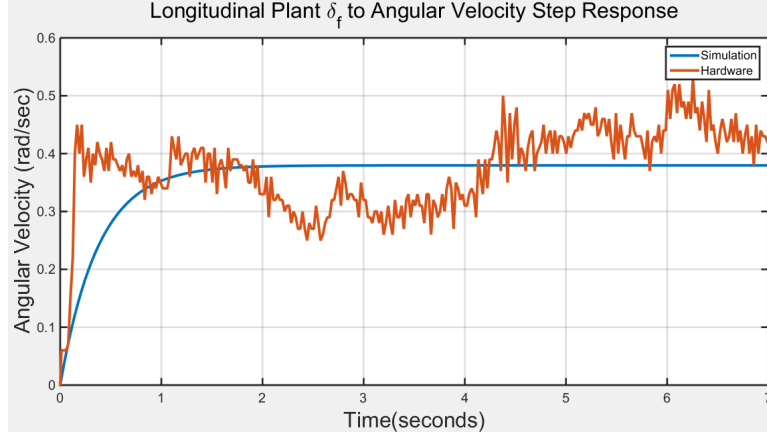


Figure 4.34: On Ground Lateral Plant

- Through system ID method (robot on-ground test), the linearized lateral plant can be estimated as a first order system
- step response steady state of hardware result is 0.38 rad/sec
- peak-peak ripple of hardware result is 0.27 rad/sec

To design the PI controller (for rapid response and zero steady state error), we set the desired settling time $T_s = 1.5\text{s}$ (ω_n is set to 3.8 rad/s which is less than 4 rad/s ZOH bandwidth limitation). Then, set damping ratio to 0.886 (which means the step response of the system will roughly have a 0.4 % overshoot).

Here we design the PI controller: $g = 1.38 \quad z = 3.53$.

Finally, we have T_{ry} (ω_{ref} to ω) here:

$$T_{ry} = \frac{14.8}{s^2 + 6.67s + 14.8} \quad (4.46)$$

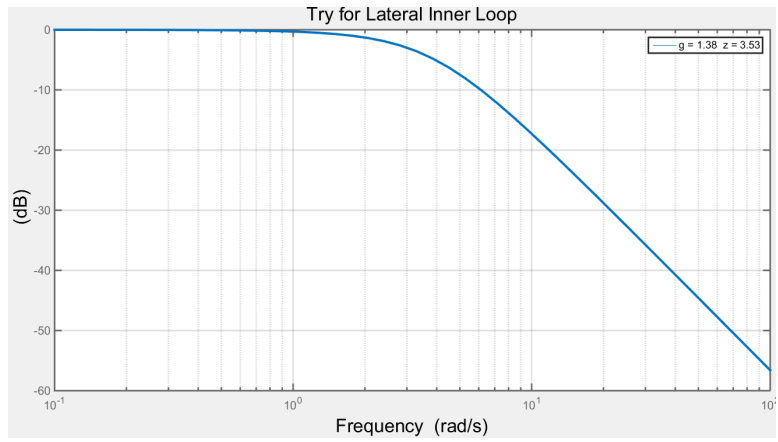


Figure 4.35: Lateral On Ground Inner Loop Try

And then T_{ru} , which is the ω_{ref} to steer angle δ_f response.

$$T_{ru} = \frac{5.12(s + 2.66)}{s^2 + 6.67s + 14.82} \quad (4.47)$$

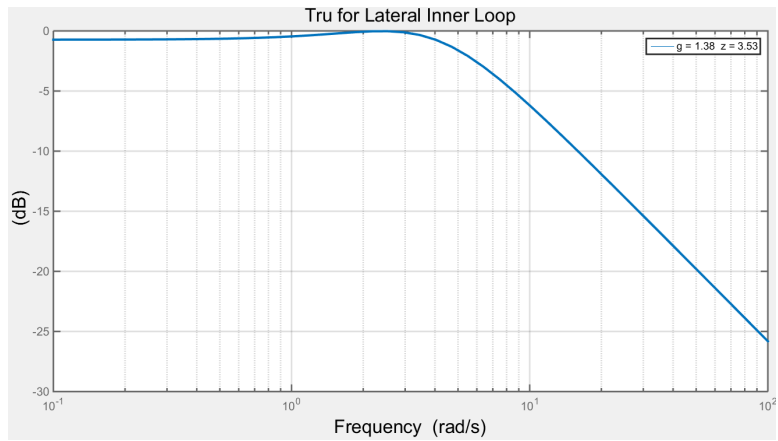


Figure 4.36: Lateral On Ground Inner Loop Tru

4.7 Outer Loop: (v, θ) Cruise Control Along Line - Design and Implementation

In this section, we examine (v, θ) cruise control along a line. This outer-loop control law can be visualized as shown in Figure 4.37.

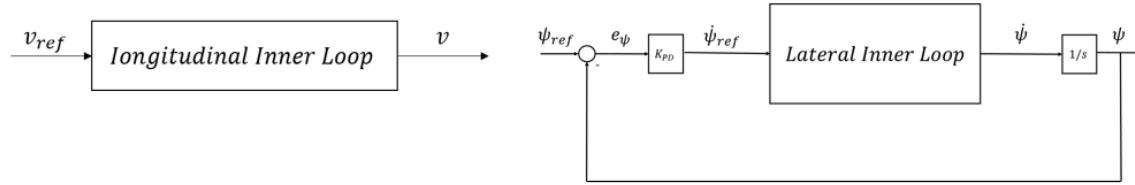


Figure 4.37: Visualization of Cruise Control Along a Line

Here, (v, θ) are commanded. v is calculated based on wheel encoders. For cruise control along a line, $v_{ref} = constant, \omega_{ref} = 0$ are commanded. For cruise control along a line, θ is calculated based on integrating ω measured by the IMU (i.e. $\theta = \theta_{previous} + \omega T, T = 0.1$ sec).

The use of a proportional gain controller is justified because the map from the references v_{ref} and ω_{ref} to the actual speeds v and ω looks like a diagonal system $diag(\frac{a}{s+a}, \frac{b}{s+b})$ (at low frequencies). This is a consequence of a well-designed inner-loop (see above). The outer-loop θ controller therefore sees $\frac{b}{s(s+b)}$. From classical root locus ideas, a proportional controller is therefore justified - provided that the gain is not too large. If the gain is too large, oscillations will be expected in θ . A PD controller with roll off would help with this issue.

Figure 4.38 shows both simulation and hardware implementation results for robot going along a straight line. As we can observe, the trajectory error increases while robot goes further. This error majorly comes from dead reckoning error.

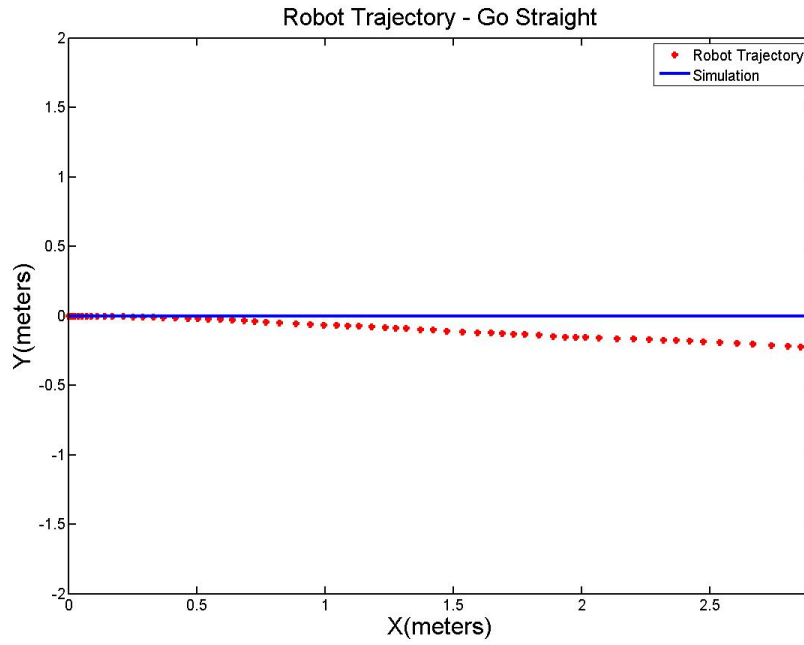


Figure 4.38: Robot Trajectory - Go Along a Line

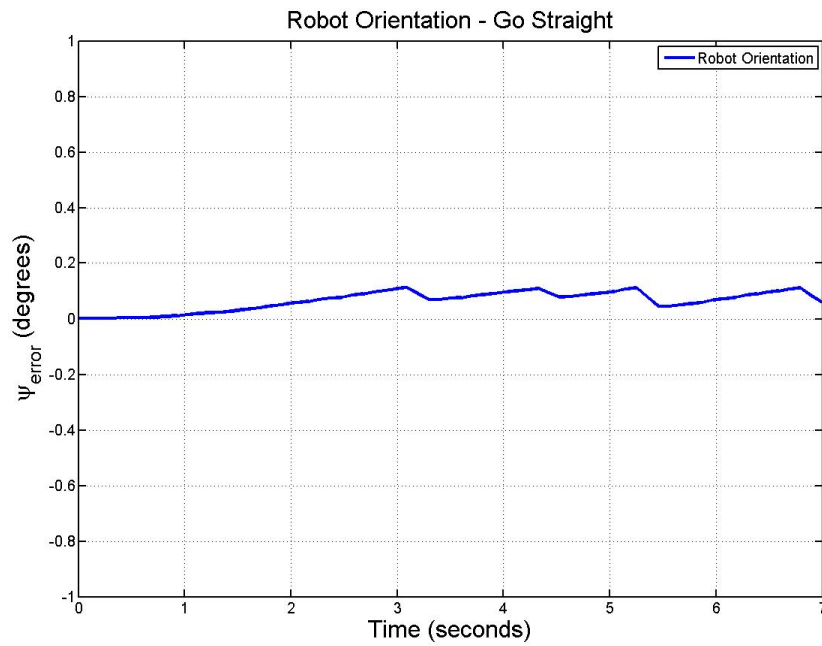


Figure 4.39: Orientation Error - Go Alone a Line

4.8 Outer Loop: Planar (x, y) Cartesian Stabilization - Design and Implementation

In this section, we discuss the planar (x, y, θ) outer-loop control law. It can be visualized as shown in Figure 4.40.

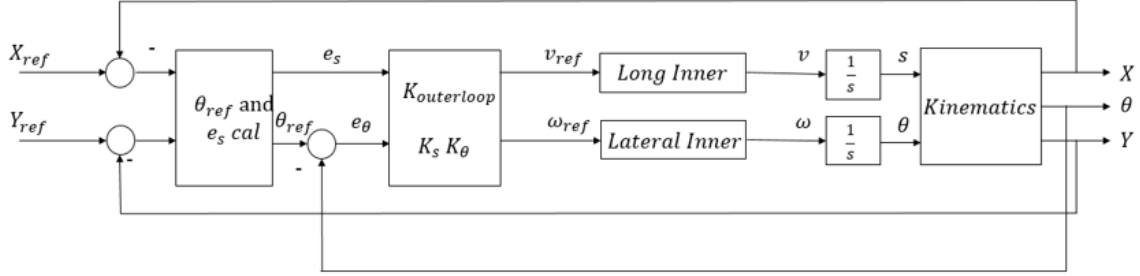


Figure 4.40: Visualization of Planar (xy) Cartesian Stabilization Control System

Here, θ is calculated based on ω information from IMU (i.e. $\theta = \theta_{previous} + \omega T$, $T = 0.1$ sec). X and Y position is estimated using dead reckoning based on wheel encoders.

That is, $x = x_{previous} + v_x T$, $y = y_{previous} + v_y T$, $v_x = v \cos \theta$, $v_y = v \sin \theta$;

The nonlinear kinematic model can be usefully rewritten in terms of angular and linear displacements. For this transformed system, a simple control law $v = k_s e_s$, $\omega = k_\theta e_\theta$ results in an error dynamics matrix (after linearization) that is Hurwitz when $k_\theta > k_s > 0$. A drawback of this control law (consistent with the Brockett 1983 result is that it can only get the system arbitrarily close to the desired $(x_{ref}, y_{ref}, \theta_{ref})$. To precisely achieve the objective, one would have to switch control laws. These ideas are used to motivate a simple proportional control law for the planar (x, y) outer-loop position control that was implemented for the rear-wheel drive vehicle.

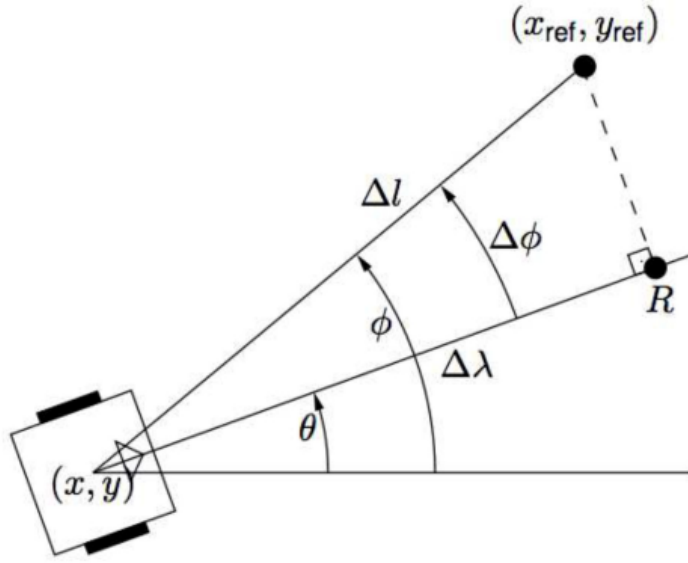


Figure 4.41: Visualization of Longitudinal Distance to Target $e_s = \Delta\lambda$ and Angular Error $e_\theta = \Delta\phi$

It is now useful to present some of the key ideas Cartesian stabilization. Let $e_s = \Delta\lambda$ denote the projection of the vehicle-to-target vector onto the longitudinal body axis of the vehicle. ϕ is defined as the angle which binds (x_{ref}, y_{ref}) and (x, y) . It is called the *pointing angle*.

From Figure 4.41, we have:

$$\phi = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{y_{ref} - y}{x_{ref} - x} \right) \quad (4.48)$$

$$e_\theta = \phi - \theta \quad (4.49)$$

$$e_s = \Delta\lambda = \Delta l \cos \Delta\phi \quad (4.50)$$

The structure of the control law is as follows - a proportional control law:

$$v = k_s e_s \quad \omega = k_\theta e_\theta \quad (4.51)$$

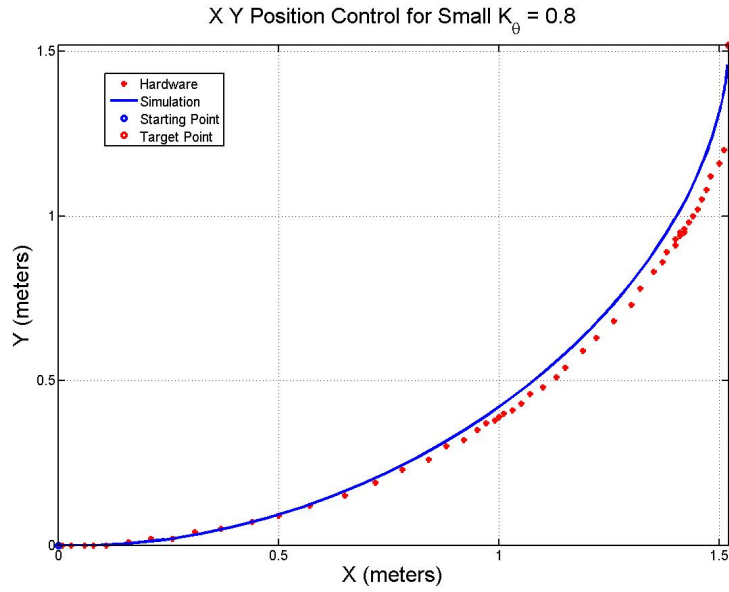


Figure 4.42: Robot Position Control in xy Plane - Cartesian Stabilization (small $K_\theta = 0.8$)

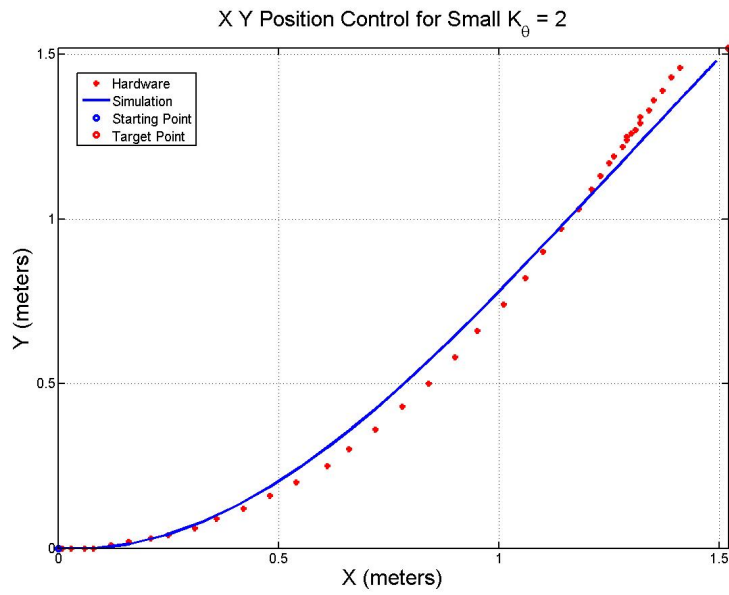


Figure 4.43: Robot Position Control in xy Plane - Cartesian Stabilization (large $K_\theta = 2$)

From Figure 4.42 and 4.43, we can make the following observations:

- With small K_θ , the trajectory is less directionally aggressive.
- With large K_θ , robot moves more directly towards the target

4.9 Outer Loop Vision Based (v_x, θ) Control - Finish the Oval Track

Block Diagram For Black Line Guidance Robot Lateral Model Outer Loop Design

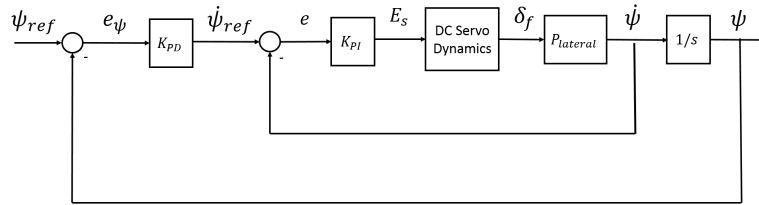


Figure 4.44: Visualization for Vision Based Outer Loop Control System Block Diagram

Vision subsystem is feeding back e_ψ

In this case, e_ψ denotes the angle deviation between the black track (center of gravity of the black area in camera's region of interest) and the orientation of the robot. In this case, we can obtain e_ψ directly from vision subsystem.

$$e_\psi = \psi_{ref} - \psi \quad (4.52)$$

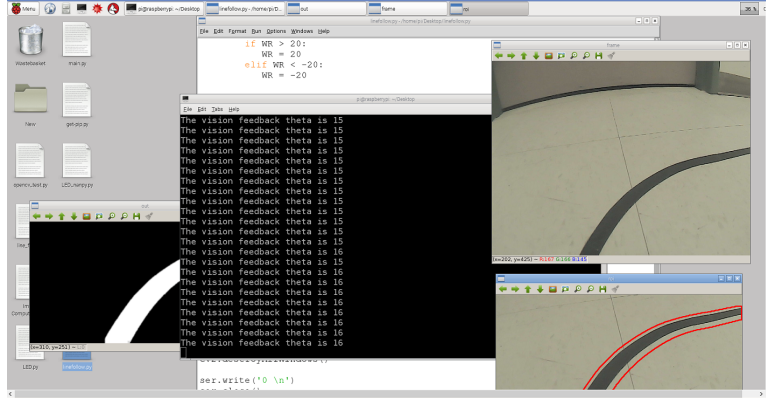


Figure 4.45: Feedback Black Line Tracking Error in Degrees

Simplified Block Diagram for Vision Based Lateral Outer Loop Control

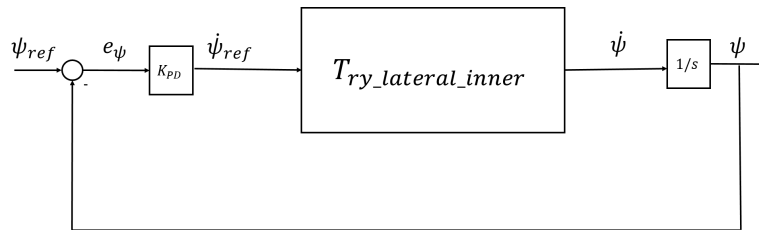


Figure 4.46: Simplified Block Diagram for Vision Based Lateral Outer Loop Control

Transfer Functions

Transfer Function from $\dot{\psi}_{ref}$ to $\dot{\psi}$ (without pre-filter W):

$$T_{ry} = \frac{\dot{\psi}}{\dot{\psi}_{ref}} = \left[\frac{662.4(s + 1.2)(s + 0.484)}{(s + 92.88)(s + 6.94)(s + 1.229)(s + 0.4857)} \right] \quad (4.53)$$

$$= \frac{662.4s^2 + 1115s + 384.7}{s^4 + 101.5s^3 + 816.3s^2 + 1165s + 384.7} \quad (4.54)$$

Plant for Outer Loop Controller Design

$$T_{plant} = \frac{\psi}{\dot{\psi}_{ref}} \quad (4.55)$$

$$= \left[\frac{662.4(s + 1.2)(s + 0.484)}{s(s + 92.88)(s + 6.94)(s + 1.229)(s + 0.4857)} \right] \quad (4.56)$$

Known the plant we have, we can now design a plant based outer loop controller.

First, we put the inverse of the plant in controller K

$$K = GAIN \frac{(s + 92.88)(s + 6.94)(s + 1.229)(s + 0.4857)}{(s + 1.2)(s + 0.484)} \quad (4.57)$$

Here we design a P controller with roll-off and pre-filter. The controller has the form (P plus 3rd order roll-off):

$$K_{outer} = g \frac{(s + 92.88)(s + 6.94)(s + 1.229)(s + 0.4857)}{(s + 1.2)(s + 0.484)} \left[\frac{100}{s + 100} \right]^3 \quad (4.58)$$

$$K_{outer} \approx 100g(s + 6.94) \left[\frac{100}{s + 100} \right]^2 \quad (4.59)$$

Because we are using P controller here, notice that $K_p = g$. Actually, after pole-zero cancellation, the controller K can be approximated to be a standard PD controller.

4.9.1 Vision Based Black Line Guidance Outer Loop PD Controller Trade Studies

In what follows, $L = PK = KP$ denotes the open loop transfer function, $S = (1 + L)^{-1}$ denotes the closed loop sensitivity transfer function. $T = L(1 + l)^{-1}$ denotes the closed loop complementary sensitivity transfer function, KS denotes the transfer function from (unfiltered) reference commands $\dot{\psi}_{ref}$ to controls ψ_{ref} (which is the reference command for lateral inner loop model), and SP denotes the transfer function from input disturbances to the robot orientation ψ . Because we are using P controller here, we now only examine trade studies for gain g variations.

First, let us analysis the open loop transfer function $L = PK$. When g is varied (g is from 0.001-0.005), we make the following observations:

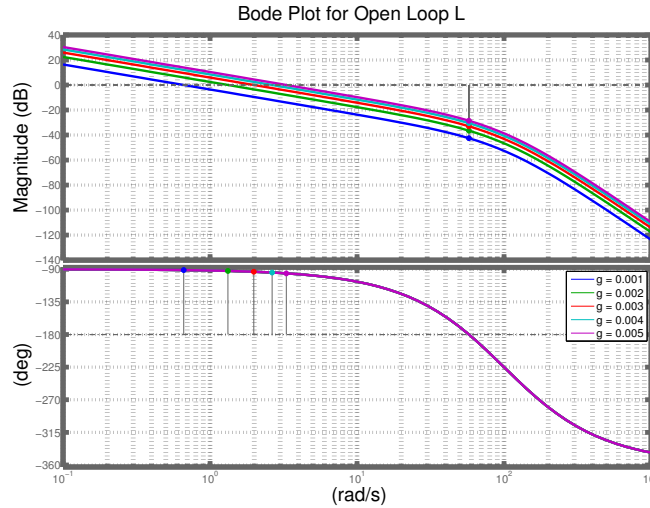


Figure 4.47: Bode Plot for Open Loop L

From Figure 4.47, we can make the following analyses:

- when controller gain $g = 0.001$, we have a proper $0dB$ crossover frequency which is around 0.662 rad/s . Using the relationship $f = 2\pi\omega$, the open loop system

has a frequency of 4.16 Hz , which matches the hardware bandwidth limitations we have mentioned in the obvious chapter (pi camera vision subsystem has a maximum bandwidth of 8.1 Hz , this is the main restriction here).

- The bandwidth of the system increases while the gain g is increasing

From Reference Command to Output T_{ry} : Magnitude Responses

When g is varied (g is from 0.001-0.005), Figure 1.32 obtains the closed loop T_{ry} bode magnitude responses.

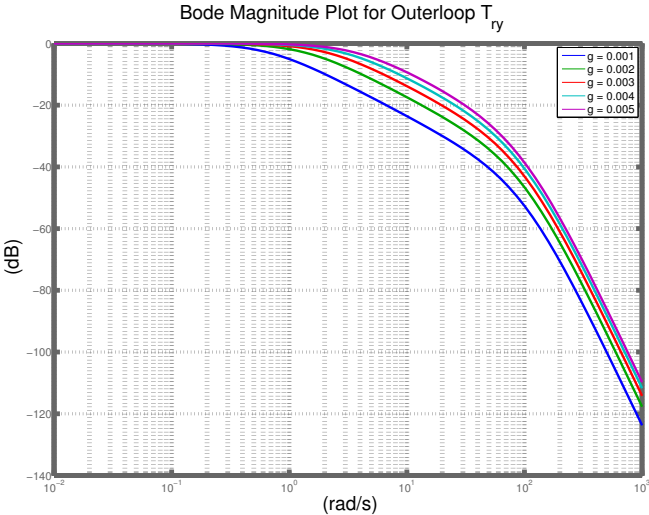


Figure 4.48: Bode Magnitude Plot for Outerloop T_{ry}

From figure 4.48, we can make the following observations:

- System bandwidth increases with a increasing g
- when g is 0.001, system has bandwidth of 0.67 rad/s , which matches the hardware result

From Reference Command to Output T_{ry} : Time domain step Responses

When g is varied (g is from 0.001-0.005), one obtains the closed loop T_{ry} step responses in Figure 1.33.

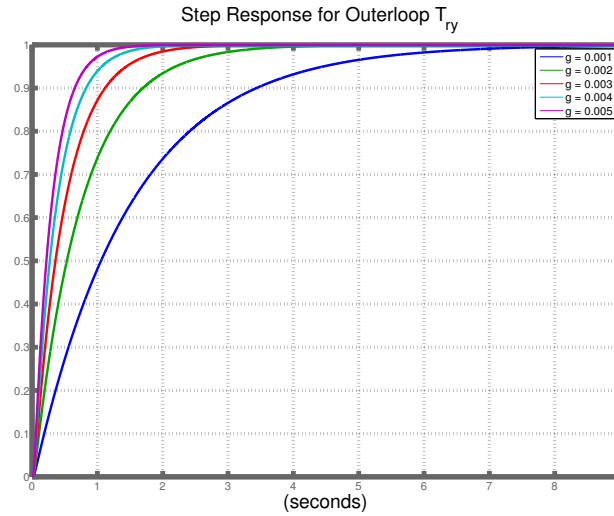


Figure 4.49: Step Response for Outerloop T_{ry}

From the step response Figure 4.49, here we make the following observations:

- With controller proportional gain g increasing, the step responses do not have any overshoot
- Settling time decreases as the gain g increasing
- With a g of value 0.001, settling time to within 10% is 3.2s

From Reference Command ψ_{ref} to control $\dot{\psi}_{ref} - T_{ru}$: Magnitude Responses

When g is varied (g is from 0.001-0.005), Figure 4.50 obtains the closed loop T_{ru} bode magnitude responses.

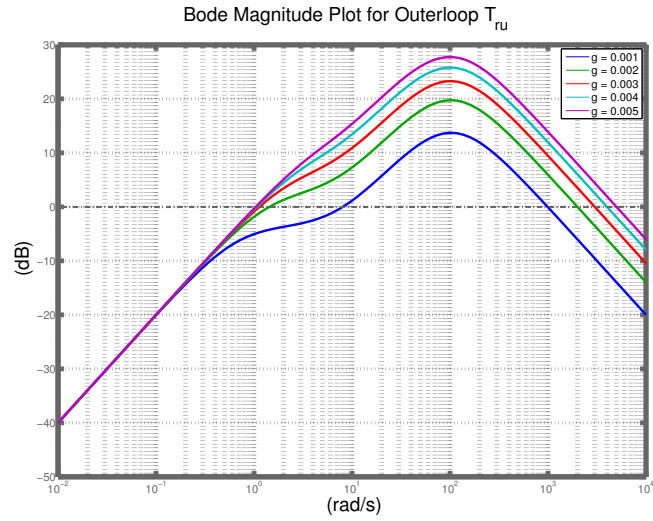


Figure 4.50: Bode Magnitude Plot for Outerloop T_{ru}

From the step response Figure 4.50, here we make the following observations:

- Increasing gain g will increase the peak T_{ru} at all except low frequencies
- Increasing g increases peak T_{ru} : 13.7 ($g = 0.001$), 27.7dB ($g = 0.005$)

Sensitivity Figures 4.51 contains sensitivity bode magnitude values for specific g variations.

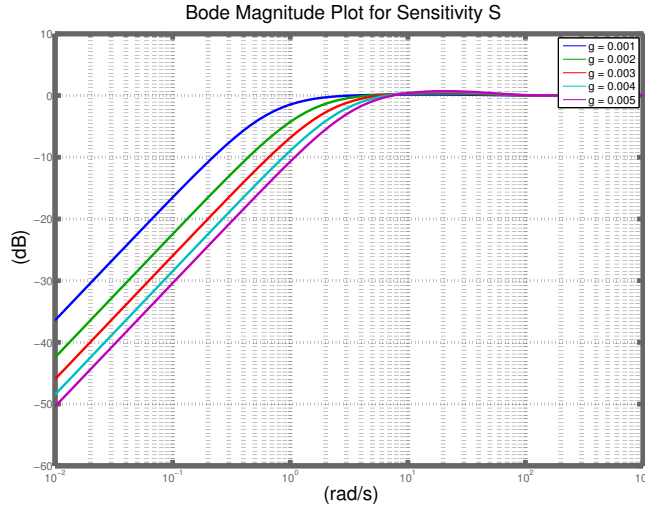


Figure 4.51: Bode Magnitude Plot for Sensitivity S

From the sensitivity S bode magnitude values, here we make the following observations:

- Increasing g results in smaller sensitivity at low frequencies and a slightly larger peak sensitivity.
- peak sensitivities do not change much with increasing g : 0.705 dB ($g = 0.005$), 0.155 dB ($g = 0.001$)

4.9.2 On Ground Lateral Model Outer Loop Controller Design

This outer loop design is based on on ground lateral model inner loop design. After implementing PI controller, lateral inner loop T_{ry} has two complex poles which are near real pole ($s = -3.3$). To simplify the problem, we estimate lateral inner loop T_{ry} as standard first order system. In the aspect of outer loop, outer loop plant can be estimated as lateral inner loop T_{ry} with an integrator.

$$T_{plantest} \approx \frac{3.3}{s(s + 3.3)} \quad (4.60)$$

To meet the need of rapid response of the system, we used root locus approach to design a PD controller. We put a zero at $z = -2$. Here is the PD controller: $K_p = 1.2$, $K_d = 0.6$ (which means $g = 1.2$ $z = 2$).

After closing the loop, we have T_{ry} and T_{ru} for closed lateral outer loop system:

$$T_{ry} = \frac{1.98(s + 2)}{(s + 0.9)(s + 4.375)} \quad (4.61)$$

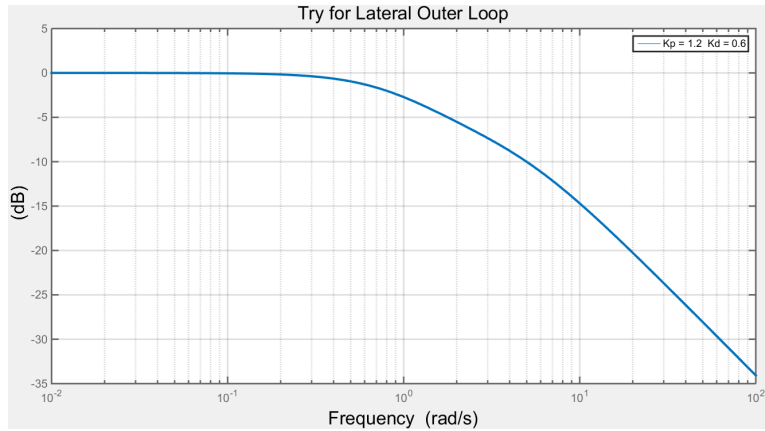


Figure 4.52: T_{ry} for Lateral Outer Loop

- ω_n of outer loop is around 0.8 rad/s , which is smaller than inner loop bandwidth

$$T_{ru} = \frac{0.6(s + 3.3)(s + 2)}{(s + 0.9)(s + 4.375)} \quad (4.62)$$

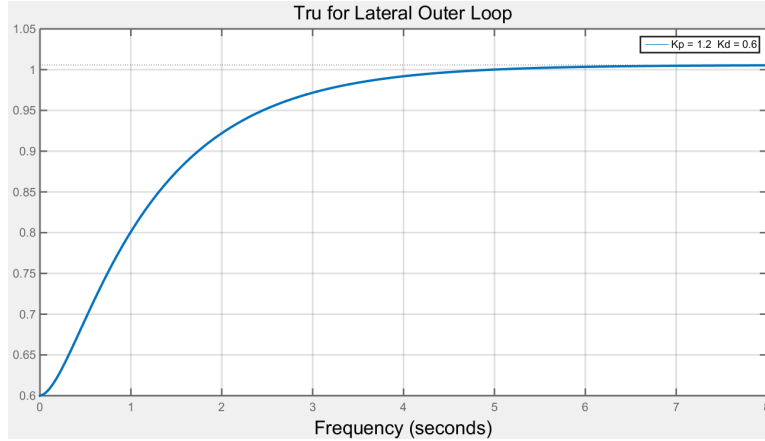


Figure 4.53: T_{ru} for Lateral Outer Loop

- steady state of T_{ru} is 1.08
- settling time of simulated T_{ru} is 5 seconds (which means this step response is slow). However, with this big settling time, robot can still finish track following tasks, so the outer loop controller design is successful

4.10 Complete Lateral Model for FreeSLAM Robot - Lateral Model with Pi Camera Vision Subsystem

First of all, let us recall the complete model we've mentioned in Chapter 3.

$$\dot{x} = Ax + Bu + E\omega \quad (4.63)$$

$$y = Cx + Du + F\omega \quad (4.64)$$

The state $x = [v_y, \dot{\psi}, y_L, \varepsilon_L]^T$ and control input $u = \delta_f$, and disturbance $\omega = K_L$.

Here is the state space equations for the complete dynamic model:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{v}_y \\ \ddot{\psi} \\ \dot{y}_L \\ \dot{\varepsilon}_L \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{c_f+c_r}{mv_x} & -v_x + \frac{c_rl_r-c_f l_f}{mv_x} & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{-l_f c_f+l_r c_r}{I_\psi v_x} & -\frac{l_f^2 c_f+l_r^2 c_r}{I_\psi v_x} & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & -L & 0 & v_x \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_y \\ \dot{\psi} \\ y_L \\ \varepsilon_L \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{c_f}{m} \\ \frac{l_f c_f}{I_\psi} \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \delta_f + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ v_x \end{bmatrix} K_L$$

There are two subsystems in this whole complete model. The first one is the on-board vehicle sensors subsystem, where inertial sensors (9 DOF IMU and encoders) are used for measuring lateral acceleration $\ddot{y} = (\dot{v}_y + v_x \dot{\psi})$ and the yaw rate $\dot{\psi}$. Meanwhile, the vision subsystem estimates y_L and ε_L . The road curvature K_L is working as a exogenous disturbance signal.

The output equations have following form:

$$y = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{c_f+c_r}{mv_x} & \frac{c_rl_r-c_f l_f}{mv_x} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_y \\ \dot{\psi} \\ y_L \\ \varepsilon_L \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{c_f}{m} \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \delta_f$$

4.11 Plot Analysis

Like what we have done in Chapter 3, the core of the Matlab plot analysis lies in the understanding of the behavior of the vehicle at various speeds (the complex nonlinear model can be linearized at different cruise speed V_x), under various road conditions. Then, we analysed how different look-ahead distance L affects the dynamic behavior of the vehicle. Besides, the delay of vision subsystem is very important too.

4.11.1 Main Open Loop Transfer Functions

Here are our FreeSLAM Robot's working condition when it's performing wireless mapping: ideally, the cruise speed of robot vx is 0.1 m/s with a fixed pi camera look-ahead distance L which is roughly 0.1 m (10cm). Besides, in the situation we're talking about here, the process delay of camera vision subsystem is not taken into consideration.

So in this situation, the main transfer functions are:

Transfer function $V_1(s)$ and $V_2(s)$ are sharing the same denominator $P(s)$.

$$P_f s(s) = 0.0002205s^4 + 0.0003381s^3 + 0.0002708s^2 \quad (4.65)$$

$$V_{1fs}(s) = \frac{y_L}{\delta_f} = \frac{0.06183s^2 + 0.04275s + 0.01781}{s^4 + 1.534s^3 + 1.228s^2} \quad (4.66)$$

$$V_{2fs}(s) = \frac{\varepsilon_L}{\delta_f} = \frac{0.368s + 0.1781}{s^3 + 1.534s^2 + 1.228s} \quad (4.67)$$

According to the transfer functions above, in the next section, we are going to talk about the Matlab Plot Analysis.

4.11.2 Line Tracking Performance Impact Factors

Robot cruise speed V_x

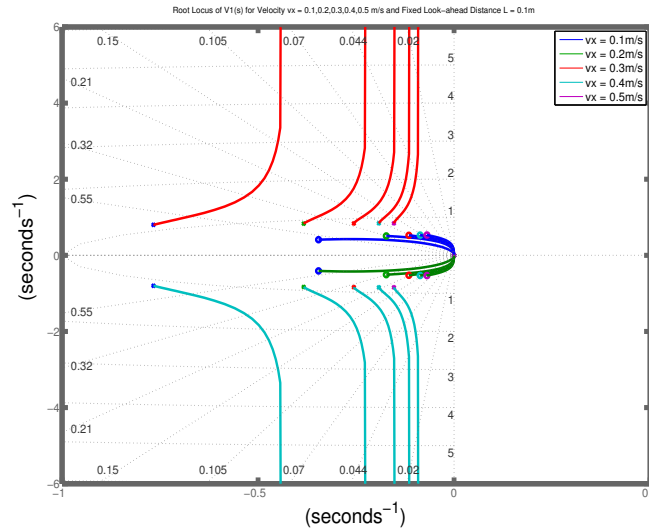


Figure 4.54: Root Locus of $V1(s)$ for Varying Cruise Speed V_x and Fixed Look-Ahead Distance $L = 0.1\text{m}$

Figure 4.54 Analysis: As the root locus of $V1(s)$ shows, overall, the double integrator at the origin corresponds to the integration action between lateral acceleration and position at the look-ahead. The two poles and zeros in the left half plane characterize the vehicle dynamics.

By increasing the cruise speed V_x , both two poles and two zeros in the left half plane are moving towards to the imaginary axis.

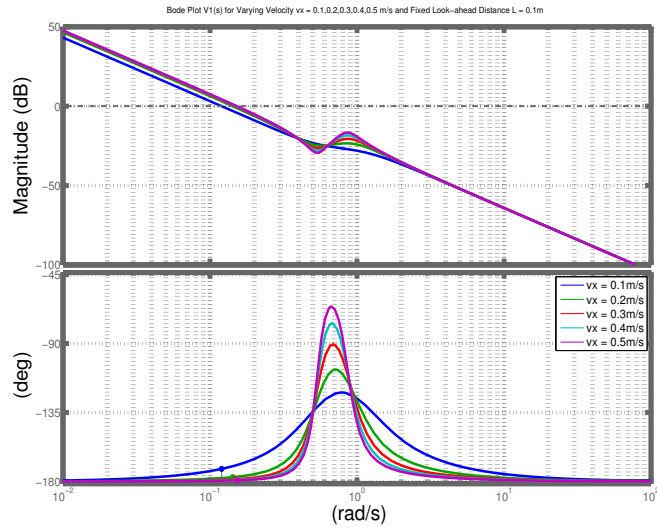


Figure 4.55: Bode Plot of $V1(s)$ for Varying Cruise Speed V_x and Fixed Look-Ahead Distance $L = 0.1\text{m}$

Figure 4.55: Bode plot $V1(s)$ for varying cruise speed $V_x = 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4$ and 0.5 m/s with a fixed camera look-ahead distance 0.1m and no vision subsystem delay. It shows that increasing the cruise speed V_x will decrease the Phase Margin (PM). Under the condition that cruise speed $V_x = 0.5\text{m/s}$ (maximum speed in the plot), the Phase Margin (PM) is only 0.774 degrees which is not good.

Hardware Result

We collect the cruise speed V of robot by using encoders (0.06 m/s resolution) and orientation of robot by 9 dof IMU (0.01 rad resolution).

By using real-wheel drive kinematic model,

$$V_x = V * \cos(\theta); \quad (4.68)$$

$$V_y = V * \sin(\theta); \quad (4.69)$$

I integrated the V_x and V_y Speeds to get the position information (X,Y) . then plot (X,Y) to get the real trajectory plot as follows:

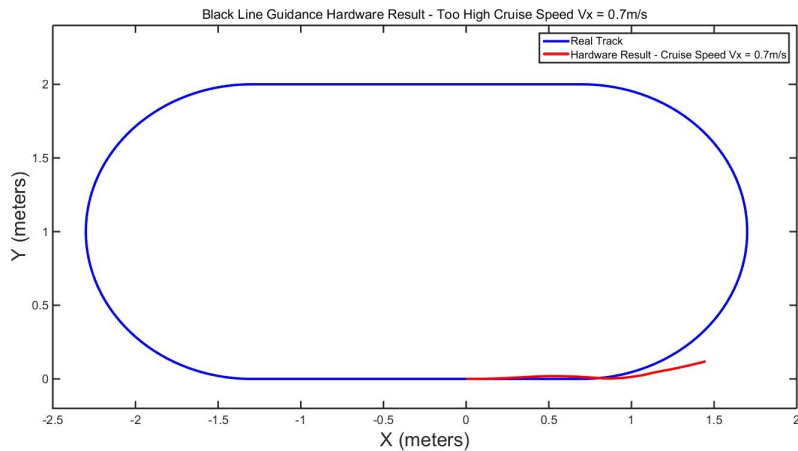


Figure 4.56: Robot Goes Off the Track Due to Too High Speed

As Figure 4.56 shows, with a commanded cruise speed of 0.7 m/s , robot goes off the track because of the too high commanded cruise speed V_x .

Camera Fixed Look-Ahead Distance L

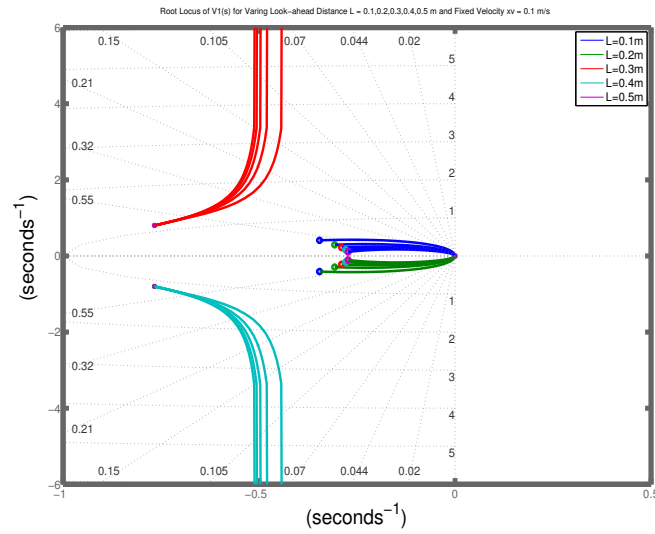


Figure 4.57: Root Locus of $V1(s)$ for Varying Look-Ahead Distance L and Fixed Cruise Speed $V_x = 0.1 \text{ m/s}$

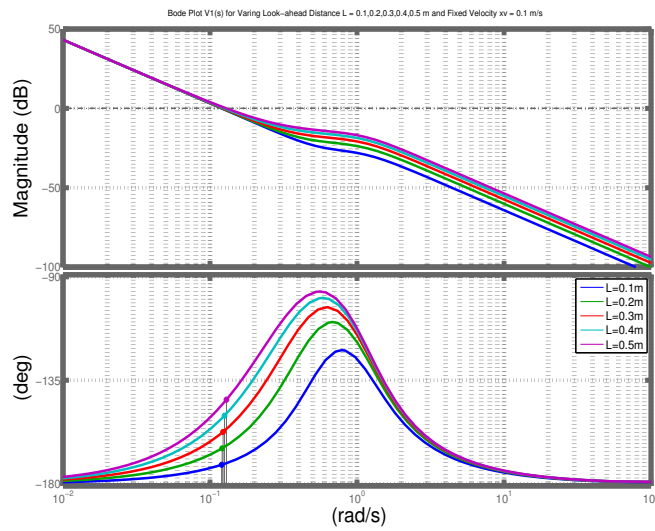


Figure 4.58: Bode Plot of $V1(s)$ for Varying Look-Ahead Distance L and Fixed Cruise Speed $V_x = 0.1 \text{ m/s}$

Figure 4.58 Analysis: As we can observe here, the farther the pi camera looks, the more Phase Margin (PM) the vision lateral system will increase, as a result, the whole system is becoming more stable. With a cruise longitudinal speed $v_x = 0.1m/s$ and camera look-ahead distance is $0.5m$, the lateral system's phase margin will increase to 36.6 degrees which is good to our system.

Hardware Result Here we generate the trajectory of robot when it is applied a small camera look-ahead distance $L = 0.1m$.

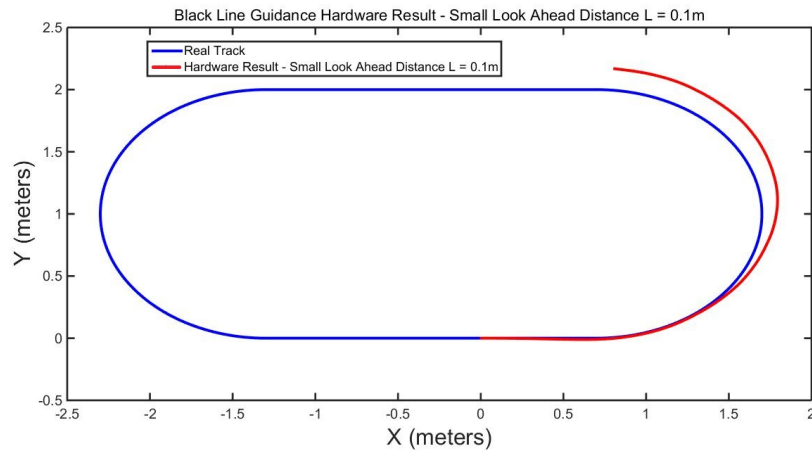


Figure 4.59: Trajectory of Robot When Small L is Applied

As we can see, robot has the ability to follow the track well at the very beginning, but it goes off the track in the end because of the too small camera look-ahead distance L .

Delay from Vision Subsystem T_d

As we have mentioned in the simulations, one important parameter which will effect the overall system is the delay associated with the latency of visual processing. As shown in the overall system block diagram, the component is a pure time

delay element $e^{-T_d s}$ representing the latency T_d of the vision subsystem. Using *PadeApproximation* and this delay component becomes:

$$D(s) = e^{-T_d s} \approx \frac{2 - T_d s}{2 + T_d s} \quad (4.70)$$

$V_1(s)D(s)$ demonstrate the effect of vision subsystem latency.

Under certain condition:

$$D(s) = \frac{-0.5s + 2}{0.5s + 2} \quad (4.71)$$

And here is the nominal transfer function (using nominal parameters):

$$V_1(s)D(s) = \frac{y_L}{\delta_f} = \frac{-0.06183s^3 + 0.2046s^2 + 0.1532s + 0.07124}{s^5 + 5.534s^4 + 7.362s^3 + 4.912s^2} \quad (4.72)$$

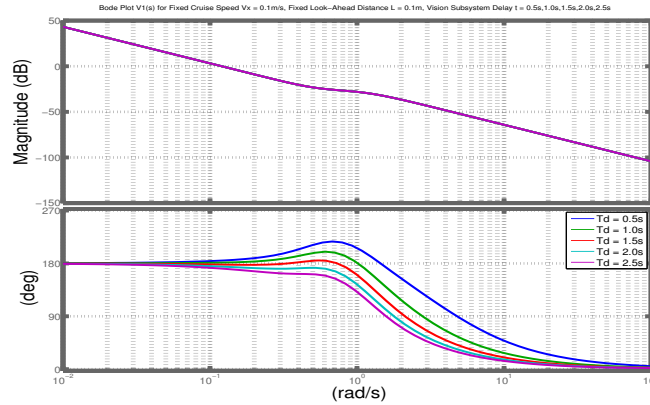


Figure 4.60: Bode Plot of $V_1(s)D(s)$ for Cruise Speed $V_x = 20\text{m/s}$, Look-Ahead Distance $L = 15\text{m}$ and Vision Subsystem Delay $t = 0.15\text{s}$

We studied $V_1(s)D(s)$ under the following situation, we fixed the cruise speed v_x with a fixed camera look-ahead distance and vary the delay of vision subsystem. As we can observe above, at beginning, when the delay is as small as 0.5 seconds, the

plant has a phase margin of 4.82 degrees. However, when we start increase the delay, the system is becoming unstable. For example, when delay has been increased to 2.5 seconds, the phase margin of the system is -8.82 degrees, which shows that the plant is unstable.

Hardware Result Applying a delay $T_d = 0.1s$ for vision subsystem delay, we can make the following observations:

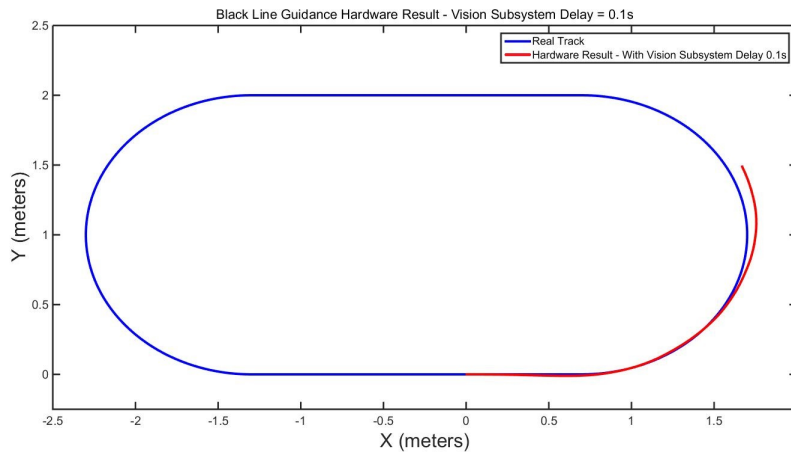


Figure 4.61: Trajectory of Robot When Vision Delay is 0.1s

Implementing delay in vision subsystem means that we are lowering the lateral outer loop frequency. In this case, by applying a delay of 0.1s, lateral outer loop frequency has dropped from 7.5 Hz to 4.29Hz. That's the main reason why robot goes off the track.

When we increase the delay T_d from 0.1s to 0.15s, we can make the following observations:

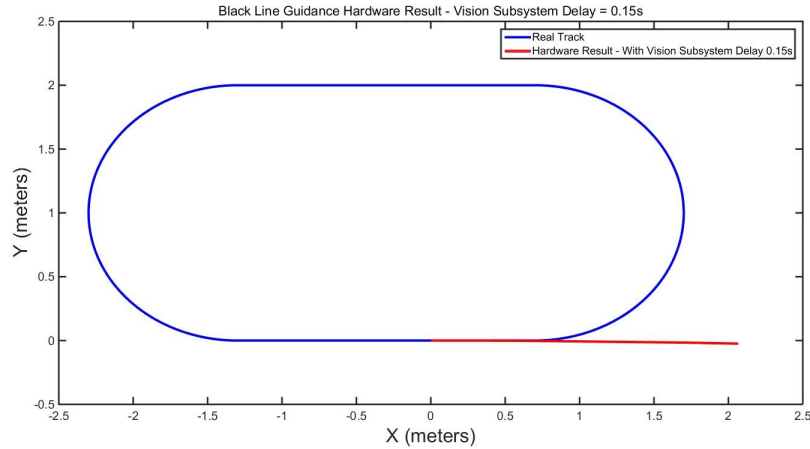


Figure 4.62: Trajectory of Robot When Vision Delay is 0.15s

To be more specific, when we apply 0.15s delay to the vision system, the lateral outer loop frequency has dropped from 7.5Hz to 3.53Hz, which makes the system stability worse (phase margin is negative). That's the main reason why robot goes off the track at the very beginning.

4.12 Finish the Track in Minimum Time - With/Without Pan Servo

As we know, camera losing track is the one of the key reasons that cause robot loses the track. Here we introduce a pan-tilt structure. In this case, under the circumstances that robot is trying to turn sharp curves (ψ_{error}) is too large, the pan servo (controlled by P controller) will pan the camera to reduce ψ_{error} to make the system remain stable.

The followings are the trajectories for robot finish the track without and with pan servo.

Robot Finish the Track without Pan Servo

Robot Finish the Track without Pan Servo with a minimum time of 24.3 seconds.

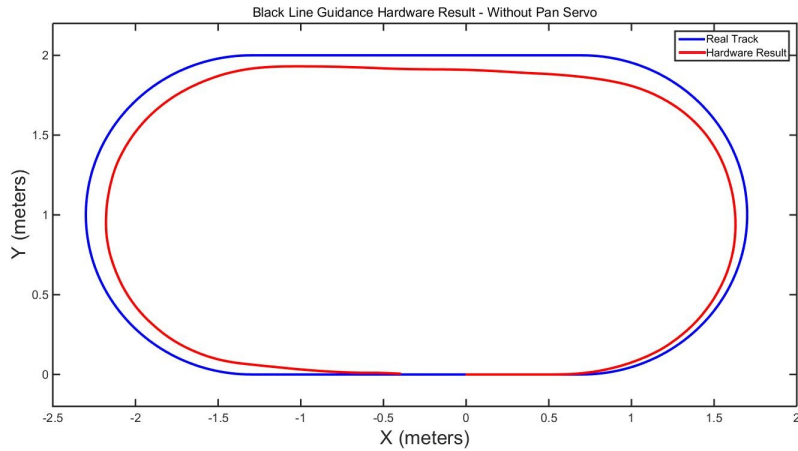


Figure 4.63: Robot Finish the Track without Pan Servo in 24s

Here is the plot for ψ_{error} changing:

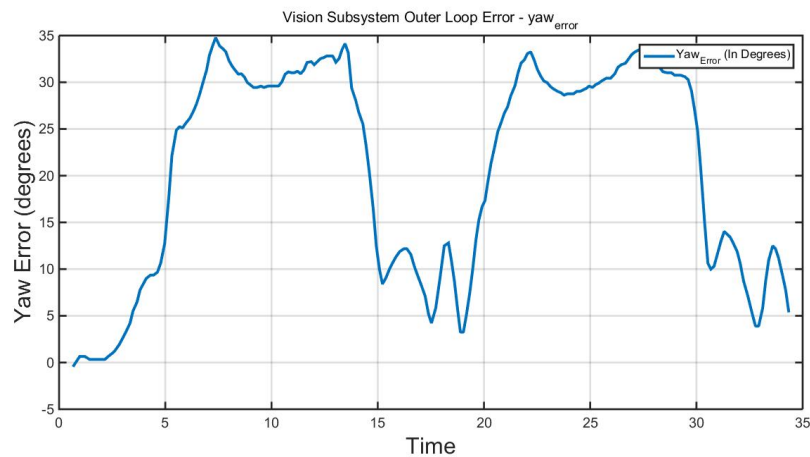


Figure 4.64: ψ_{error} Changing with Time without Implementing Pan Servo

we can make the following observations: when robot is trying to turn sharp turns, the ψ_{error} obtained from vision subsystem can reach a maximum of 35 degrees. This phenomenon can cause track losing easily. so a pan servo implementation is necessary.

Robot Finish the Track with Pan Servo with a minimum time of 19.8 seconds.

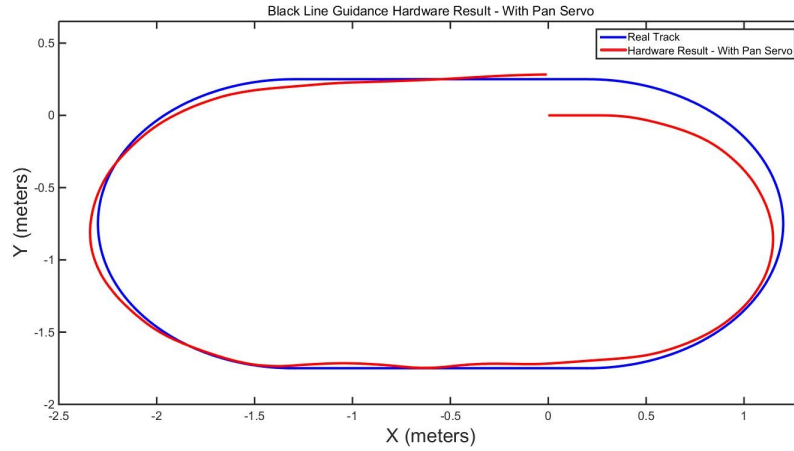


Figure 4.65: Robot Finish the Track with Pan Servo in 20s

Here is the plot for ψ_{error} changing and pan servo steering performance along with time:

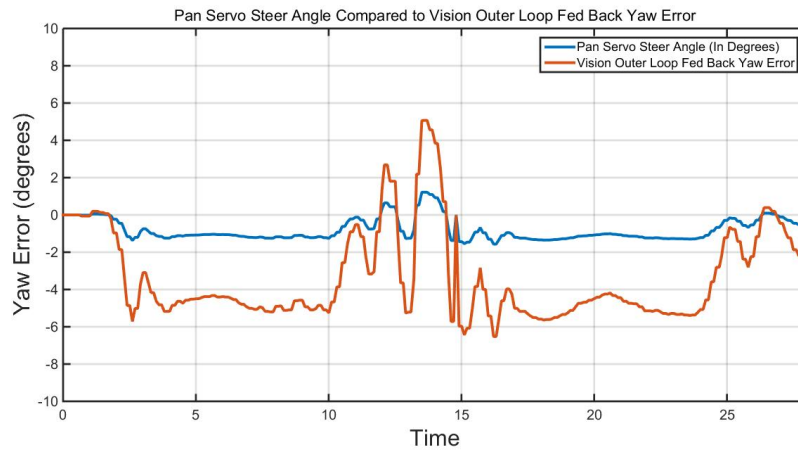


Figure 4.66: Yaw Error and Pan Servo Steer Changing with Time with Implementing Pan Servo

We can make the following observations according to the plot above. After implementing the pan servo, ψ_{error} can be easily controlled to around 0 degrees (with a

max ripple of 3 degrees). To draw a brief conclusion, the pan structure contributes to the stabilization of the whole vision based system.

4.13 Summary and Conclusion

This chapter has provided a comprehensive case study for our enhanced rear-wheel drive FreeSLAM vehicle. Both simulation and hardware results were presented. Many demonstrations were thoroughly discussed. All control law developments were supported by theory. Differences between hardware results and simulation results were also addressed. Particular focus was placed on the fundamental limitations imposed by system components/subsystems.

SLAM WITH LIDAR SCAN DATA ONLY - HECTOR MAPPING

5.1 Introduction to SLAM (Simultaneous localization and mapping)

Definition of SLAM problem SLAM is the abbreviation for Simultaneous Localization And Mapping.

Mapping is the problem of integrating the information gathered with the robot's sensors into a given representation. It can be described by the question "What does the world look like?" Central aspects in mapping are the representation of the environment and the interpretation of sensor data. In contrast to this, localization is the problem of estimating the pose of the robot relative to a map. In other words, the robot has to answer the question, "Where am I?" Typically, one distinguishes between pose tracking, where the initial pose of the vehicle is known, and global localization, in which no a priori knowledge about the starting position is given.

Simultaneous localization and mapping (SLAM) is therefore defined as the problem of building a map while at the same time localizing the robot within that map. In practice, these two problems cannot be solved independently of each other. Before a robot can answer the question of what the environment looks like given a set of observations, it needs to know from which locations these observations have been made. At the same time, it is hard to estimate the current position of a vehicle without a map. Therefore, SLAM is often referred to as a chicken and egg problem: A good map is needed for localization while an accurate pose estimate is needed to build a map.

So, why is SLAM problem hard?

It's a chicken and egg problem

- a map is needed to localize the robot
- a pose estimate is needed to build a map

Mathematical Expression of SLAM Problem

To estimate the pose and the map of a mobile robot at the same time

$$p(x, m|z, u) \tag{5.1}$$

where x denotes the estimated pose of the robot, m is the grid map. z represents the observations (in this case it is the LIDAR scan data) and u denotes controls.

5.2 System Overview

The ability to learn a model of the environment and to localize itself is one of the most important abilities of truly autonomous robots able to operate within real world environments. In this chapter, we present a flexible and scalable system for solving the SLAM (Simultaneous Localization and Mapping) problem that has successfully been used on unmanned ground vehicles (UGV). Our approach uses the ROS jade operating system as middle-ware and is available as open source software. It honors the API of the the ROS navigation stack and thus can easily be interchanged with other SLAM approaches available in the ROS ecosystem.

• 360 RP LiDAR

The RPLIDAR 360 Laser Scanner is a low cost 360 degree 2D scanner (LIDAR) solution. It preforms 360 degree laser scanning with more than 6 meters distance detection range. The produced 2D point cloud data can be used in mapping, localization (SLAM) and object/ environment modeling.

RPLIDAR emits a modulated infrared laser signal and the laser signal is then reflected by the object to be detected. The returning signal is sampled by vision acquisition in RPLIDAR and the DSP embedded in RPLIDAR starts processing the sample data, output distance value and angle value between the object and the RPLIDAR. Through processing the sample data is output through a communication interface.

- **ROS**

The Robot Operating System (ROS) is a flexible framework for writing robot software. It is a collection of tools, libraries, and conventions that aim to simplify the task of creating complex and robust robot behavior across a wide variety of robotic platforms.

As a result, ROS was built from the ground up to encourage collaborative robotics software development. For example, one laboratory might have experts in mapping indoor environments, and could contribute a world-class system for producing maps. Another group might have experts at using maps to navigate, and yet another group might have discovered a computer vision approach that works well for recognizing small objects in clutter. ROS was designed specifically for groups like these to collaborate and build upon each other's work, as is described throughout this site.

- **ROS node**

A node is a process that performs computation. Nodes are combined together into a graph and communicate with one another using streaming topics, RPC services, and the Parameter Server. These nodes are meant to operate at a fine-grained scale; a robot control system will usually comprise many nodes. For example, one node controls a laser range-finder, one Node controls the robot's wheel motors, one node performs localization, one node performs path planning, one node provide a graphical view of the system, and so on.

5.3 Hector SLAM Approach

5.3.1 *Hector SLAM Requirements*

Generally speaking, Hector SLAM includes the following four aspects: (1) Map the unknown environment, (2) Localize robot simultaneously, (3) Real-time capable, (4) Saving GeoTiff maps.

5.3.2 *Hector Mapping-ROS API*

The main SLAM node I am using is Hector Mapping.

- **Main inputs**

There are two main inputs: the first is wireless transported LiDAR scan data on the `"/scan"` topic. The second is transformed data via node `tf`.

- **Main outputs**

There are two main outputs: the first is map on the `"/map"` topic, while the other one is real-time position of robot in the map (using `tf` node `"map" → "odom"` transform)

5.3.3 *Whole picture of Hector SLAM*

Figure 5.1 shows ROS nodes connections and communication. When robot performs indoor SLAM, ROS nodes, topics and services are well visualized in the following figure:

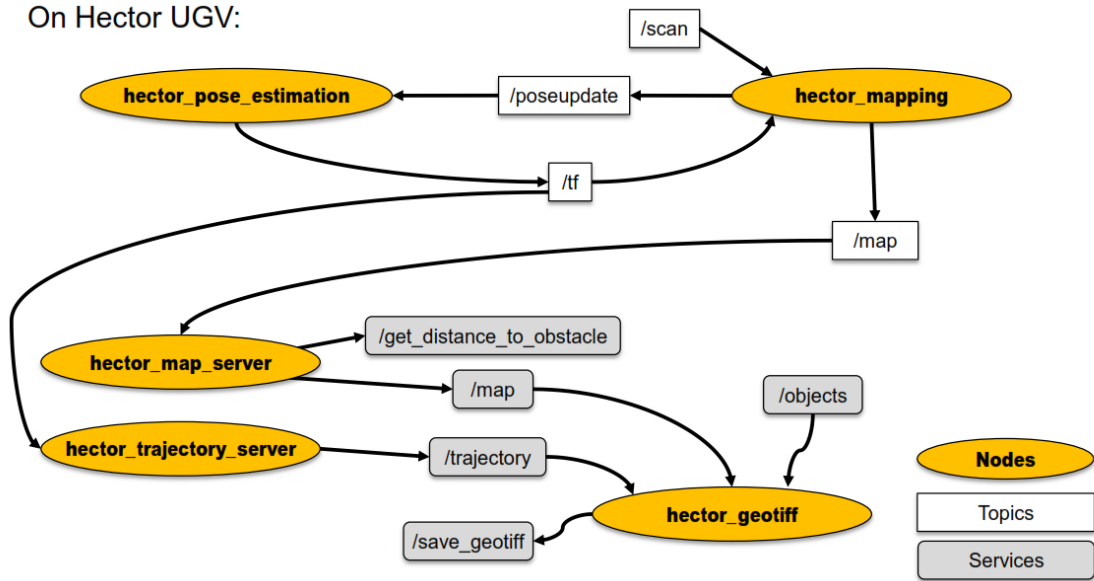


Figure 5.1: Big Picture Of Hector SLAM

5.3.4 Coordinate Frames

map

The coordinate frame called map is a world fixed frame, with its Z-axis pointing upwards. The pose of a mobile platform, relative to the map frame, should not significantly drift over time. The map frame is not continuous, meaning the pose of a mobile platform in the map frame can change in discrete jumps at any time.

In a typical setup, a localization component constantly re-computes the robot pose in the map frame based on sensor observations, therefore eliminating drift, but causing discrete jumps when new sensor information arrives.

The map frame is useful as a long-term global reference, but discrete jumps make it a poor reference frame for local sensing and acting.

odom

The coordinate frame called `odom` is a world-fixed frame. The pose of a mobile platform in the `odom` frame can drift over time, without any bounds. This drift makes the `odom` frame useless as a long-term global reference. However, the pose of a robot in the `odom` frame is guaranteed to be continuous, meaning that the pose of a mobile platform in the `odom` frame always evolves in a smooth way, without discrete jumps.

In a typical setup the `odom` frame is computed based on an odometry source, such as wheel odometry, visual odometry or an inertia measurement unit.

The `odom` frame is useful as an accurate, short-term local reference, but drift makes it a poor frame for long-term reference.

base_link

The coordinate frame called `base_link` is rigidly attached to the mobile robot base. The `base_link` can be attached to the base in any arbitrary position or orientation; for every hardware platform there will be a different place on the base that provides an obvious point of reference. Note that REP 103 [1] specifies a preferred orientation for frames.

Relations Between Frames

We have chosen a tree representation to attach all coordinate frames in a robot system to each other. Therefore each coordinate frame has one parent coordinate

frame, and any number of child coordinate frames. The frames described in this REP are attached as follows:

map -> odom -> base_link

The map frame is the parent of odom, and odom is the parent of base_link. Although intuition would say that both map and odom should be attached to base_link, this is not allowed because each frame can only have one parent.

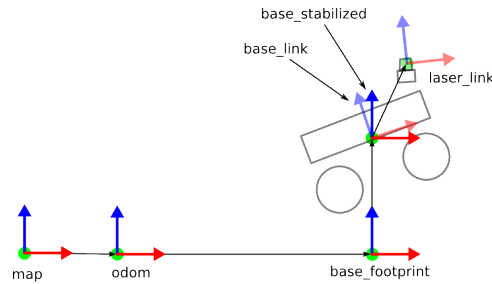


Figure 5.2: Big Picture Of HECTOR SLAM

- "/odom" frame is not needed, which is mainly for compatibility with ROS gmapping
- "/base_stabilized" frame is needed for transformation of LIDAR data
- height estimation is not trivial

5.4 Definitions and Extended Kalman Filter Implementation

5.4.1 SLAM Problem Model and Parameters Definition

What have been given

The robot's controls

$$u_{1:T} = u_1, u_2, u_3, \dots, u_T \quad (5.2)$$

Here we introduce the *Standard Odometry Model*. Say we have a robot moving from $(\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \bar{\theta})$ to $(\bar{x}', \bar{y}', \bar{\theta}')$, we are using $(\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \bar{\theta})$ here because the (x, y) coordinates and the orientation of the robot are estimated.

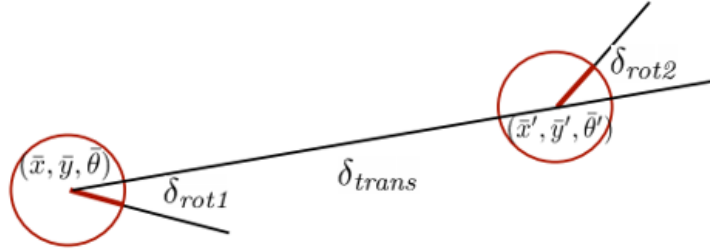


Figure 5.3: Standard Odometry Model

Then here we have the *Odometry Information* $u = (\delta_{rot1}, \delta_{trans}, \delta_{rot2})$ and the following equations:

$$\delta_{trans} = \sqrt{(\bar{x}' - \bar{x})^2 + (\bar{y}' - \bar{y})^2} \quad (5.3)$$

$$\delta_{rot1} = \text{atan2}(\bar{y}' - \bar{y}, \bar{x}' - \bar{x}) - \bar{\theta} \quad (5.4)$$

$$\delta_{rot2} = \bar{\theta}' - \bar{\theta} - \delta_{rot1} \quad (5.5)$$

Robot Observations

$$z_{1:T} = z_1, z_2, z_3, \dots, z_T \quad (5.6)$$

Here we have the observation or sensor (encoder, IMU or LIDAR) model with the robot's pose.

$$p(z_t | x_t) \tag{5.7}$$

What do we want finally: map of the environment m .

Path (Trajectory) of the robot

$$x_{0:T} = x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_T \tag{5.8}$$

Then finally we estimate the robot's trajectory and the grid map.

$$p(x_{0:T}, m_{1:T}, u_{1:T}) \tag{5.9}$$

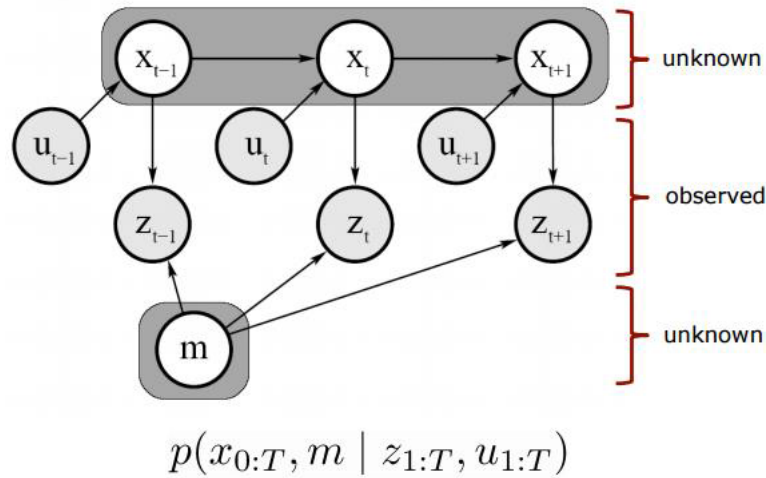


Figure 5.4: Graphic Model of SLAM Problem Approach

Platform Full 3D State

We define the navigation coordinate system as a right handed system having the origin at the starting point of the platform with the z axis pointing upwards and the

x axis pointing into the yaw direction of the platform at beginning. The full 3D state is represented by

$$x = (\Omega^T + p^T + v^T)^T \quad (5.10)$$

where $\Omega = (\phi, \vartheta, \psi)^T$ are roll, pitch and yaw angles, $P = (p_x, p_y, p_z)^T$ and $v = (v_x, v_y, v_z)^T$ are the position and velocity of the platform expressed in the navigation frame.

5.4.2 Extended Kalman Filter Implementation in Hector Mapping

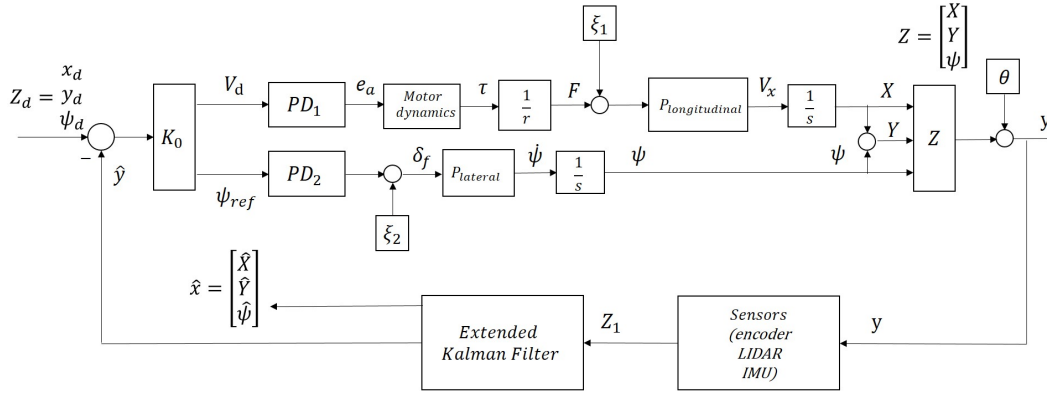


Figure 5.5: Complete Model with Extended Kalman Filter Implementation

The dynamic model can be described as the following:

$$X(k) = AX(k-1) + BU(k) + \Delta(k) \quad (5.11)$$

$$Z(k) = HX(k) + \Theta(k) \quad (5.12)$$

In those equations, besides the parameters (X, Z, U) we have mentioned above, A and B are system parameters, H is the observation system parameter, in this case,

they are metrics. Δ and σ are the noise of process (input noise) and observation (output noise), in assumption they are Gaussian noise and their covariances are Q and R .

Kalman Filter Equations can be represented in the following equations:

$$X(k | k - 1) = AX(k - 1 | k - 1) + BU(k) \quad (5.13)$$

$$P(k | k - 1) = AP(k - 1 | k - 1)A' + Q \quad (5.14)$$

$$X(k | k) = X(k | k - 1) + Kg(k)(Z(k) - HX(k | k - 1)) \quad (5.15)$$

$$Kg(k) = P(k | k - 1)H' / (HP(k | k - 1)H' + R) \quad (5.16)$$

$$P(k | k) = (I - Kg(k)H)P(k | k - 1) \quad (5.17)$$

Analysis:

As we can see from the equations above, Kalman Gain $Kg(k)$ increases with a decreasing observe noise covariance R . When the current estimation error covariance decreases, $Kg(k)$ gets larger. To draw a brief conclusion, Kalman gain $Kg(k)$ represents the weight of observe information (for example the laser scan range information from LIDAR or the angular velocity detected by wheel encoders) during the update process. In this case, when the observe noise is smaller, $Z(k)$ gets bigger and $HX(k | k - 1)$ gets smaller.

Kalman Filter Algorithms Process

1. Set initial system state $X(0)$ and its error covariance $P(0)$, then set noise covariance Q_0, R_0 .

2. Using the equations above, calculate estimated state of the system $X(k | k - 1)$ and estimated covariance $P(k | k - 1)$
3. According to the updated equations, calculate the kalman gain and updated state estimation $X(k | k - 1)$ and $P(k | k - 1)$
4. repeat step (2) and step (3).

5.4.3 Vectors Used in EKF Implementation

robot current state \mathbf{x}

Robot's state can be shown as the following vector:

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \\ \Psi \end{bmatrix} \quad (5.18)$$

To recall the vehicle's kinematics

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x} &= v \cos \Psi \\ \dot{y} &= v \sin \Psi \\ \dot{\Psi} &= \frac{v \tan \Psi}{L} \end{aligned}$$

So to analysis this discrete system with a fixed sampling time Δt , the increasement of robot's odometry ($\Delta X \ \Delta Y \ \Delta \Psi$) are:

$$\Delta X = v \cos \Psi \Delta t \quad (5.19)$$

$$\Delta Y = v \sin \Psi \Delta t \quad (5.20)$$

$$\Delta\Psi = \frac{v \tan\Psi}{L} \Delta t \quad (5.21)$$

All the information above is supposed to be generated by the wheel encoder (Hall Effect Sensor with 10 small magnets) and IMU (BON055).

Then, we can have an updated state x' :

$$x' = \begin{bmatrix} X' \\ Y' \\ \Psi' \end{bmatrix} = x + \begin{bmatrix} \Delta X = v \cos\Psi \Delta t \\ \Delta Y = v \sin\Psi \Delta t \\ \Delta\Psi = \frac{v \tan\Psi}{L} \Delta t \end{bmatrix} \quad (5.22)$$

The Kalman Gain Kg The Kalman gain Kg is computed to find out how much we should trust the observed landmarks and as such how much we want to gain from the new information they provide. If we can see from the odometry reading that the robot was moved 2cm to the left, according to the observed landmarks we'll use the Kalman Gain Kg to find out how much we should trust the LIDAR range readings. Finally, it may turn out to be 1 cm because we do not trust the landmarks completely. If the range measurement device is really bad compared to the odometry performance of the robot, the Kalman Gain will decrease, otherwise it will increase.

The Jacobian of the measurement model H

The Jacobian of the measurement model is closely related to the measurement model. The measurement model defines how to compute an expected range and bearing of the measurements (observed landmark positions). It is done using the following formula:

$$\begin{bmatrix} Range \\ Bearing \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{(\lambda_x - x)^2 + (\lambda_y - y)^2} + \theta_{range} \\ \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{\lambda_y - y}{\lambda_x - x}\right) - \psi + \theta_{angle} \end{bmatrix} \quad (5.23)$$

where λ_x is the x position of the landmark, x is the current estimated robot x position, λ_y is the y position of the landmark and y is the current estimated robot y position. ψ is the robot's yaw angle and θ is the LIDAR data observe noise.

This will give us the predicted measurement of the range and bearing to the landmark.

The Jacobian of this matrix with respect to x , y , and θ , then the H is:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{x - \lambda_x}{r} & \frac{y - \lambda_y}{r} & 0 \\ \frac{\lambda_y - y}{r^2} & \frac{\lambda_x - x}{r^2} & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (5.24)$$

To draw a brief conclusion, H shows us how much the range and bearing changes as x , y and θ changes.

The Jacobian of the prediction model: A Matrix

Like H , the Jacobian of the prediction model is closely related to the prediction model, of course, so lets go through the prediction model first. The prediction model defines how to compute an expected position of the robot given the old position and the control input.

Jacobian A yielding

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -\Delta t \sin\theta \\ 0 & 1 & \Delta t \cos\theta \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (5.25)$$

The SLAM specific Jacobians : J_{xr} and J_z

When doing SLAM there are some Jacobians which are only used in SLAM. This is of course in the integration of new features, which is the only step that differs

from regular state estimation using EKF. The first is J_{xr} . It is basically the same as the jacobian of the prediction model, except that we start out without the rotation term. It is the jacobian of the prediction of the landmarks, which does not include prediction of theta, with respect to the robot state $[x, y, \text{theta}]$ from X

$$J_{xr} = J_{xr} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -\Delta t \sin \theta \\ 0 & 1 & \Delta t \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \quad (5.26)$$

The jacobian J_z is also the jacobian of the prediction model for the landmarks, but this time with respect to $[\text{range}, \text{bearing}]$. This in turn yields:

$$J_z = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta + \Delta\theta) & -\Delta t \sin(\theta + \Delta\theta) \\ \sin(\theta + \Delta\theta) & \Delta t \cos(\theta + \Delta\theta) \end{bmatrix} \quad (5.27)$$

5.4.4 2D SLAM Visualization in RVIZ

In this section, we describe how to draw the 2D map of unknown environment using hector SLAM. Bilinear filtering, as the major algorithm, is used to solve this problem.

- Map Access - Grid Map

Grid Map

1. Grid maps are a discretization of the environment into free and occupied cells
2. Mapping with known robot poses is easy. So within this thesis, SLAM approach can be divided into to to steps: The first step is navigation: we estimate the pose of robot accurately by using majorly 2 kinds of low-pass filters(Kalman Filter for Gaussian noise and Particle Filter, which is a beyes filter, for filtering non-Gaussian noise) The localization and mapping problem are combined but

we're supposed to solve localization problem first and then focus on mapping problem.

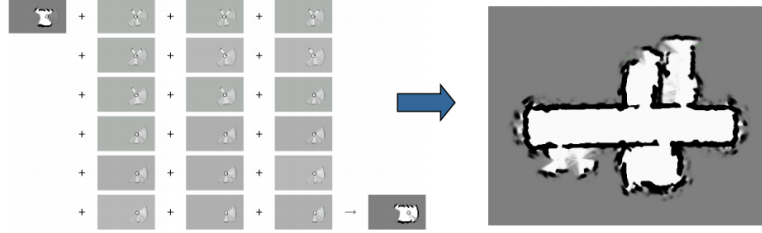


Figure 5.6: 2D Grid Map

grid map is used to represent arbitrary environments. Because LIDAR platform can exhibit 6 DOF motion, the scan has to be transformed into a local stabilized coordinate frame using the estimated attitude of the LIDAR system.

In this case, the scan is converted into a point cloud of scan endpoints. This point cloud can be preprocessed, for example by down-sampling the number of points or removal of outliers.

Given a continuous map coordinate P_m , the occupancy value $M(P_m)$ as well as the gradient $\nabla M(P_m) = (\frac{\partial M}{\partial x}(P_m), \frac{\partial M}{\partial y}(P_m))$ can be approximated by using the four closest integer P_{00} , P_{01} , P_{10} and P_{11} . Linear interpolation along the x -axis and y -axis then yields:

$$M(P_m) \approx \frac{y - y_0}{y_1 - y_0} \left(\frac{x_1 - x}{x_1 - x_0} M(P_{11}) + \frac{x - x_0}{x_1 - x_0} M(P_{01}) \right) + \frac{y_1 - y}{y_1 - y_0} \left(\frac{x - x_0}{x_1 - x_0} M(P_{10}) + \frac{x_1 - x}{x_1 - x_0} M(P_{00}) \right) \quad (5.28)$$

The derivatives can be approximated by:

$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial x} \approx \frac{y - y_0}{y_1 - y_0} (M(P_{11}) - M(P_{01})) + \frac{y_1 - y}{y_1 - y_0} (M(P_{10}) - M(P_{00})) \quad (5.29)$$

$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} \approx \frac{x - x_0}{x_1 - x_0} (M(P_{11}) - M(P_{10})) + \frac{x_1 - x}{x_1 - x_0} (M(P_{01}) - M(P_{00})) \quad (5.30)$$

In this situation, we should point out that the sample points cells are situated on a regular grid with distance 1 (in map coordinates) from each other, so in this case $\frac{y-y_0}{y_1-y_0}$ and $\frac{x-x_0}{x_1-x_0}$ in the equations above approximately equal 1, which simplifies the presented equations for the gradient approximation.

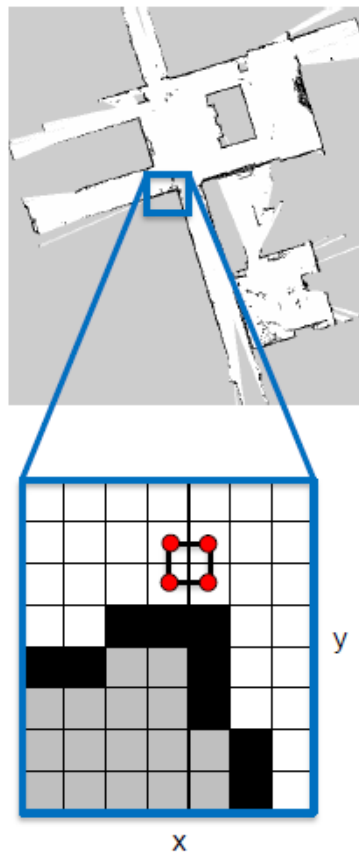


Figure 5.7: Bilinear Filtering Part 1

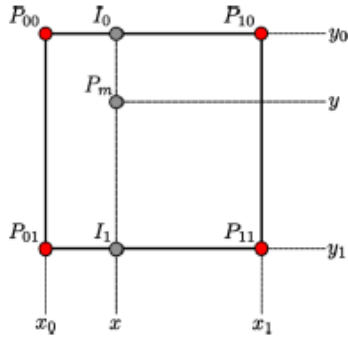


Figure 5.8: Bilinear Filtering of Occupancy Grid Map

To draw a brief conclusion, in hector SLAM, 2D map is represented by a 2D grid holding probability P_{xy} of cell occupancy. It should be noticed that this probability is represented by log odds. Obviously, This method does have pros and cons : the advantage is that this method is relatively fast, meanwhile the cons is the result is only approximate which can not be really accurate.

5.4.5 Hector Mapping Node Implementation

- `ls /dev ttyUSB0`

To specify ttyUSB0 (UART connecting to vx 11 LIDAR) in Linux

- `roscore`

start pre-requisites of a ROS-based system

- `sudo chmod 666 /dev/ttyUSB0`

enable USB0 (LIDAR data reading)

- `cd catkin_ws`

path to catkin workspace

- *source devel/setup.bash*
source the setup file
- *roslaunch xv11_laser_driver neato_laser _publisher _port:
=devttyUSB0 _firmware_version:=2*
run LIDAR scan data and the publisher generated
- *rostopic echo /scan*
visualization of LIDAR raw data

Initialize the final ROS launch file

- *cd catkin_ws/*
path to catkin workspace
- *cd xv11-hector-slam-roslaunch-master/*
cd to ROS launch file
- *roslaunch wireless_mapping.launch*
run ROS hector mapping launch file

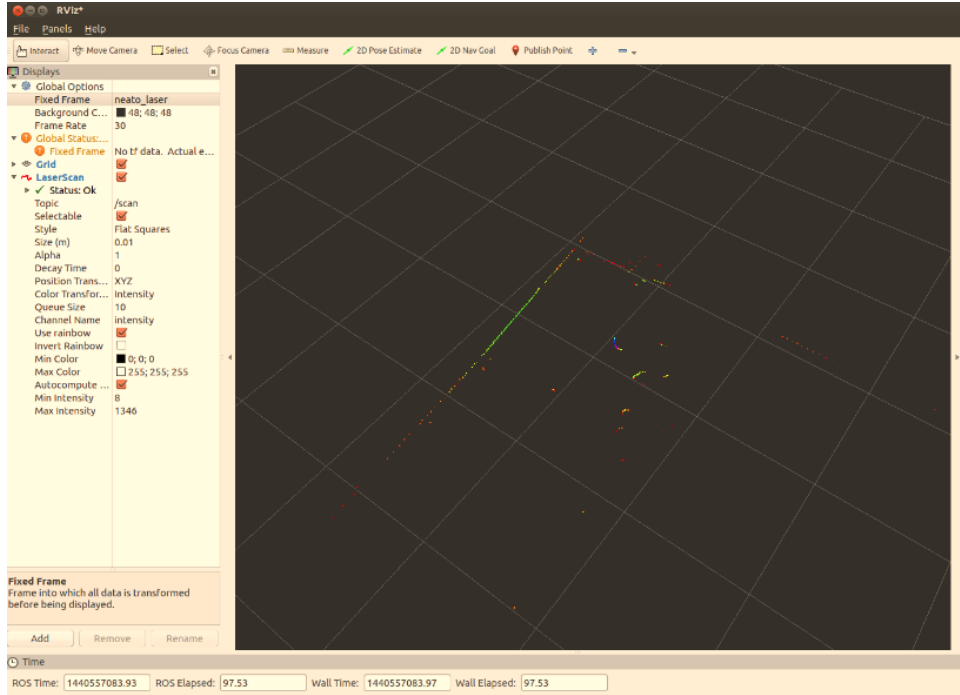


Figure 5.9: LIDAR Point Cloud Feature Detect

This experiment was held in Center Point Computer Science building. Obviously in the plot, there are features(walls) and some discrete features(like my legs and some obstacles on the ground).

We can observe different colors of those features, those colors stand for the laser intensities. Intensity only affect the color of the point, and the intensity channel uses 4 values to compute the final color of the point: (1) Min Intensity min_i , (2) Max Intensity max_i , (3) Min Color min_c , (4) Max Color max_c .

For each point, to compute the color value, we first compute a normalized intensity value based on min_i and max_i :

$$norm_i = (i - min_i) / (max_i - min_i) \quad (5.31)$$

Then to compute the color from that normalized intensity:

$$final_c = (norm_imax_c) + ((1 - norm_i)min_c) \quad (5.32)$$

5.5 EKF SLAM Implementation Results and Analysis

Manually Remote Controlled Robot to Perform Indoor SLAM

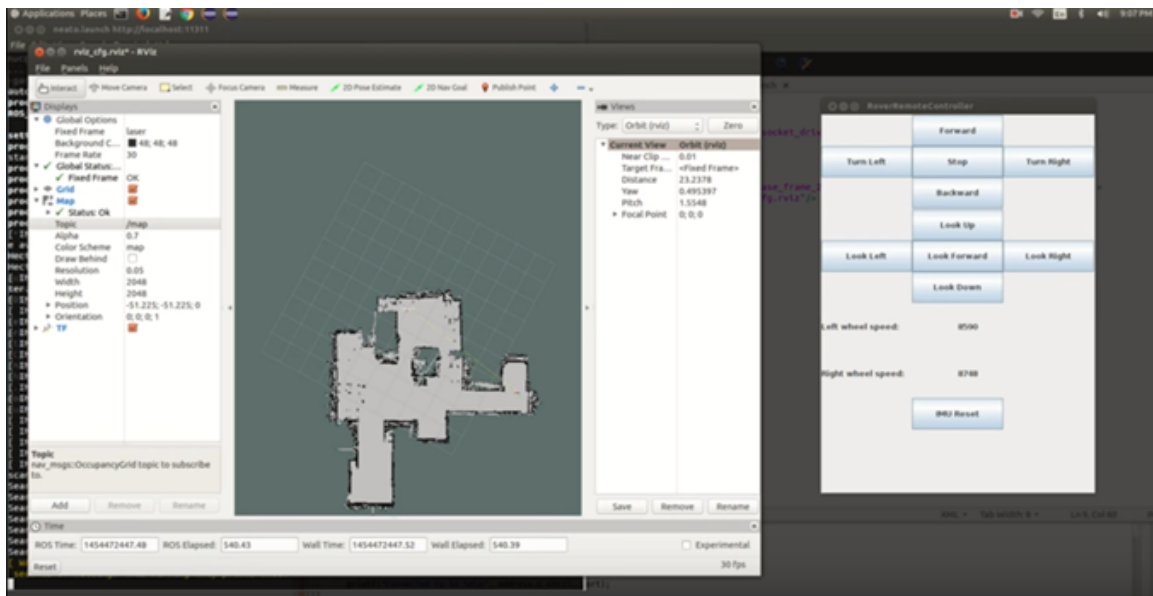


Figure 5.10: Unknown Environment 2D Map Representation

Description Robot map the room (10 meters length and 9.2 meters width) in 2 minutes. SLAM has been done wireless and a GUI was implemented. In this GUI, you can control the robot manually like going straight (just click the forward bottom) and turns (by clicking left/right turn bottoms). Besides, as we can see, the wheel encoder readings have been presented on the bottom of the GUI.

For full access to the indoor SLAM demo video, it has been uploaded to youtube:

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=750z3U4tSAA>

Autonomously line guided robot to perform indoor SLAM Besides robot can be controlled manually to perform SLAM, autonomously line guided robot performing indoor SLAM is of great importance.

First, we build a self-designed indoor area to perform SLAM, here is what this area looks like:



Figure 5.11: Self Designed Area for Mapping

Comparison between generated 2D grid map and real floor plan of that area.

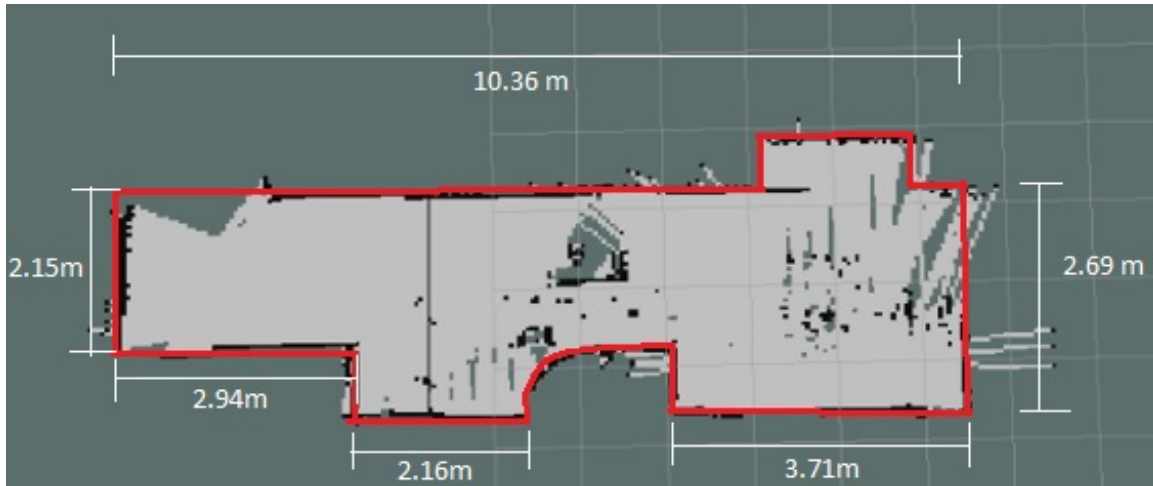


Figure 5.12: Comparison Between Generated Map and Real Floor Plan

Robot finished mapping the area in 38 seconds.

Map Accuracy

- Horizontal Accuracy

Length of the real mapped area is $30.48cm \times 34 = 1036.32cm = 10.36m$. In generated 2D grid map, the length of the map is $9.80m$. In this case, the horizontal accuracy is:

$$\text{map horizontal accuracy} = \frac{10.36m - 9.80m}{10.36m} \times 100\% = 5.40\% \quad (5.33)$$

- Vertical Accuracy

Width of the real mapped area is $30.48cm \times 8+25cm = 268.8cm \approx 2.69m$. In generated 2D grid map, the length of the map is $2.77m$. In this case, the vertical accuracy is:

$$\text{map vertical accuracy} = \frac{2.77m - 2.69m}{2.69m} \times 100\% = 2.97\% \quad (5.34)$$

Relationship Between Nodes

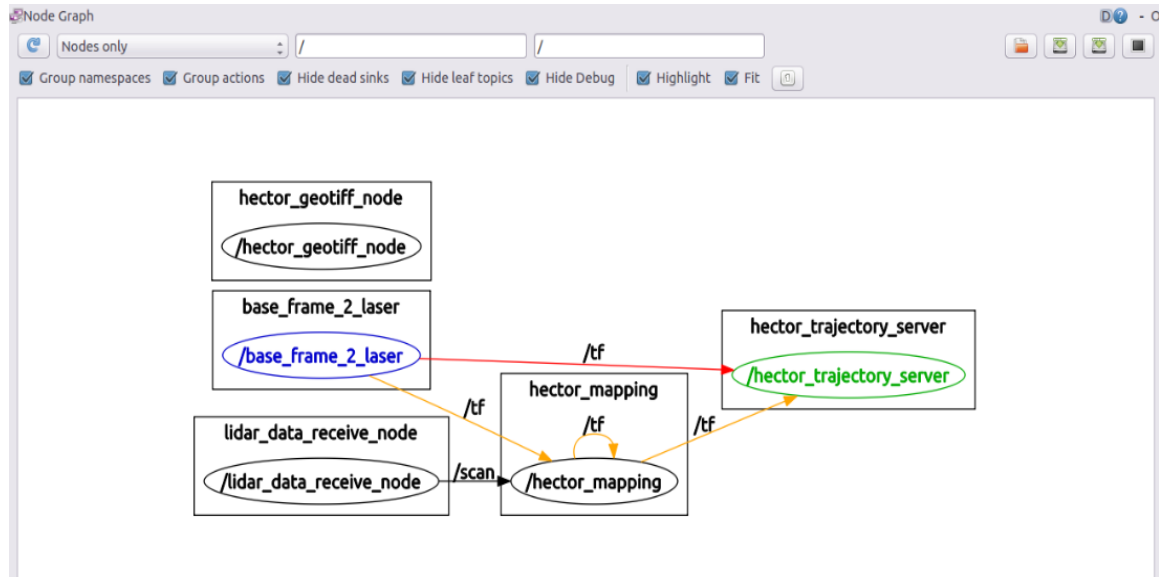


Figure 5.13: Node rqt Graph

Description Figure 5.13 shows the relationship between different running nodes. This rqt graph was generated when I was using robot to wirelessly map the room GWC 379C.

The basic data flow is :

1. Wirelessly received data stored in ROS TOPIC */scan*
2. Change ROS TOPIC */scan* to a ROS PUBLISHER, data stored in this topic was broadcasting to all the running nodes
3. After receiving the published LIDAR data packages, node *hector_mapping* is responsible for 2D map representation and node *hector_trajectory* is calculation the estimated real time pose of robot using EKF
4. All these nodes are connected by node *tf*

Connections between ROS frames

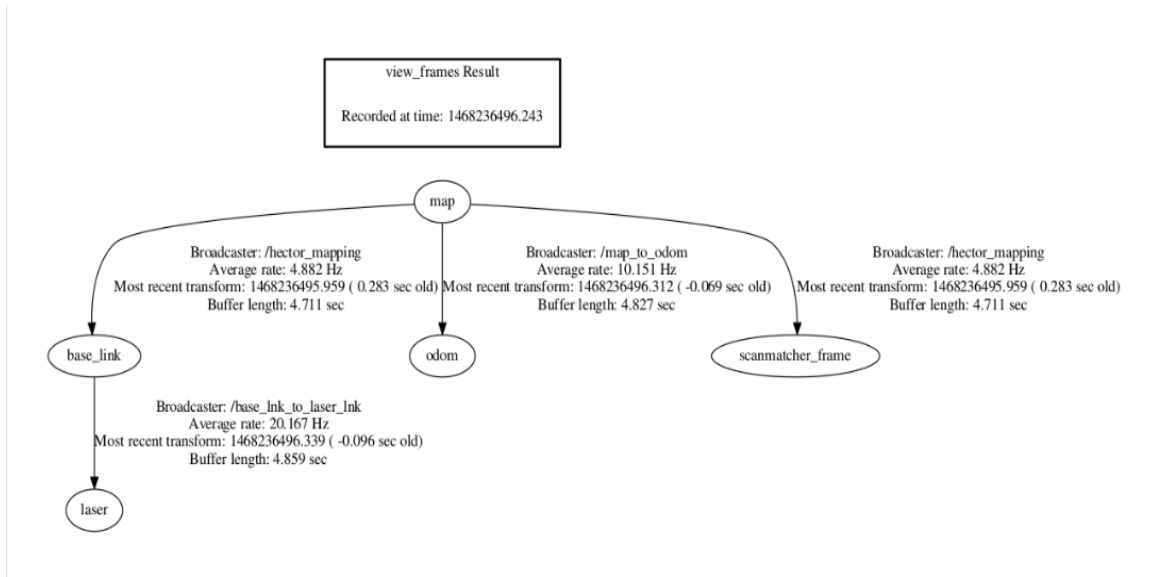


Figure 5.14: ROS tf Frames

tf is a package that lets the user keep track of multiple coordinate frames over time. *tf* maintains the relationship between coordinate frames in a tree structure buffered in time, and lets the user transform points, vectors, etc between any two coordinate frames at any desired point in time.

In this case, the *tf* frame graph shows the connections between different frames ROS was using while the robot was performing indoor SLAM.

Wireless SLAM in Room GWC 379C (5x3meters Room)

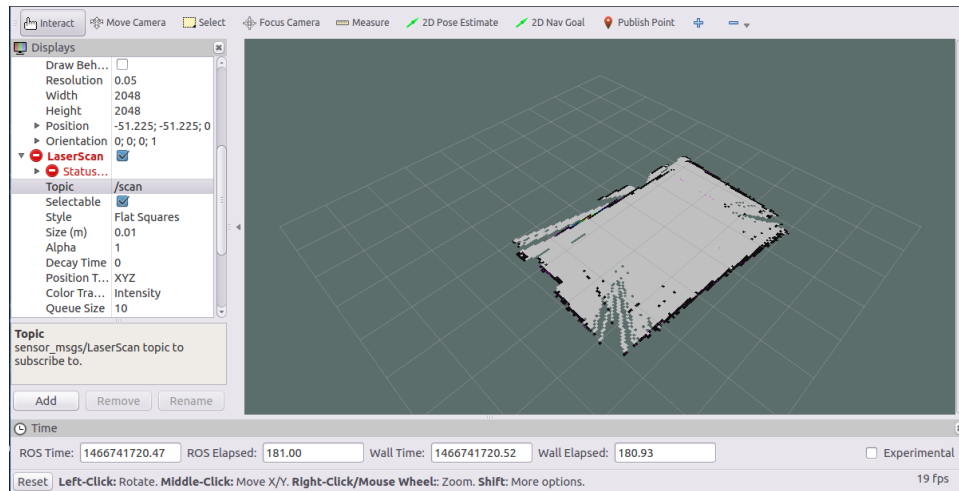


Figure 5.15: Wireless SLAM in Room GWC 379C (5x3meters Room)

Description. 2D grid map for room GWC 379C (5x3 meters) was generated in 18 seconds. Most errors and mismatches came from wireless LIDAR data transmission package loss. Using better router and WiFi adapter or replace TCP/IP protocol may solve the problem.

When LIDAR scan frequency is too low

Figure 5.16 shows the result when robot perform SLAM on 4th floor of Center Point Computer Science Engineering building. After mapped the room (on the right), robot went through the door and then went alone a hall way. Finally, it made a left turn and mapped the rest small room (which is on the left).

The second step is that robot made a sharp U-turn and started re-mapping the area. To be more precise, robot turned 180° in 2 seconds (a sharp U-turn). The generated maps (before and after sharp U-turn) are not matched.

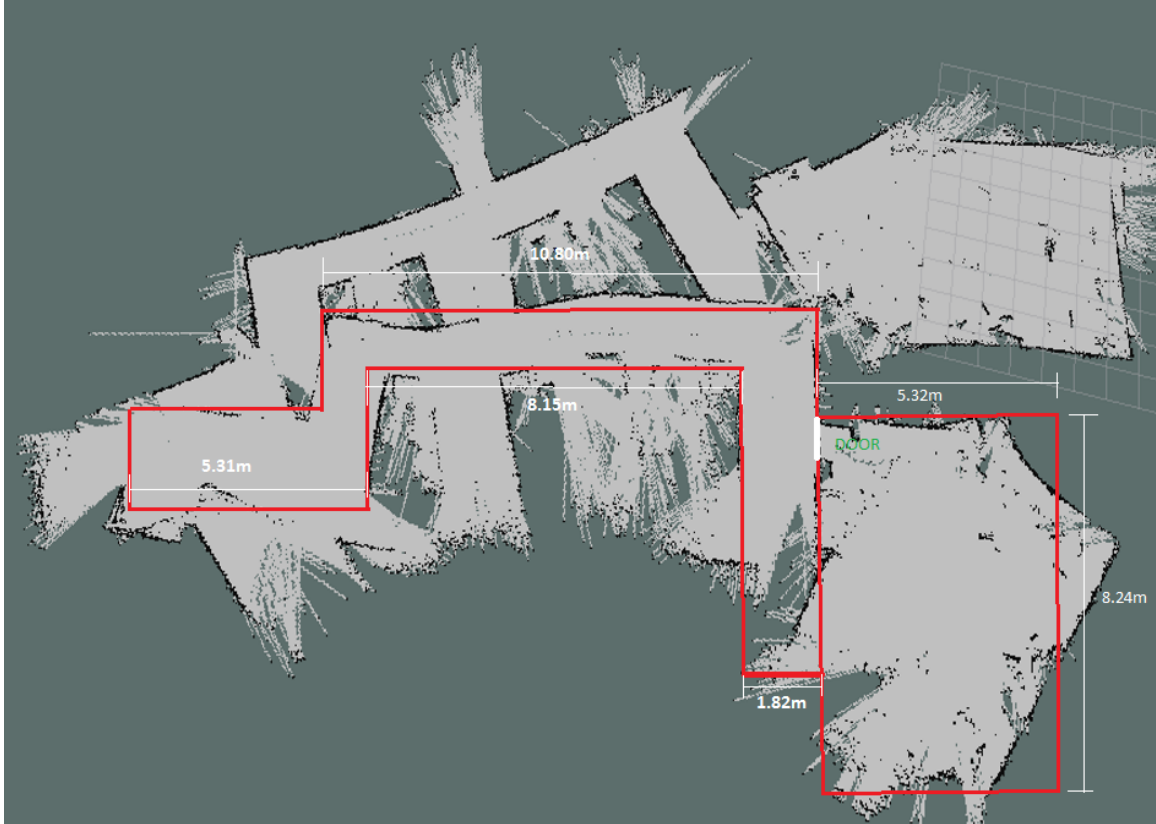


Figure 5.16: LIDAR Scan Frequency is Too Low

5.6 Summary and Conclusion

In this chapter, we well discussed how to implement Hector Mapping algorithm using ROS to perform indoor unknown environment mapping. Detailed setup instructions were provided. Both manually remote controlled robot to perform indoor SLAM and autonomously line guided robot to perform indoor SLAM have been well explained.

Real floor plan has been compared to the 2D grip map we have generated. To draw a brief conclusion, our FreeSLAM robot has the ability to perform SLAM in indoor unknown environment.

SLAM WITH SENSOR FUSION OF ODOMETRY AND LIDAR SCAN DATA -
GMAPPING

6.1 Introduction and Overview

When Input and Observation Noises are Non-Gaussian

Recently Rao-Blackwellized particle filters have been introduced as effective means to solve the simultaneous localization and mapping (SLAM) problem. This approach uses a particle filter in which each particle carries an individual map of the environment. Accordingly, a key question is how to reduce the number of particles. We present adaptive techniques to reduce the number of particles in a Rao-Blackwellized particle filter for learning grid maps. We propose an approach to compute an accurate proposal distribution taking into account not only the movement of the robot but also the most recent observation. This drastically decrease the uncertainty about the robot's pose in the prediction step of the filter. Furthermore, we apply an approach to selectively carry out re-sampling operations which seriously reduces the problem of particle depletion.

To draw a brief conclusion of particle filter:

what is a particle filter Briefly, particle filter is a Bayes Filter. Besides, it's a way to efficiently represent non-Gaussian distribution. As mentioned in Chapter 4, Kalman Filter is the best low pass filter when input noises are Gaussian. So in the case that those input noises are non-Gaussian, particle filter can be a way to choose from those low-pass filters.

6.2 Detailed Modeling for Gmapping SLAM Approach

Definitions

- f - motion equation
- u - control inputs
- w - input noise
- g - observation equation
- y - observation data
- n - observation noise

Motion Model

The motion model describes the relative motion of the robot:

$$p(x_t \mid x_{t-1}, u_t) \tag{6.1}$$

Estimated Robot Pose includes X and Y position information and robot's orientation ψ

$$Pose : x_t = [x, y, \psi]_k \tag{6.2}$$

Motion Equation f :

$$x_{k+1} = x_k + \Delta x_k + w_k \tag{6.3}$$

In this chapter, we assume that both input noise (w_k) and observation noise (n_k) are Non-Gaussian noise. As a result, Extended Kalman Filter will not be a good choice. The most common Non-Gaussian noise is salt and pepper noise.

Observation Model

The observation or sensor model relates measurements with the robot's estimated

pose:

$$p(z_t | x_t) \tag{6.4}$$

$L_k = [L_{k,x}, L_{k,y}]$ is a 2D landmark. Landmark can be selected automatically by computer, usually it is supposed to be a corner or a object observed in the mapping area.

$$L_k = [L_{k,x}, L_{k,y}]_k \tag{6.5}$$

Observation Equation g :

$$\begin{bmatrix} r \\ \theta \end{bmatrix}_k = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\|x_k - L_k\|^2} \\ \tan^{-1} \frac{L_{k,y} - x_{k,y}}{L_{k,x} - x_{k,x}} \end{bmatrix} + n_k \tag{6.6}$$

Obviously the observation equation above is non-linear.

6.3 Probabilistic Laws

Mathematical Expression of SLAM

To recall what has been mentioned in Chapter 4, the representation of SLAM is as follows:

$$p(x, m | z, u) \tag{6.7}$$

where x denotes the pose of the robot, m is the grip map and x represents the observations and movements.

Environment Measurement Data

$$z_{t_1:t_2} = z_{t_1}, z_{t_1+1}, z_{t_1+2}, \dots, z_{t_2} \tag{6.8}$$

denotes the set of all measurements acquired from time t_1 to time t_2 , for $t_1 \leq t_2$

Control Data

An alternative source of control data are *odometers*.

We will denote sequences of control data by

$$u_{t_1:t_2} = u_{t_1}, u_{t_1+1}, u_{t_1+2}, \dots, u_{t_2} \quad (6.9)$$

Probabilistic Generative Laws

The evolution of state and measurements is governed by probabilistic laws. In general, the state x_t is generated from the state x_{t-1} . Hence, the probabilistic law characterizing the evolution of state by a probabilistic distribution of the following form:

$$p(x_t \mid x_{0:t-1}, z_{1:t-1}, u_{1:t}) \quad (6.10)$$

We assume that the robot executes a control action u_1 first, and then takes a measurement z_1 .

$$p(x_t \mid x_{0:t-1}, z_{1:t-1}, u_{1:t}) = p(x_t \mid x_{t-1}, u_t) \quad (6.11)$$

This property is called *conditional independence*. It states that certain variables are independent of others if one knows that values of a third group of variables, the conditioning variables.

$$p(z_t \mid x_{0:t}, z_{1:t-1}, u_{1:t}) = p(z_t \mid x_t) \quad (6.12)$$

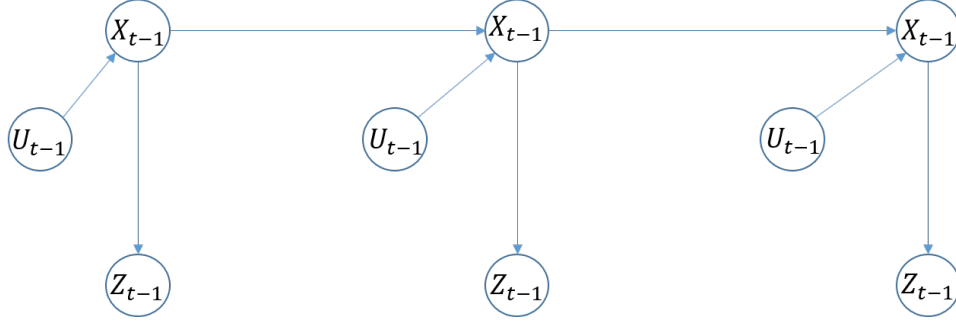


Figure 6.1: The Dynamic Bayes Network that Characterized the Evolution of Controls, States, and Measurements

This property shows that the state x_t is sufficient to predict the measurement z_t . Any other variables, such as past measurements, controls and states, is irrelevant if x_t is complete.

6.4 Sample Base Localization

The basic principle of implementing particle filter in Gmapping node: First, to set the state hypotheses (which are the "particles"). Of course we can set the number of the particles. the more particles we set, the more accuracy of state estimation we'll get. but meanwhile it will require more computational complicity and time. Second step, is that we use the combination of LIDAR processed data and odometry data to find those Survival-of-the-fittest particles, which are the accurate estimation of real time robot's pose.

Set of weighted samples

$$S = \{ \langle s^{(i)}, w^{(i)} \rangle \mid i = 1, 2, \dots, N \} \quad (6.13)$$

In the equation above, $s^{(i)}$ denotes the state hypothesis and $w^{(i)}$ means the Importance weight of each particle.

The samples represent the posterior

$$P(x) = \sum_{i=1}^N w_i \cdot \delta_{s^{(i)}}(x) \quad (6.14)$$

From Sampling to a Particle Filter

- Set of samples describes the posterior
- Updates are based on actions (control of DC motors and steering servo) and observations (LIDAR observations and encoder, IMU readings)

Three sequential steps:

1. Sampling from the proposal distribution (Bayes filter: prediction step)
2. Compute the particle weight (Bayes filter: correction step)
3. Resampling

Monte-Carlo Localization

- For each motion δ (each movement of robot) do sampling: Generate from each sample in a new sample according to the motion model.

$$x^{(i)} \leftarrow x^{(i)} + \Delta' \quad (6.15)$$

- For each observation (LIDAR data and odometry readings) do: Weight the samples with the observation likelihood

$$w^{(i)} \leftarrow p(z|m, x^{(i)}) \quad (6.16)$$

- Re-sampling

As a result, using all the information we've used above, we can basically conclude the particle filter solution to the SLAM problem:

1. Use a particle filter to represent potential trajectories of the robot
2. Each particle carries its own map
3. Each particle survives with a probability proportional to the likelihood of the observations relative to its own map
4. We have a joint posterior about the poses of the robot and the map

6.5 Summary and Conclusion

As we have discussed in Chapter 5, Extended Kalman Filter is one of the best filter under Gaussian noise. In this chapter, we introduced another filter: Particle Filter (PF) which may have better performance under LIDAR measurement non-Gaussian noise. More detailed algorithms and implementations will be addressed in future works and researches.

SUMMARY AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

7.1 Summary of Work

This thesis addressed many design, analysis, control and LIDAR mapping issues that are critical to achieve the longer term *FAME* objective. The following summarizes key themes within the thesis.

1. **Self-Designed Rear Wheel Drive FAME Mobile Robot Platform.** In Lin's thesis, it was shown how off-the-shelf components could be used to build a low-cost multi-capability ground vehicle that can be used for serious robotics research. In this thesis, more expensive and selected components were used. While our enhanced FreeSLAM robot (with 360 RP LIDAR, wheel encoders, a 9 dof IMU, Arduino Uno, Raspberry PI III, camera, video WiFi link, pan-tilt servo) cost less than 610, it offer the capabilities of a self-driving robot costing more than 3000. Instructions for enhancement/building were included (see Appendix).
2. **FAME Architecture.** A general *FAME* architecture has been described one that can accommodate a large fleet of vehicles and those can finish tasks cooperatively. For example, platooning of a fleet of robots and a group of robots build a map of a room together.
3. **Literature Survey** A fairly comprehensive literature survey of relevant work was presented.

4. **Modeling** Kinematic and dynamic models for rear wheel drive robot were presented and analyzed to understand the full utility of each model. A nonlinear dynamical model (with motor dynamics) for the rear-wheel drive was used to conduct linear trade studies whose are useful for the development of cruise controllers.
5. **Control** Both inner-loop and outer-loop control designs were discussed in the context of of an overall hierarchical control inner-outer loop framework. This framework lends itself to accommodate multiple modes of operations; e.g. cruise control along a line/curve, position control along a line/curve, planar xy -Cartesian stabilization, etc.

A great deal of effort was spent on discussion fundamental performance limitations. Attention was spent on static (steady state, accuracy related) limitations as well as dynamics (bandwidth) limitations. Encoder, IMU, camera (wireless vedio streaming and), and A-to-D (zero order hold half sample) limitations were particularly emphasized. This shall be very useful to researchers pursuing future *FAME* developments.

7.2 Directions for Future Research

- **Localization.** Development of a lab-based localization system using a variety of technologies (e.g. USB cameras, depth sensors, LIDAR, ultrasonic, etc.). Localization is essential for multi-robots cooperating. Once each robot knows where it is and where the other robots are, more complected robot cooperation can be performed.
- **On-board Sensing.** Addition of multiple on board sensors; e.g. additional ultrasonics, depth sensors(Kinect), 3D LIDAR, GPS & cameras.

- **Advanced Image Processing.** Use of advanced image processing and optimization algorithms; e.g. Implementations of OpenCV and OpenGL and vision based mapping and localization.
- **Multi-Vehicle Cooperation.** Cooperation between ground, air, and sea vehicles - including quadrotors, micro-air vehicles; e.g. nano-air vehicles landing on large ground robot, platooning of a fleet of ground robots and multi-robots solving indoor and outdoor SLAM problems.
- **Parallel On-board Computing.** Use of multiple processors on a robot for computationally intense work; e.g. multi-robots solving indoor unknown environment mapping, they have the ability to communicate to each other and divide the grid map of the room into some categories, which can significantly save time.
- **3D Unknown Environment Reconstruction.** In this thesis, the 2D indoor unknown environment mapping was wellly discussed. In the future, we can achieve 3D indoor and outdoor unknown environment reconstruction using 3D LIDAR, depth sensors and cameras.
- **Modelling and Control.** More accurate dynamic models and controls laws. This can include the development of multi-rate control laws that can significantly lower sampling requirements.
- **Control-Centric Vehicle Design.** Understanding when simple control laws are possible and when complex control laws are essential. This includes understanding how control-relevant specifications impact the design of a vehicle robot.

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APPENDIX A
MATLAB CODE

```

1  %*****DC Motor Dynamics Simulation*****
2
3  %parameters
4  Ra = 2.523; %ohm resistant
5  La = 0;% armature inductance, which is neglected
6  Kt = 0.004; % torque constant
7  Kb = 0.004; %Back EMF constant
8  J = 2.96*10^-6; % Load moment of inertia
9  B = 4.3*10^-5; % Damping constant
10
11 % Here is the transfer function from Ea to angular velocity
12 s = tf('s');
13 Simulation = Kt/(La*J*s^2+(La*B+Ra*J)*s+Kt*Kb+Ra*B);
14 %step(Simulation,5,'r');
15
16 %Transfer function from Ea to Tau
17 H1 = (1/(La*s+Ra))*Kt;
18 H2 = (Kb*(1/(J*s+B)));
19 H3 = H1/(1+H1*H2);
20 zpk(H3)
21
22 %*****END DC Motor Dynamics Simulation END*****

1  %*****State Space Representation for*****
2  %*****Vision Based Complete Lateral Model*****
3  close all
4  clear all
5  clc
6
7  % Parameters of Lateral Dynamics
8  SIM_cf=120000; %lb/rad stiffness of front wheel
9  SIM_cr=100000; %lb/rad stiffness of rear wheel
10 SIM_I_psi = 2753; %slug ft^2
11 SIM_m = 1573; %slugs , 1 slug = 14.593903 kg
12 SIM_ca = 1.44; %aerodynamics drag coefficient
13 SIM_lr = 1.53; %distance from rear axle to cg
14 SIM_lf = 1.137; %distance from front axle to cg
15 SIM_l=SIM_lr+SIM_lf; %full length of the vehicle
16 SIM_L = 15; % 15m look ahead distance by raspberry pi camera
17 SIM_vx = 20; % m/s cruise speed of the robot
18 SIM_Td = 0.15; %s vision subsystem delay
19
20 %*****State Space Representation
21
22 syms m I_psi lf lr l cf cr L vx s
23
24 % Matrix A
25 a11 = -(cf+cr)/(m*vx);
26 a12 = -vx + (cr*lr - cf*lf)/(m*vx);
27 a13 = 0;
28 a14 = 0;
29
30 a21 = (-lf*cf + lr*cr)/(I_psi*vx);
31 a22 = -((lf^2)*cf + (lr^2)*cr)/(I_psi*vx);
32 a23 = 0;
33 a24 = 0;

```

```

34
35 a31 = -1;
36 a32 = -L;
37 a33 = 0;
38 a34 = vx;
39
40 a41 = 0;
41 a42 = -1;
42 a43 = 0;
43 a44 = 0;
44
45 A=[ a11 a12 a13 a14;
46     a21 a22 a23 a24;
47     a31 a32 a33 a34;
48     a41 a42 a43 a44];
49
50 %*****
51 %Matrix B
52
53 b11 = cf/m;
54 b21 = (lf*cf)/I_psi;
55 b31 = 0;
56 b41 = 0;
57
58 B = [ b11
59       b21
60       b31
61       b41];
62
63 %*****
64 %Matrix C
65 c11 = -(cf+cr)/(m*vx);
66 c12 = (cr*lr - cf*lf)/(m*vx);
67 c13 = 0;
68 c14 = 0;
69
70 c21 = 0;
71 c22 = 1;
72 c23 = 0;
73 c24 = 0;
74
75 c31 = 0;
76 c32 = 0;
77 c33 = 1;
78 c34 = 0;
79
80 c41 = 0;
81 c42 = 0;
82 c43 = 0;
83 c44 = 1;
84
85 C=[ c11 c12 c13 c14;
86     c21 c22 c23 c24;
87     c31 c32 c33 c34;
88     c41 c42 c43 c44];
89
90 %*****

```

```

91 %Matrix D
92 d11 = cf/m;
93 d21 = 0;
94 d31 = 0;
95 d41 = 0;
96
97 D = [d11
98       d21
99       d31
100      d41];
101 %%
102 %Plant Symbolic
103 X = (C/(s*eye(4)-A)*B+D);
104
105 I4=eye(4);
106 P=C/(s*I4-A)*B+D;
107 pretty(simplify(P))
108 %Plug in numbers
109
110 %*****Simulation model
111
112 SIM_A = double(subs(A,{cf cr m vx lr lf I_psi L },...
113 {SIM_cf SIM_cr SIM_m SIM_vx SIM_lr SIM_lf SIM_I_psi SIM_L}));
114
115 SIM_B = double(subs(B,{cf m lf I_psi},...
116 {SIM_cf SIM_m SIM_lf SIM_I_psi}));
117
118 SIM_C = double(subs(C,{cf cr m vx lr lf},...
119 {SIM_cf SIM_cr SIM_m SIM_vx SIM_lr SIM_lf}));
120
121 SIM_D = double(subs(D,{cf m},{SIM_cf SIM_m}));
122
123 SIM_SS=ss(SIM_A,SIM_B,SIM_C,SIM_D);
124 %%
125 %   SIM_X = (SIM_C/(s*eye(4)-SIM_A)*SIM_B+SIM_D);
126 %%
127 SIM_SS(3,1)
128 figure(1);
129 bode(SIM_SS(3,1))
130 grid on;
131 hold on;

1 %*****Longitudinal Inner Loop PI Controller Trade Study*****
2
3 clc
4 %PI Controller Parameters
5 z = 0.5;
6 g = 9;
7
8 %Varying g and z
9
10 %for g = 1:4:17
11 for z = 0.1:0.2:0.9
12
13 Ki = 4.5;
14 g = Kp;

```

```

15 z = Ki/Kp;
16
17 s = tf('s');
18 %winit = -1;
19 %wfin = 2;
20 %nwpts = 300;
21 %w = logspace(winit,wfin,nwpts);
22
23 K = ((g*(s+z))/s)*(100/(s+100));
24 %The PI controller with high-freq roll-off
25
26 W = z/(s+z); %The pre-filter
27
28 % Longitudinal Plant Representation
29
30 P = 0.146*(s+14.53)/((s+0.1116)*(s+16.67));
31
32 %Form Open Loop Singular Values
33 L = P * K;
34
35 %Open Loop Frequency Response
36 figure(1);
37 %bode(L)
38
39 %Form Closed Loop Transfer Functions
40 figure(2)
41
42 tr2y = W*L/(1+L); % Try
43 bodemag(tr2y)
44 %step(tr2y,50)
45 hold on
46 grid
47
48 figure(3)
49     tru = K/(1+L); % Tru without W
50     tru_W = W*K/(1+L); % Tru with W
51     bodemag(tru_W)
52     bodemag(tru_filter)
53     step(tr2u);
54
55 %bodemag(tr2u)
56 hold on;
57 grid on;
58 %
59     S = 1/(1+L); %Sensitivity
60     bodemag(S)
61
62 %
63     T = L/(1-L); %Complementary Sensitivity
64     bodemag(T)
65
66 %Implementing the Filter:
67
68 figure(4)
69 step(tr2y)
70 hold on
71 grid

```

```

72
73 figure(5)
74 step(tr2u)
75 hold on
76 grid
77
78 tdiy = P/(1+L);      % Tdiy
79 bodemag(tdiy)
80
81 tdi2u = -PK/(1+PK); % Tdiu
82
83 %Determine Closed Loop Poles
84 clp_long = pole(1/(1+PK));
85
86 %Stability Robustness
87 allmargin(PK);
88
89 %Closed Loop Transfer Functions
90 zpk_tr2y = minreal(zpk(tr2y));
91 zpk_tr2u = minreal(zpk(tr2u));
92 zpk_tdi2y = minreal(zpk(tdi2y));
93 zpk_tdi2u = minreal(zpk(tdi2u));
94 %
95 %Plots Settings
96     grid on;
97     set( findobj(gca, 'type', 'line'), 'LineWidth', 2);
98     h = findobj(gcf, 'type', 'line');
99     set(h, 'LineWidth', 3);
100    a = findobj(gcf, 'type', 'axes');
101    set(a, 'linewidth', 6);
102    set(a, 'FontSize', 14);
103    xlabel('', 'FontSize', 24);
104    ylabel('', 'FontSize', 24);
105    hold on;
106 end
107
108 %Trade Studies Titles and Legends
109
110 %Try changing g
111 title('Frequency Response T (With Pre-Filter & g = 1-17, z = 0.5)')
112 legend('g=1 z=0.5', 'g=5 z=0.5', 'g=9 z=0.5', 'g=13 z=0.5', 'g=17 z=0.5')
113
114 %Try changing z
115 title ('Bode Magnitudes for T (With Pre-Filter and g = 9, z = 0.1-0.9)')
116 legend ('g=9 z=0.1', 'g=9 z=0.3', 'g=9 z=0.5', 'g=9 z=0.7', 'g=9 z=0.9')
117
118 %L changing g
119 title ('Bode Plot for L (g = 1-17, z = 0.5)')
120 legend ('g=1 z=0.5', 'g=5 z=0.5', 'g=9 z=0.5', 'g=13 z=0.5', 'g=17 z=0.5')
121
122 %L changing z
123 title ('Bode Plot for L (g = 9, z = 0.1-0.9)')
124 legend ('g=9 z=0.1', 'g=9 z=0.3', 'g=9 z=0.5', 'g=9 z=0.7', 'g=9 z=0.9')
125
126 %S changing g
127 title ('Bode Magnitudes for Sensitivity, g = 1-17, z = 0.5')
128 legend ('g=1 z=0.5', 'g=5 z=0.5', 'g=9 z=0.5', 'g=13 z=0.5', 'g=17 z=0.5')

```



```

129
130 %S changing z
131 title ('Sensitivity, g = 9, z = 0.1-0.9', 'FontSize', 24)
132 legend ('g=9 z=0.1', 'g=9 z=0.3', 'g=9 z=0.5', 'g=9 z=0.7', 'g=9 z=0.9')
133
134 %T changing g
135 title ('Complementary Sensitivity T, g = 1-17, z = 0.5', 'FontSize', 24)
136 legend ('g=1 z=0.5', 'g=5 z=0.5', 'g=9 z=0.5', 'g=13 z=0.5', 'g=17 z=0.5')
137
138 %T changing z
139 title ('Complementary Sensitivity T, g = 9, z = 0.1-0.9', 'FontSize', 24)
140 legend ('g=9 z=0.1', 'g=9 z=0.3', 'g=9 z=0.5', 'g=9 z=0.7', 'g=9 z=0.9')
141
142 Tru without prefilter changing g
143 title ('Bode Magnitude Plot for Tru , g = 1-17, z = 0.5', 'FontSize', 24)
144 legend ('g=1 z=0.5', 'g=5 z=0.5', 'g=9 z=0.5', 'g=13 z=0.5', 'g=17 z=0.5')
145
146 Tru without prefilter changing z
147 title ('Bode Magnitude Plot for Tru , g = 9, z = 0.1-0.9', 'FontSize', 24)
148 legend ('g=9 z=0.1', 'g=9 z=0.3', 'g=9 z=0.5', 'g=9 z=0.7', 'g=9 z=0.9')
149
150 Tru_W with pre-filter changing g
151 title ('Bode Magnitude Plot for W*Tru , g = 1-17, z = 0.5', 'FontSize', 24)
152 legend ('g=1 z=0.5', 'g=5 z=0.5', 'g=9 z=0.5', 'g=13 z=0.5', 'g=17 z=0.5')
153
154 Tru_W with pre-filter changing z
155 title (' W*Tru , g = 9, z = 0.1-0.9', 'FontSize', 24)
156 legend ('g=9 z=0.1', 'g=9 z=0.3', 'g=9 z=0.5', 'g=9 z=0.7', 'g=9 z=0.9')
157
158 Tdiy changing g
159 title ('Bode Magnitude Plot for Tdiy , g = 1-17, z = 0.5', 'FontSize', 24)
160 legend ('g=1 z=0.5', 'g=5 z=0.5', 'g=9 z=0.5', 'g=13 z=0.5', 'g=17 z=0.5')
161
162 Tdiy changing z
163 title ('Bode Magnitude Plot for Tdiy , g = 9, z = 0.1-0.9', 'FontSize', 24)
164 legend ('g=9 z=0.1', 'g=9 z=0.3', 'g=9 z=0.5', 'g=9 z=0.7', 'g=9 z=0.9')

1 %***Onground Model Longitudinal PI Controller Implementation***
2
3 % PI control mode verify
4 clear all
5 % close all
6 clc
7 % Load Nominal Model
8 % input voltage 2 angular speed
9 Plant = tf([0.3274],[1 1.176]);
10 %% Global Variable List
11 % create_global_vars_list
12 Ts =0.1;
13 RUNTIME = 8.9;
14 BV = 8;
15
16 % Always check what inside
17
18 % PI control parameter loading
19 % Prepare PID table in advance

```

```

20 % put your (g,z) trade off study here
21
22 % in matrix each col corresponding to one z value
23 % in matrix each row corresponding to one g value
24 % plots in column-wise from reshaped(mat,#row*#col,1)
25
26 % ts = 1.5
27 % g_vec = [0.073]; z_vec = [0.194/0.073]; raw_file_name = 'out1.2.mat';
28 % g_vec = [0.096]; z_vec = [0.519/0.096]; raw_file_name = 'out2.2.mat';
29 g_vec = [11.68]; z_vec = [2.02];
30
31 g_len = length(g_vec);
32 z_len = length(z_vec);
33
34 S_PI= PID_Table_Generator_0702(g_vec,z_vec);
35 %% Prepare Data and Initializing For Later Mfiles
36 % Hardware data loading
37 % with prefilter
38 % Check and Edit This File Before you run following Code
39 % G_wF = DataImport_Log_PID_0707(raw_file_name)
40
41 Hw= [0 0
42 0.00 15
43 0.00 53
44 0.00 91
45 0.06 107
46 0.13 112
47 0.19 117
48 0.25 113
49 0.28 118
50 0.38 101
51 0.44 79
52 0.47 72
53 0.53 49
54 0.57 31
55 0.53 37
56 0.53 38
57 0.57 22
58 0.53 26
59 0.47 50
60 0.44 67
61 0.47 61
62 0.50 49
63 0.53 37
64 0.53 31
65 0.50 42
66 0.50 43
67 0.50 42
68 0.53 31
69 0.53 25
70 0.50 36
71 0.50 37
72 0.47 47
73 0.47 53
74 0.53 31
75 0.53 23
76 0.53 24

```

```
77 0.53 19
78 0.47 40
79 0.47 48
80 0.50 35
81 0.50 34
82 0.50 35
83 0.50 34
84 0.47 45
85 0.44 61
86 0.50 45
87 0.53 27
88 0.50 37
89 0.53 28
90 0.50 31
91 0.47 49
92 0.50 39
93 0.50 36
94 0.50 38
95 0.50 36
96 0.50 37
97 0.50 36
98 0.50 36
99 0.50 36
100 0.50 36
101 0.50 35
102 0.50 35
103 0.47 46
104 0.47 52
105 0.50 41
106 0.50 39
107 0.50 40
108 0.50 39
109 0.50 39
110 0.50 38
111 0.50 38
112 0.47 49
113 0.47 55
114 0.50 43
115 0.50 41
116 0.53 31
117 0.53 25
118 0.50 36
119 0.50 37
120 0.50 36
121 0.50 36
122 0.50 36
123 0.50 36
124 0.47 46
125 0.47 52
126 0.50 41
127 0.50 39
128 0.50 40
129 0.50 39
130 0.47 50];
131
132 hw_time = 0:0.1:8.9;
133 G_wF.time = hw_time;
```

```

134 G_wF.PWMMR          = Hw(:,2);
135 G_wF.LinearV        = Hw(:,1);
136
137 disp('Hardware data loading finished ')
138
139 %% Generate Simulation Transfer Functions
140 %Try(wR_ref,wL_ref)->(wR,wL)
141 %Tru(wR_ref,wL_ref)->(ea_R,ea_L)
142 % reference cmd; v_ref = 0.5;
143 reference_factor = 0.5;
144 pwm_voltage_factor = 255/BV;
145 set_size = length(S.PI.PI_cell);
146
147 % Generate Transfer Functions for different g z
148 % Store them in Transfer Function Cell
149 % Creat Cells
150 Try_cell_wF = cell(set_size,1);
151 Tru_cell_wF = cell(set_size,1);
152
153 for ii =1
154     g = S.PI.gz_cell{ii}(1)
155     z = S.PI.gz_cell{ii}(2)
156     P = Plant
157     K = tf([g g*z],[1 0]);
158     rf = tf([100],[1 100]);
159     %     rf = tf(1);
160     K = series(K,rf)
161     W = tf([z],[1 z]); % pre-filter
162     H = tf([20],[1 20]);
163     S = siso_tf_generator_0702(W,P,K,H);
164
165     %     S = siso_tf_generator_0702(W,P,K,H);
166     disp(' ')
167     dispstr = sprintf('***** Start with g %.3f and z %.3f', g,z);
168     disp(dispstr);
169     K = zpk(K)
170     zpk(S.L)
171     S.Try;
172     zpk(minreal(S.Tru))
173
174     %     num_wF = Try_wF.num{1};
175     %     den_wF = Try_wF.den{1};
176     %     disp('damping coefficient calculation ')
177     %     xi = den(2)/(2*sqrt(den(3))) % damping coefficient calculation
178     %     overshoot = exp(-xi*pi/sqrt(1-xi^2))*100
179
180     Try_cell_wF{ii} = S.Try;
181     Tru_cell_wF{ii} = S.Tru;
182     S_wF = stepinfo(S.Try); % Get Steady State Info
183
184     g_list(ii) = g;
185     z_list(ii) = z;
186
187     dispstr = sprintf('##### End with g %.3f and z %.3f',g,z);
188     %     disp(dispstr);
189     dispstr = sprintf('%s Peak Value %.3f',dispstr,S_wF.Peak);
190     disp(dispstr);

```

```

191
192     disp(' ');
193     disp(' ');
194 end
195 disp('Simulation Transfer Functions Ready ')
196
197 %% Simulation and Hardware Comparison Try(v)
198
199 for ii =1
200     fig = figure(ii+20);
201
202     [Y_Sim_wF,T_Sim_wF] = step(Try_cell_wF{ii},RUNTIME);
203     Y_Sim_wF = Y_Sim_wF* reference_factor; % output v simulation
204
205     % hardware
206     time_wF      = G_wF.time;
207     LinearV      = G_wF.LinearV;
208     zero_output  = zeros(length(time_wF),1);
209
210     plot (T_Sim_wF,Y_Sim_wF,time_wF,LinearV);
211
212     h_line = findobj(gcf, 'type', 'line');
213     set(h_line, 'LineWidth', 3);
214     h_axes = findobj(gcf, 'type', 'axes');
215     set(h_axes, 'linewidth', 2);
216     set(h_axes, 'FontSize', 15);
217
218     hold on;grid on;
219     title ('Output response v_{ref} to v','FontSize',24);
220
221     legend('Simulation','Hardware','Location','NorthEast');
222     xlabel('Time(seconds)');
223     ylabel('Translation Speed of Vehicle (m/sec)');
224     axis([0 max(time_wF) 0 0.8]);
225 end
226
227 %% Simulation and Hardware Comparison Tru
228     PWM2Voltage_Gain = BV./255;
229     % Tru(wR,wL)
230     % input: linear velocity referece
231     % output voltage
232
233 for ii =1
234     fig = figure(ii+30);
235
236     [Y_Sim_wF,T_Sim_wF] = step(Tru_cell_wF{ii},RUNTIME);
237     Y_Sim_wF = Y_Sim_wF* reference_factor;
238
239     % hardware
240     time_wF      = G_wF.time;
241     eaR          = G_wF.PWMR.*PWM2Voltage_Gain;
242     zero_output  = zeros(length(time_wF),1);
243
244     plot (T_Sim_wF,Y_Sim_wF,time_wF,eaR);
245
246     h_line = findobj(gcf, 'type', 'line');
247     set(h_line, 'LineWidth', 3);

```

```

248     h_axes = findobj(gcf, 'type', 'axes');
249     set(h_axes, 'linewidth', 2);
250     set(h_axes, 'FontSize', 15);
251
252     hold on;grid on;
253     title ('Control output response v_{ref} to e_a','FontSize',24);
254
255     legend('Simulation','Hardware','Location','NorthEast');
256     xlabel('Time(seconds)');
257     ylabel('Voltage(V)');
258     axis([0 max(time_wF) 0 BV]);
259
260 end

```

```

1  %*****Lateral Model Inner Loop PI Controller Trade Study*****
2  %%
3  clear all
4  %%
5  Kp = 18;
6  Ki = 21.6;
7  s = tf('s');
8  %K = Kp + Ki/s; %The PI controller
9  %controller parameters
10 g = 18;
11 z = 1.2;
12 %for
13 K = ((g*(s+z))/s)*(100/(s+100)); %The PI controller with
14                                     %high-freq roll-off
15 W = z/(s+z); %The pre-filter
16
17 % lateral inner loop Plant representation
18
19 P = (0.368*(s+0.484))/((s+1.077)*(s+0.457));
20
21 %Form Open Loop Transfer Function
22 L = P * K;
23
24 %Open Loop Frequency Response
25 figure(1)
26 %bode(L);
27 %
28 % hold on
29 % grid
30 % %xlabel('Frequency (rad/sec)')
31 % %ylabel('Magnitude (dB)')
32 % title('lateral Plant Open Loop Magnitude and Phase Response')
33 %
34 % %Form Closed Loop Transfer Functions
35 % figure(2)
36
37 T_ry = L/(1+L);           %without pre-filter
38 zpk(minreal(T_ry))
39 T_ry_W = W*L/(1+L);      % Try
40 step(T_ry,7)
41 bodemag(T_ry_W)
42 step(T_ry_W,10)

```

```

43
44     bode(tr2y)
45     hold on;
46     grid on;
47
48     tr2u = K/(1+PK);           % Tru
49     figure(3)
50     bode(tr2u)
51     hold on
52     grid
53
54     tdi2y = P/(1+PK);         % Tdiy
55     tdi2u = -PK/(1+PK);      % Tdiu
56
57     grid on;
58     set( findobj(gca, 'type', 'line'), 'LineWidth', 2);
59     h = findobj(gcf, 'type', 'line');
60     set(h, 'LineWidth', 3);
61     a = findobj(gcf, 'type', 'axes');
62     set(a, 'linewidth', 6);
63     set(a, 'FontSize', 14);
64     xlabel(' ', 'FontSize', 24);
65     ylabel(' ', 'FontSize', 24);
66     hold on;
67
68 %end
69 % open loop L bode
70 title ('Bode Plot for Open Loop L-{\lateral}', 'FontSize', 24)
71 legend ('g=18, z=1.2')
72
73 %close loop Try without prefilter
74 title (' T-{\ry} without prefilter W', 'FontSize', 24)
75 legend ('g=18, z=1.2')
76
77 %Try without prefilter
78 title ('Step Response for T-{\ry} without prefilter W', 'FontSize', 24)
79 legend ('g=18, z=1.2')
80
81
82 %Try bode with a pre-filter
83 title ('Bode Magnitude Plot for T-{\ry} with prefilter W', 'FontSize', 24)
84 legend ('g=18, z=1.2')
85
86 %Try step response with a pre-filter W
87 title ('Step Response for T-{\ry} with prefilter W', 'FontSize', 24)
88 legend ('g=18, z=1.2')

1  %*****On Ground Vehicle Lateral Model*****
2  %%
3  load('lateral_model.mat')
4  %%
5
6  umax    = 8.2;
7  % PWM   = 40;
8
9  w_vec   = yaw_diff;

```

```

10 T_hw    = time;
11 u_vec   = 20/180*pi.*ones(length(time), 1);% delta_f
12
13 w_vec = [0; w_vec];
14 T_hw  = [0; T_hw];
15 u_vec = [0; u_vec];
16
17 plant_lat = tf([2.892],[1 2.659]);
18 %
19 radius = 0.024;
20
21 [Y_sim,T_sim] = step(plant_lat, max(T_hw));
22 Y_sim = Y_sim .* max(u_vec);
23
24 fig1 = figure(1);
25 plot(T_sim,Y_sim,T_hw,w_vec)
26 legend('Simulation','Hardware')
27 title(' \delta_f to Angular Velocity Step Response', 'FontSize', 24)
28 xlabel('Time(seconds)', 'FontSize', 24)
29 ylabel('Angular Velocity (rad/sec)', 'FontSize', 24);
30 hold on;grid on;
31 %
32 h_line = findobj(gcf, 'type', 'line');
33 set(h_line, 'LineWidth', 3);
34 h_axes = findobj(gcf, 'type', 'axes');
35 set(h_axes, 'linewidth', 2);
36 set(h_axes, 'FontSize', 15);

1 %*****Onground Lateral Model PI Controller Implementation*****
2 %%
3 clear all
4 clc
5 close all
6 %%
7
8 %% longitudinal
9 plant_long = tf(0.3274,[1 1.176]);
10 % PI inner loop v
11 ts = 2;
12 zeta = 0.9; % almost no overshoot
13
14 % inner loop longitudinal
15 [S1 S2 S3] = Innerloop_design_standard2nd.System(plant_long,ts,zeta);
16
17 wn = 2.7778; %Lateral Inner Loop Bandwidth
18
19 Mp = 0.0015;
20
21 g = 11.6799; % Choose Kp and Ki
22
23 z = 2.0178;
24
25 % No outerloop for longitudinal
26 %% lateral
27
28 plant_lat = tf(2.892,[1 2.659]);

```



```

29 % function S = siso_tf_generator(W,P,K)
30
31 % inner loop P
32 S4 = siso_tf_generator(1,plant_lat,2);
33
34 % outer loop PD
35
36 Integrator = tf([1],[1 0]);
37
38 plant_lat_out = series(S4.Try,Integrator);
39
40 g_vec =[1 2 3];
41
42 z = 3;
43
44 N = 100;
45
46 [K_cell,pid_cell] = platoon_pd_controller_fixed_zero_0707 ...
47 (plant_lat_out,g_vec,z,N,1)
48
49 % Select Kp = 6; Kd = 2;
50
51 %%
52 K_lat_out = K_cell{2};
53
54 S5 = siso_tf_generator(1,plant_lat_out,K_lat_out);
55 %Plotting Try
56 S5.Try;

1 %*****Lateral Outer Loop PD Controller Trade Studies*****
2 %%
3 clear all;
4 s = tf('s');
5 K = Kp + Ki/s; %The PI controller
6 z = 6;
7 controller parameters
8 g = 18;
9 %%
10
11 for g = 0.001:0.001:0.005
12
13 %K is the Inverse of the Plant with Gain
14 K = g*(s+92.88)*(s+6.94)*(s+1.229)*(s+0.4857)/ ...
15 ((s+1.2)*(s+0.484))*(100/(s+100))^3;
16
17
18 W = z/(s+z); %The pre-filter
19
20 %Lateral Inner Loop Plant Representation
21
22 P = (662.4*(s+1.2)*(s+0.484))/(s*(s+92.88)*(s+6.94)*(s+1.229)*(s+0.4857));
23
24 %Form Open Loop Transfer Function
25 L = P * K;
26
27 %Open Loop Frequency Response

```

```

28 figure(1)
29 %bode(L);
30
31 hold on
32 grid
33 xlabel('Frequency (rad/sec)')
34 ylabel('Magnitude (dB)')
35 title('lateral Plant Open Loop Magnitude and Phase Response')
36
37 %Form Closed Loop Transfer Functions
38 figure(2)
39
40 T_ry = L/(1+L);           %without pre-filter
41 S = 1/(1+L);           %Sensitivity
42 bodemag(S)
43 bodemag(T_ry)
44 step(T_ry)
45
46 zpk(minreal(T_ry))
47 T_ry_W = W*L/(1+L);     % Try
48 step(T_ry,7)
49 bodemag(T_ry_W)
50 step(T_ry_W,10)
51
52 bode(tr2y)
53 hold on
54 grid
55
56 T_ru = K/(1+L);        % Tru
57 figure(3)
58 bodemag(T_ru);
59 step(T_ru);
60 hold on;
61 grid;
62
63 tdi2y = P/(1+PK);     % Tdiy
64 tdi2u = -PK/(1+PK);  % Tdiu
65
66 grid on;
67 set(findobj(gca,'type','line'),'LineWidth', 2);
68 h = findobj(gcf,'type','line');
69 set(h,'LineWidth', 3);
70 a = findobj(gcf,'type','axes');
71 set(a,'linewidth', 6);
72 set(a,'FontSize', 14);
73 xlabel('','FontSize', 24);
74 ylabel('','FontSize', 24);
75 hold on;
76
77 end
78 %Open Loop L
79 title('Bode Plot for Open Loop L ','FontSize', 24)
80 legend('g = 0.001','g = 0.002','g = 0.003','g = 0.004','g = 0.005')
81
82 %Try outerloop
83 title('Bode Magnitude Plot for Outerloop T- $\{ry\}$  ','FontSize', 24)
84 legend('g = 0.001','g = 0.002','g = 0.003','g = 0.004','g = 0.005')

```

```

85
86 %step response Try
87 title ('Step Response for Outerloop T_{ry} ', 'FontSize', 24)
88 legend ('g = 0.001', 'g = 0.002', 'g = 0.003', 'g = 0.004', 'g = 0.005')
89
90 %Tru Bode
91 title ('Bode Magnitude Plot for Outerloop T_{ru} ', 'FontSize', 24)
92 legend ('g = 0.001', 'g = 0.002', 'g = 0.003', 'g = 0.004', 'g = 0.005')
93
94 %Sensitivity S
95 title ('Bode Magnitude Plot for Sensitivity S ', 'FontSize', 24)
96 legend ('g = 0.001', 'g = 0.002', 'g = 0.003', 'g = 0.004', 'g = 0.005')

1 %*****Go Along a Line Outer Loop (v, theta) Control*****
2 %*****Hardware Simulation Analysis*****
3
4 data_get = csvread ('v_yaw.servo.txt');
5 %%
6 V           = data_get(:,1)./2;
7 yaw         = data_get(:,2).*2.*pi./180;
8 Td = 0.100;           %sampling time
9 X_p = 0;
10 Y_p = 0;
11 X = [];
12 Y = [];
13 V_x = V .* cos(yaw);
14 V_y = V .* sin(yaw);
15 %%
16 figure(1);
17 time = linspace(0,7,69);
18 %plot(time,speed);
19 plot(time,-yaw);
20 axis([0 7 -1 1]);
21 grid on;
22 hold on;
23 title('Robot Orientation - Go Straight','FontSize', 24);
24 legend('Robot Orientation');
25 xlabel('Time (seconds)','FontSize', 24)
26 ylabel('\psi_{error} (degrees)', 'FontSize', 24);
27 %%
28 figure(2);
29 for n = 1:1:69
30     X(n) = X_p + V_x(n) .* Td;
31     X_p = X(n);
32
33     Y(n) = Y_p + V_y(n) .*Td;
34     Y_p = Y(n);
35 end;
36 plot(X,Y,'r*');
37 hold on;
38 x1 = linspace(0,2.9,10);
39 y1 = linspace(0,0,10);
40 plot(x1,y1);
41 hold on;
42 axis([0 2.9 -2 2]);
43 %axis equal;

```

```

44     %hold on;
45
46     %%
47     h_line = findobj(gcf, 'type', 'line');
48     set(h_line, 'LineWidth', 3);
49     h_axes = findobj(gcf, 'type', 'axes');
50     set(h_axes, 'linewidth', 2);
51     set(h_axes, 'FontSize', 15);
52
53     %%
54     title('Robot Trajectory - Go Straight', 'FontSize', 24);
55     legend('Robot Trajectory', 'Simulation');
56     xlabel('X(meters)', 'FontSize', 24)
57     ylabel('Y(meters)', 'FontSize', 24);

1  % *****Planar XY Cartesian Stabilization for Real Wheel Drive*****
2  % *****Simulation and Hardware Result Match*****
3  %%
4  clear
5  clc
6  %%
7  X_Y_get = csvread ('xy_raw_data.txt');
8  X      =      X_Y_get(:,1);
9  Y      =      X_Y_get(:,2);
10
11  plot(X,Y, '*r');
12  hold on;
13
14  %%
15  xr=[];
16  yr=[];
17
18  %ks=1.5;
19  ktheta=2;%controller for x,y,angle
20  w=[];w(1)=0; %initial angular velocity rad/s
21  v=[];v(1)=0; %initial linear velocity m/s
22  wc=[]; %ellipse w
23  vc=[]; %ellipse v
24  theta(1)=0; %iniatial robot angle
25
26  x(1)=0; % initial condition
27  y(1)=0; % initial condition
28
29  xreal(1)=0;
30  yreal(1)=0;
31
32  for ks=0.55;
33  % when i increase by 1, meaning one loop time
34  %for ktheta=5:5:15
35  for i=1:1:70;
36
37  %p(i)=rx*ry/sqrt(ry?*cos(thetar(i)))+ ...
38  % rx?*sin(thetar(i));
39  xr(i)=1.52;
40  yr(i)=1.52;
41

```

```

42 x(i+1)=x(i)+v(i)*0.1*cos(theta(i));
43 y(i+1)=y(i)+v(i)*0.1*sin(theta(i));
44 theta(i+1)=theta(i)+w(i)*0.1;
45 thetaR(i)=atan2((yr(i)-y(i+1)),(xr(i)-x(i+1)));
46
47 e=[xr(i)-x(i+1),yr(i)-y(i+1),thetaR(i)-theta(i)];
48 es=sqrt(e(1)^2+e(2)^2)*cos(e(3));
49 w(i+1)=ktheta*e(3);
50 v(i+1)=ks*es;
51
52 xreal(i+1)=xreal(i)+v(i)*0.1*cos(theta(i));
53 yreal(i+1)=yreal(i)+v(i)*0.1*sin(theta(i));
54
55 end
56 %plot(xreal,yreal)
57 %plot(xreal)
58 %hold on
59 end
60 %end
61
62 plot(xreal,yreal)
63 axis([0,1.52,0,1.52])
64 %figure(2)
65 %plot(xreal)
66 hold on
67 grid on
68 %plot(yreal)
69 plot(0,0,'bo')
70 plot(1.52,1.52,'ro')
71
72 title('X Y Position Control for Small K-{\theta} = 2','FontSize', 24)
73 legend('Hardware','Simulation','Starting Point', ...
74 'Target Point')
75
76 %%
77 h_line = findobj(gcf, 'type', 'line');
78 set(h_line, 'LineWidth', 3);
79 h_axes = findobj(gcf, 'type', 'axes');
80 set(h_axes, 'linewidth', 2);
81 set(h_axes, 'FontSize', 15);
82 xlabel('X (meters)','FontSize', 24)
83 ylabel('Y (meters)', 'FontSize', 24);
84 %%

1 %*****Hardware Data Visualization for Different Cases*****
2 %*****With/Without Pan Servo*****
3 %****Different Cruise Speed, Camera Fixed Look-Ahead L****
4 %****and Vision Subsystem Delay***
5
6 %Use csvread command to get raw data
7 clear all;
8 %%
9 X_Y_get = csvread ('X_Y_position.txt');
10 %%
11 V      =      0.5.* X_Y_get(:,1);
12 yaw    =      X_Y_get(:,2);

```

```

13
14 Td = 0.100;           %sampling time
15
16 %X_p = zeros(285,1);
17 %Y_p = zeros(285,1);
18 X_p = 0;
19 Y_p = 0;
20 X = [];
21 Y = [];
22
23 V_x = V .* cos(yaw);
24 V_y = V .* sin(yaw);
25 %%
26 for n = 1:1:285
27     X(n) = X_p + V_x(n) .* Td;
28     X_p = X(n);
29
30     Y(n) = Y_p + V_y(n) .*Td;
31     Y_p = Y(n);
32 end;
33     plot(X,Y);
34     hold on;
35
36 %%
37 %Plot oval
38 r =1 ;
39 theta=linspace(pi/2,pi*3/2,100);
40 x1=r*cos(theta)-1;
41 y1=r*sin(theta)+1;
42
43 plot(x1,y1);
44 hold on;
45
46 x2 = linspace(-1,1,100);
47 y2 = linspace(2,2,100);
48 plot(x2,y2);
49 hold on;
50
51 x3 = linspace(-1,1,100);
52 y3 = linspace(0,0,100);
53 plot(x3,y3);
54 hold on;
55
56 theta=linspace(-pi/2,pi/2,100);
57 x4=r*cos(theta)+1;
58 y4=r*sin(theta)+1;
59 plot(x4,y4);
60 hold on;
61
62 %%
63 figure(2);
64 X_sim = [x1',x2',x3',x4'];
65 Y_sim = [y1',y2',y3',y4'];
66 plot(X_sim-0.3,Y_sim, 'b', X, Y, 'r');
67 axis([-2.5 2 -0.2 2.2]);
68 hold on;
69

```

```
70     h_line = findobj(gcf, 'type', 'line');
71     set(h_line, 'LineWidth', 3);
72     h_axes = findobj(gcf, 'type', 'axes');
73     set(h_axes, 'linewidth', 2);
74     set(h_axes, 'FontSize', 15);
75
76 title('Black Line Guidance Hardware Result - Without Pan Servo');
77 legend('Real Track', 'Hardware Result');
78 xlabel('X (meters)', 'FontSize', 24)
79 ylabel('Y (meters)', 'FontSize', 24);
```

APPENDIX B
CPP CODE


```

1 //Author: Xianglong Lu and Duo Lv
2 //This is a Wireless LIDAR data Receiver Cpp Code
3 //Through TCP Socket
4
5 #include <stdlib.h>
6 #include <unistd.h>
7 #include <errno.h>
8
9 #include <sys/types.h>
10 #include <sys/socket.h>
11 #include <netinet/in.h>
12 #include <arpa/inet.h>
13
14 #include <ros/ros.h>
15 #include <sensor_msgs/LaserScan.h>
16 #include <std_msgs/UInt16.h>
17
18 using namespace std;
19
20 struct lidar_data {
21     int32_t rpm[360];
22     int32_t ranges[360];
23     int32_t intensities[360];
24 };
25
26 };
27
28 void laser_poll(int sockfd, sensor_msgs::LaserScan
29     *scan, std_msgs::UInt16 *rpms) {
30
31     int ret;
32     int i;
33
34     int offset = 0;
35     struct lidar_data data;
36
37     memset(&data, 0, sizeof(struct lidar_data));
38
39     while(offset < sizeof(struct lidar_data)) {
40
41         ret = recv(sockfd, (char *)&data + offset,
42             sizeof(struct lidar_data) - offset, 0);
43         if(ret <= 0) {
44             break;
45         } else {
46             offset += ret;
47         }
48     }
49
50
51     int32_t rpm = data.rpm[0];
52     rpms->data = rpm;
53
54     scan->angle_min = 0.0;
55     scan->angle_max = 2.0*M_PI;
56     scan->angle_increment = (2.0*M_PI/360.0);
57     scan->time_increment = (rpm == 0 ? (1.0 / 360.0) :

```

```

58     (60.0 / rpm / 360.0));
59     scan->scan_time = (rpm == 0 ? 1 : 60.0 / rpm);
60     scan->range_min = 0.06;
61     scan->range_max = 5.0;
62     scan->ranges.reserve(360);
63     scan->intensities.reserve(360);
64
65     for(i = 0; i < 360; i++) {
66         float range = (data.ranges[i] < 0 ? 0 :
67             data.ranges[i] / 1000.0);
68         scan->ranges.push_back(range);
69         scan->intensities.push_back(data.intensities[i]);
70     }
71
72     // printf("Scan received!\n");
73 }
74
75
76 int main(int argc, char **argv) {
77
78     // roscpp init
79
80     ros::init(argc, argv, "xv_11_lidar_socket_driver");
81     ros::NodeHandle n;
82     ros::NodeHandle priv_nh("~");
83
84     printf("xv_11_lidar_socket_driver started.\n");
85
86     // configuration parameter
87     string address;
88     int port;
89     string frame_id;
90
91     priv_nh.param("address", address,
92         string("192.168.1.2"));
93     priv_nh.param("port", port, 5000);
94     priv_nh.param("frame_id", frame_id,
95         string("xv_11_lidar"));
96
97
98     // connect socket
99     int sockfd = -1;
100    struct sockaddr_in serv_addr;
101
102    if ((sockfd = socket(AF_INET, SOCK_STREAM,
103        0)) < 0) {
104        printf("Unable to create socket.\n");
105        return -1;
106    }
107
108    memset(&serv_addr, 0, sizeof(serv_addr));
109    serv_addr.sin_family = AF_INET;
110    serv_addr.sin_port = htons(5000);
111
112    if (inet_pton(AF_INET, address.c_str(),
113        &serv_addr.sin_addr) <= 0) {
114        printf("Invalid server address\n");

```

```

115     return -1;
116 }
117
118 if (connect(sockfd, (struct sockaddr *)
119     &serv_addr, sizeof(serv_addr))
120     < 0) {
121     printf("Connect failed.\n");
122     return -1;
123 }
124
125 printf("Connected to %s:%d\n",
126     address.c_str(), port);
127
128
129 // publisher
130 ros::Publisher laser_pub =
131 n.advertise<sensor_msgs::LaserScan>("scan",
132     1000);
133 ros::Publisher motor_pub =
134 n.advertise<std_msgs::UInt16>("rpms", 1000);
135
136
137 while (n.ok()) {
138     sensor_msgs::LaserScan scan;
139     std_msgs::UInt16 rpms;
140     scan.header.frame_id = frame_id;
141     scan.header.stamp = ros::Time::now();
142     laser_poll(sockfd, &scan, &rpms);
143     laser_pub.publish(scan);
144     motor_pub.publish(rpms);
145 }
146
147
148
149
150 return 0;
151 }

```

```

1 <?xml version="1.0"?>
2
3 //Establishing Connecting Between
4 //LIDAR and Linux PC through USB
5
6 <launch>
7   <node pkg="xv_11_laser_driver"
8     type="neato_laser_publisher" name="xv_11_node">
9
10     <!--<param name="port "
11       value="/dev/tty.usbserial-A9UXLBRR"/>-->
12
13     <param name="port" value="/dev/ttyUSB0"/>
14     <param name="firmware_version" value="2"/>
15     <param name="frame_id" value="laser"/>
16 </node>
17
18 <node pkg="tf" type="static_transform_publisher"

```

```

19 name="base_frame_2_laser"
20 args="0 0 0 0 0 0 /base_frame /laser 100"/>
21
22 <node pkg="rviz" type="rviz"
23 name="rviz" args="-d rviz.cfg.rviz"/>
24
25 <include file="default_mapping.launch"/>
26 <include file="/home/jeffery/catkin_ws/
27 src/hector_slam/hector_map_geotiff/launch/
28 geotiff_mapper.launch"/>
29
30 </launch>

1 //This is a ROS launch file which setup
2 //key parameters like map_frame, base_frame etc
3 //Resolution and Other Key parameters of the map
4 //can be changed here
5
6 <?xml version="1.0"?>
7 <launch>
8
9 <node pkg="hector_mapping" type="hector_mapping"
10 name="hector_mapping" output="screen">
11 <param name="use_sim_time" value="false"/>
12 <param name="pub_map_odom_transform" value="true"/>
13 <param name="map_frame" value="map"/>
14 <param name="base_frame" value="base_frame"/>
15 <param name="odom_frame" value="base_frame"/>
16 <param name="fixed_frame" value="laser"/>
17
18 <param name="use_tf_scan_transformation" value="true"/>
19 <param name="use_tf_pose_start_estimate" value="false"/>
20
21 <param name="map_resolution" value="0.050"/>
22 <param name="map_size" value="2048"/>
23 <param name="map_start_x" value="0.5"/>
24 <param name="map_start_y" value="0.5" />
25 <param name="map_pub_period" value="1.0" />
26 <param name="map_multi_res_levels" value="2" />
27
28 <param name="update_factor_free" value="0.4"/>
29 <param name="update_factor_occupied" value="0.7" />
30 <param name="map_update_distance_thresh" value="0.2"/>
31 <param name="map_update_angle_thresh" value="0.9" />
32 <param name="laser_max_dist" value="6" />
33 <param name="laser_z_min_value" value = "-1.0" />
34 <param name="laser_z_max_value" value = "1.0" />
35
36 <param name="advertise_map_service" value="true"/>
37 <param name="scan_subscriber_queue_size" value="5"/>
38 <param name="scan_topic" value="scan"/>
39 <param name="tf_map_scanmatch_transform_frame_name"
40 value="scanmatcher_frame" />
41 </node>
42
43 </launch>

```

APPENDIX C

C CODE

```

1 //Author: Duo Lv, Xianglong Lu
2 //This C Code is running on Raspberry Pi
3 //It's dealing with LIDAR RPM Counting, LIDAR
4 //Raw Data Analysis and TCP Socket (Wireless SLAM)
5
6
7 #include <stdio.h>
8 #include <stdlib.h>
9 #include <string.h>
10 #include <errno.h>
11 #include <stdint.h>
12
13 #include <sys/types.h>
14 #include <unistd.h>
15 #include <fcntl.h>
16 #include <termios.h>
17
18 #include <sys/types.h>
19 #include <sys/socket.h>
20 #include <netinet/in.h>
21 #include <arpa/inet.h>
22
23 #include <pthread.h>
24 #include <semaphore.h>
25
26 // uncomment this to debug reads
27 // #define SERIALPORTDEBUG
28
29 // takes the string name of the serial
30 port (e.g. "/dev/tty.usbserial", "COM1")
31 // and a baud rate (bps) and connects
32 to that port at that speed and 8N1.
33 // opens the port in fully raw mode
34 so you can send binary data.
35 // returns valid fd, or -1 on error
36
37 int serialport_init(const char* serialport, int baud) {
38     struct termios toptions;
39     int fd;
40
41     //fd = open(serialport, O_RDWR | O_NOCTTY | O_NDELAY);
42     fd = open(serialport, O_RDWR | O_NONBLOCK);
43
44     if (fd == -1) {
45         perror("serialport_init: Unable to open port ");
46         return -1;
47     }
48
49     //int iflags = TIOCM_DTR;
50     //ioctl(fd, TIOCMBIS, &iflags); // turn on DTR
51     //ioctl(fd, TIOCMBIC, &iflags); // turn off DTR
52
53     if (tcgetattr(fd, &toptions) < 0) {
54         perror("serialport_init: Couldn't
55             get term attributes");
56         return -1;
57     }

```

```

58     speed_t brate = baud; // let you override
59     switch below if needed
60     switch (baud) {
61     case 4800:
62         brate = B4800;
63         break;
64     case 9600:
65         brate = B9600;
66         break;
67 #ifdef B14400
68         case 14400: brate=B14400; break;
69 #endif
70         case 19200:
71             brate = B19200;
72             break;
73 #ifdef B28800
74         case 28800: brate=B28800; break;
75 #endif
76         case 38400:
77             brate = B38400;
78             break;
79         case 57600:
80             brate = B57600;
81             break;
82         case 115200:
83             brate = B115200;
84             break;
85     }
86     cfsetispeed(&toptions, brate);
87     cfsetospeed(&toptions, brate);
88
89     // 8N1
90     toptions.c_cflag &= ~PARENB;
91     toptions.c_cflag &= ~CSTOPB;
92     toptions.c_cflag &= ~CSIZE;
93     toptions.c_cflag |= CS8;
94     // no flow control
95     toptions.c_cflag &= ~CRTSCTS;
96
97     //toptions.c_cflag &= ~HUPCL; // disable
98     hang-up-on-close to avoid reset
99
100    toptions.c_cflag |= CREAD | CLOCAL;
101    // turn on READ & ignore ctrl lines
102    toptions.c_iflag &= ~(IXON | IXOFF | IXANY);
103
104    // turn off s/w flow ctrl
105    toptions.c_lflag &= ~(ICANON | ECHO |
106        ECHOE | ISIG);
107    // make raw
108    toptions.c_oflag &= ~OPOST; // make raw
109
110    // see: http://unixwiz.net/techtips/termios-vmin-vtime.html
111    toptions.c_cc[VMIN] = 0;
112    toptions.c_cc[VTIME] = 0;
113    //toptions.c_cc[VTIME] = 20;
114

```

```

115
116     tcsetattr(fd, TCSANOW, &toptions);
117     if (tcsetattr(fd, TCSAFLUSH, &toptions)
118         < 0) {
119         perror("init_serialport: Couldn't
120             set term attributes");
121         return -1;
122     }
123
124     return fd;
125 }
126
127 //
128 int serialport_close(int fd) {
129     return close(fd);
130 }
131
132 //
133 int serialport_write(int fd, char b) {
134     int n = write(fd, &b, 1);
135     if (n != 1)
136         return -1;
137     return 0;
138 }
139
140 //
141 int serialport_write_buff(int fd, const
142     char* buff, int n) {
143     int ret = write(fd, buff, n);
144     if (ret != n) {
145         perror("serialport_write: couldn't
146             write whole string\n");
147         return -1;
148     }
149     return 0;
150 }
151
152 //
153 int serialport_read_until(int fd, char* buf,
154     char until, int buf_max,
155     int timeout) {
156     char b[1]; // read expects an array,
157     so we give it a 1-byte array
158     int i = 0;
159     do {
160         int n = read(fd, b, 1);
161         // read a char at a time
162         if (n == -1)
163             return -1; // couldn't read
164         if (n == 0) {
165             usleep(1 * 1000);
166             // wait 1 msec try again
167             timeout--;
168             continue;
169         }
170 #ifdef SERIALPORTDEBUG
171     printf("serialport_read_until:

```



```

172         i=%d, n=%d b='%c'\n", i, n, b[0]);
173         // debug
174 #endif
175         buf[i] = b[0];
176         i++;
177     } while (b[0] != until && i < buf_max
178             && timeout > 0);
179
180     buf[i] = 0; // null terminate the string
181     return 0;
182 }
183
184 //
185 int serialport_flush(int fd) {
186     sleep(2); //required to make flush
187     work, for some reason
188     return tcflush(fd, TCIOFLUSH);
189 }
190
191 #define NR_PACKET 90
192 #define READING_PER_PACKET 4
193
194 #define LIDAR_BUFF_SIZE 4
195
196 // must be 22 bytes
197 struct lidar_serial_packet {
198
199     uint8_t start;
200     uint8_t index;
201     uint16_t speed;
202     uint8_t data[16];
203     uint16_t checksum;
204
205 };
206
207 struct lidar_data {
208
209     int32_t rpm[NR_PACKET *
210                READING_PER_PACKET];
211     int32_t distance[NR_PACKET *
212                    READING_PER_PACKET];
213     int32_t sig_strength[NR_PACKET *
214                        READING_PER_PACKET];
215 };
216
217 struct lidar_data lidar_buff[LIDAR_BUFF_SIZE];
218 int lidar_producer_index = 0;
219 int lidar_consumer_index = 0;
220
221 sem_t lidar_sem;
222 int lidar_listener = 0;
223
224
225 int get_distance(struct lidar_serial_packet *p,
226                int index) {
227
228     if (index < 0 || index > 3)

```

```

229         return -1;
230
231     uint8_t *cp = (uint8_t *) &(p->data[index * 4]);
232
233     if ((cp[1] & 0x80) > 0)
234         return -1;
235     else
236         return (cp[1] & 0x3F) << 8 | cp[0];
237 }
238 }
239
240 int get_sig_strength(struct lidar_serial_packet *p,
241 int index) {
242
243     if (index < 0 || index > 3)
244         return -1;
245
246     uint8_t *cp = (uint8_t *) &(p->data[index * 4]);
247
248     return cp[3] << 8 | cp[2];
249 }
250 }
251
252 int get_sig_warning(struct lidar_serial_packet *p,
253 int index) {
254
255     if (index < 0 || index > 3)
256         return -1;
257
258     uint8_t *cp = (uint8_t *) &(p->data[index * 4]);
259
260     return cp[1] & 0x40;
261 }
262 }
263
264 void dump_packet(struct lidar_serial_packet *p) {
265
266     int i = 0;
267     uint8_t *cp = (uint8_t *) p;
268
269     for (i = 0; i < sizeof(struct
270         lidar_serial_packet); i++) {
271         printf("%02x ", cp[i]);
272     }
273
274     printf("\n");
275 }
276 }
277
278 int skip_read(int fd) {
279
280     int i;
281     int ret;
282     unsigned char c;
283     int distance = 0;
284
285     do {

```

```

286
287     ret = read(fd, &c, 1);
288     if (ret < 0) {
289         printf("Unable to read from
290             serial port!\n");
291         return -1;
292     }
293
294     if (ret == 0) {
295         sleep(1);
296         continue;
297     }
298
299     //     printf("%02x ", c);
300
301     i++;
302     if (c == 0xFA) {
303         distance = i;
304         i = 0;
305     }
306
307     } while (distance != sizeof
308         (struct lidar_serial_packet));
309
310     for (i = 0; i < sizeof(struct
311         lidar_serial_packet) - 1; i++) {
312         ret = read(fd, &c, 1);
313         if (ret < 0) {
314             printf("Unable to read from
315                 serial port!\n");
316             return -1;
317         }
318         //     printf("%02x ", c);
319     }
320
321     //     printf("\n");
322
323     return 0;
324 }
325
326 int read_packet(int fd, struct lidar_serial_packet *p) {
327
328     int ret;
329     int offset = 0;
330
331     while (offset != sizeof(struct lidar_serial_packet)) {
332         ret = read(fd, (char *) p + offset,
333             sizeof(struct lidar_serial_packet) - offset);
334         if (ret < 0) {
335             printf("Unable to read from serial port!\n");
336             return -1;
337         } else if (ret == 0) {
338             sleep(1);
339             continue;
340         } else {
341             offset += ret;
342         }

```

```

343     }
344
345     return 0;
346
347 }
348
349
350 void *lidar_serial_thread(void *para) {
351
352     int i = 0;
353     char *serial_dev = "/dev/ttyUSB0";
354
355     // open serial port
356
357     if (para != NULL) {
358         serial_dev = para;
359     }
360
361     int fd = serialport_init(serial_dev, 115200);
362     if (fd < 0) {
363         printf("Unable to open serial port \"%s\".\n", serial_dev);
364     }
365
366     // read packet
367
368     struct lidar_serial_packet packet;
369
370     skip_read(fd);
371
372     while (1) {
373
374         read_packet(fd, &packet);
375
376         if (packet.start != 0xFA) {
377             printf("Unexpected protocol header!\n");
378             dump_packet(&packet);
379             skip_read(fd);
380             continue;
381         }
382
383         int index = packet.index - 0xA0;
384         float speed = packet.speed / 64.0;
385
386
387         printf("packet %d at RPM %.2f: ", index, speed);
388
389         for (i = 0; i < 4; i++) {
390
391             int distance = get_distance(&packet, i);
392             int sig_strength = get_sig_strength(&packet, i);
393             int warning = get_sig_warning(&packet, i);
394
395             if (warning == 0) {
396                 printf("%d (%d)\t", distance, sig_strength);
397             } else {
398                 printf("%d (%d W)\t", distance, sig_strength);
399             }

```

```

400
401     if(warning >= 0)
402         sig_strength = -sig_strength;
403
404     lidar_buff[lidar_producer_index].
405     rpm[index * READING_PER_PACKET + i] = speed;
406     lidar_buff[lidar_producer_index].
407     distance[index * READING_PER_PACKET + i] = distance;
408     lidar_buff[lidar_producer_index].
409     sig_strength[index * READING_PER_PACKET + i] = sig_strength;
410
411     }
412
413     if(index == NR_PACKET - 1) {
414         lidar_producer_index = (lidar_producer_index + 1)
415         % LIDAR_BUFF_SIZE;
416         sem_post(&lidar_sem);
417     }
418
419     printf("\n");
420 }
421
422 close(fd);
423
424 }
425
426 void *lidar_socket_thread(void *para) {
427
428     int error = 0;
429     int ret;
430     socklen_t len;
431     int listenfd = 0, connfd = 0;
432     struct sockaddr_in serv_addr, client_addr;
433
434     char client_addr_str[16];
435
436     if ((listenfd = socket(AF_INET, SOCK_STREAM, 0)) < 0) {
437         printf("Unable to create socket.\n");
438         return NULL;
439     }
440
441     memset(&serv_addr, 0, sizeof(serv_addr));
442     serv_addr.sin_family = AF_INET;
443     serv_addr.sin_addr.s_addr = htonl(192.168.0.1);
444     serv_addr.sin_port = htons(5000);
445
446     if (bind(listenfd, (struct sockaddr*)
447     &serv_addr, sizeof(serv_addr)) < 0) {
448         printf("Unable to bind to local
449         listening socket %s:%d\n",
450             inet_ntoa(serv_addr.sin_addr),
451             ntohs(serv_addr.sin_port));
452         return NULL;
453     }
454
455     if (listen(listenfd, 10) < 0) {
456         printf("Unable to listen on %s:%d\n",

```

```

457         inet_ntoa(serv_addr.sin_addr),
458         serv_addr.sin_port);
459     return NULL;
460 }
461
462 printf("Listening started.\n");
463
464
465
466 while (1) {
467     connfd = accept(listenfd, (struct sockaddr*)
468         &client_addr, &len);
469     if(connfd < 0) {
470         printf("Accept failed.\n");
471         puts(strerror(errno));
472         return NULL;
473     }
474     inet_ntop(AF_INET, &client_addr.sin_addr,
475         client_addr_str,
476         sizeof(client_addr_str));
477     printf("Accept connection from %s.\n", client_addr_str);
478
479     while (error == 0) {
480
481         if(lidar_consumer_index == lidar_producer_index)
482             sem_wait(&lidar_sem);
483
484         int offset = 0;
485         char *p = (char *)&lidar_buff[lidar_consumer_index];
486
487         while(offset < sizeof(struct lidar_data)) {
488             ret = send(connfd, p + offset, sizeof
489                 (struct lidar_data) - offset, 0);
490             if(ret < 0) {
491                 error = 1;
492                 break;
493             }
494         }
495
496         lidar_consumer_index = (lidar_consumer_index + 1)
497             % LIDAR_BUFF_SIZE;
498
499         printf("Data sent.\n");
500     }
501 }
502
503 printf("%s disconnected.\n", client_addr_str);
504 error = 0;
505 close(connfd);
506 }
507
508 return NULL;
509 }
510
511
512 int main(int argc, char **argv) {
513

```

```
514
515
516     sem_init(&lidar_sem, 0, 0);
517
518     pthread_t lidar_socket_thread_tid;
519     pthread_t lidar_serial_thread_tid;
520
521
522     pthread_create(&lidar_socket_thread_tid, NULL,
523                 lidar_socket_thread, NULL);
524     pthread_create(&lidar_serial_thread_tid, NULL,
525                 lidar_serial_thread, NULL);
526
527
528     pthread_join(lidar_socket_thread_tid, NULL);
529     pthread_join(lidar_serial_thread_tid, NULL);
530
531     sem_destroy(&lidar_sem);
532
533
534     return EXIT_SUCCESS;
535 }
```

APPENDIX D
PYTHON CODE


```

1
2 Author: Xianglong Lu 16/4/14
3
4 # stands for detailed commends
5
6 #Hardware: Raspberry Pi 2/3 + Raspberry
7 #pi camera module
8
9 #The goals of this code are:
10 #1.turning the image from color to grey, extract
11 #the black line by adjusting the threshold,
12 #then we find the line. Finally we calculate the
13 #mass center of this line in camera's region of interest,
14 # Then calculate angle between the orientation
15 #of the robot and mass center of black line.
16
17 #2. Feedback the thetae to arduino (through serial
18 # port) for the purpose of controlling the
19 #robot's steering servo. In this case, robot can
20 #roughly track this black line.
21
22 #3. roughly calculate fps of the pi camera, which
23 #is super important
24
25
26 #import all the modules it needs. time and math
27 #modules have been installed already.
28 #cv2 and numpy are ready when you installed
29 #opencv. Other modules are supposed to be installed
30 #in python individually.
31
32
33 import cv2
34 from numpy import linalg as LA
35 import numpy as np
36 import io
37 import picamera
38 import serial
39 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
40 import pylab as plab
41 import time
42 import math
43
44 #Here we start the code
45 #In this case, raspberry pi and arduino uno
46 #are communicating through serial port (the blue
47 #USB cable). Here we define port name is
48 #ttyACM0 and baud rate is 9600
49
50 ser = serial.Serial('/dev/ttyACM0', 9600)
51 ser.write('0 \n')
52
53 # Here we are trying to get the image(vedio
54 #stream or just jpeg images). The following lines
55 #help us get the images or vedio stream and
56 #store them in frame. This this the way to setup
57 # a pi camera

```

```

58
59 def getImage():
60     cap.capture(stream, format = 'jpeg', use_video_port = True)
61     frame = np.fromstring(stream.getvalue(), dtype = np.uint8)
62     stream.seek(0)
63     frame = cv2.imdecode(frame,1)
64     return frame
65
66 cap = picamera.PiCamera()
67
68 #flip the image horizontally or vertically if necessary
69
70 cap.vflip = True
71 cap.hflip = True
72 #resolution is set to 320x240 to get higher fps
73 cap.resolution = (320,240)
74
75
76 stream = io.BytesIO()
77
78 end = '\n'
79 comma = ','
80
81 #initialize angle thetae
82 #thetae is the angle between the orientation
83 #of the robot and mass center of black line
84 #in region of interest
85
86 thetae_p = 0
87
88
89 #main function begins:
90
91 while(1):
92
93     #start counting time(for fps calculating)
94     start_time = time.time()
95
96     frame = getImage()
97     frame1 = np.array(frame)
98     #roi mean the region of interest, we do not
99     # need the whole frame of what camera captures
100    # we just need the area that we are interested in
101
102    roi = frame1[50:100,50:200]
103    #first number is horizontal
104    #second number is vertical
105
106    # Convert BGR to GRAY
107    gray = cv2.cvtColor(roi, cv2.COLOR_BGR2GRAY)
108
109    # Threshold the HSV image to get only blue colors
110    ret, output2 = cv2.threshold(gray, 100,
111        255, cv2.THRESH_BINARY_INV)
112    output2 = cv2.GaussianBlur(output2, (5,5),0)
113    #roi = cv2.cvtColor(roi,cv2.COLOR_BGR2HSV)
114    #output2 = cv2.inRange(roi,np.array((10,26,33)),

```

```

115     #np.array((10,26,35))
116     erode = cv2.getStructuringElement(cv2.MORPH_RECT, (5,5))
117     dilate = cv2.getStructuringElement(cv2.MORPH_RECT, (6,6))
118
119     # Erode and dilate
120     output2 = cv2.erode(output2, erode, iterations = 3)
121     output2 = cv2.dilate(output2, dilate, iterations = 5)
122
123     #output2 is the contour
124     cv2.imshow('out', output2)
125     # Finding contours
126     _, contours, _ = cv2.findContours(output2, cv2.
127         RETR_TREE, cv2.CHAIN_APPROX_SIMPLE)
128
129
130
131     #More Info: http://stackoverflow.com/questions/16538774/
132     #ealing-with-contours-and-bounding-rectangle-in-
133     #opencv-2-4-python-2-7
134
135     areas = [cv2.contourArea(c) for c in contours]
136
137     #if not not areas:
138
139         max_index = np.argmax(areas)
140         cnt = contours[max_index]
141
142         cv2.drawContours(roi, [cnt], 0, (0,0,255), 2)
143
144         m1 = cv2.moments(contours[max_index])
145
146         #To calculate the mass center of black line
147
148         u1 = int(m1['m10']/m1['m00'])
149         #u1 is mass center horizontal
150         v1 = int(m1['m01']/m1['m00'])
151         #v1 is mass center vertical
152
153         #u1 v1 can be printed here(in python command line)
154         str1 = "u1 is %d"%u1
155         str2 = "v1 is %d"%v1
156         #print str1
157         #print str2
158
159
160         # To calculate thetai every iteration
161         thetai = int((math.atan2(u1-320,150))*180/3.1416)
162
163
164         # update thetai
165         thetai_p = thetai
166
167
168         #print thetai
169         print "The vision feedback theta is %d"%(thetai)
170
171

```

```

172
173     sthetae = str(thetae)
174     string = sthetae + end
175     ser.write(string)
176
177
178
179     else:
180         ser.write('0 \n')
181         print 'a'
182
183     #show frame and roi windows in real time
184
185     cv2.imshow('frame',frame)
186     cv2.imshow('roi', roi)
187
188     # It's a way to roughly calculate fps of the
189     #camera,using pi 3 and pi camera, it should
190     #be around 10Hz.
191
192     print("%s Hertz"%(1/(time.time() - start_time)))
193
194
195     #wait esc to kill all process
196     k = cv2.waitKey(1) & 0xFF
197     if k == 27:
198         break
199
200 cv2.destroyAllWindows()
201
202 ser.write('0 \n')
203 ser.close()
204 cap.close()

1 # HSV Color Filtering
2
3 import cv2
4 import numpy as np
5 import picamera
6 import io
7
8 def getImage():
9     cap.capture(stream, format = 'jpeg', use_video_port = True)
10    frame = np.fromstring(stream.getvalue(), dtype = np.uint8)
11    stream.seek(0)
12    frame = cv2.imdecode(frame,1)
13    return frame
14
15 def nothing(x):
16    pass
17
18
19 cap = picamera.PiCamera()
20 cap.vflip = True
21 cap.hflip = True
22 cap.resolution = (320,240)

```

```

23 cap.contrast = 0
24 cap.saturation = 0
25
26 stream = io.BytesIO()
27
28
29 cv2.namedWindow('result')
30
31 hmin,smin,vmin = 100,100,100
32 hmax,smax,vmax = 100,100,100
33
34
35 cv2.createTrackbar('hmin', 'result', 0, 179, nothing)
36 cv2.createTrackbar('smin', 'result', 0, 255, nothing)
37 cv2.createTrackbar('vmin', 'result', 0, 255, nothing)
38
39 cv2.createTrackbar('hmax', 'result', 0, 179, nothing)
40 cv2.createTrackbar('smax', 'result', 0, 255, nothing)
41 cv2.createTrackbar('vmax', 'result', 0, 255, nothing)
42
43 while (1):
44     frame = getImage()
45
46     hsv = cv2.cvtColor(frame, cv2.COLOR_BGR2HSV)
47
48     hmin = cv2.getTrackbarPos('hmin', 'result')
49     smin = cv2.getTrackbarPos('smin', 'result')
50     vmin = cv2.getTrackbarPos('vmin', 'result')
51
52
53     hmax = cv2.getTrackbarPos('hmax', 'result')
54     smax = cv2.getTrackbarPos('smax', 'result')
55     vmax = cv2.getTrackbarPos('vmax', 'result')
56
57
58     lower_blue = np.array([hmin,smin,vmin])
59     upper_blue = np.array([hmax,smax,vmax])
60
61     mask = cv2.inRange(hsv, lower_blue, upper_blue)
62
63     result = cv2.bitwise_and(frame, frame, mask = mask)
64
65     cv2.imshow('result', result)
66
67     k = cv2.waitKey(1) & 0xFF
68     if k == 27:
69         break
70
71 cap.close()
72 cv2.destroyAllWindows()

```

APPENDIX E
ARDUINO CODE

```

1 //This Arduino Code is for Longitudinal Inner Loop
2 //which is (Vdsr, V) Control
3
4 #include <Wire.h>
5 #include <Adafruit_MotorShield.h>
6 #include "utility/Adafruit_PWMServoDriver.h"
7 #include <math.h>
8 #include <Encoder.h>
9
10 Adafruit_MotorShield AFMS = Adafruit_MotorShield();
11 Adafruit_DCMotor *rightMotor = AFMS.getMotor(2);
12 Adafruit_DCMotor *leftMotor = AFMS.getMotor(1);
13
14 Encoder re(3,3);
15
16 double wR;
17 double wRp = 0;
18 double wRn;
19 double RdVal = 0;
20 double Radius = 0.024;
21
22 double vd = 0.5;
23 double vd_p = 0;
24 double vdf;
25 double vdf_p = 0;
26
27 double CR;
28 double CR_p = 0;
29 double CR_pp = 0;
30
31 double Rerror;
32 double Rerror_p = 0;
33 double Rerror_pp = 0;
34
35 int PWMR;
36
37 double kp = 11.68;
38 double ki = 23.36;
39
40 double alpha = 100;
41 double h = ki/kp;
42
43 long R;
44 long R_last = 0;
45 unsigned long Time = 0;
46 unsigned long sample_time = 100;
47 double td = 0.100; //
48
49 void setup()
50 {
51
52     AFMS.begin();
53     Serial.begin(9600);
54     leftMotor->setSpeed(0);
55     rightMotor->setSpeed(0);
56     leftMotor->run(FORWARD);
57     rightMotor->run(FORWARD);

```

```

58
59 leftMotor->run(RELEASE);
60 rightMotor->run(RELEASE);
61
62 delay(1000);
63 }
64
65 void loop()
66 {
67   if (millis()<10000)
68   {
69     if(millis() - Time > sample_time)
70     {
71       Time = millis();
72       GetSpeeds();
73     }
74   }
75
76   else
77   {
78     rightMotor->setSpeed(0);
79     leftMotor->setSpeed(0);
80   }
81 }
82 }
83
84 void GetSpeeds()
85 {
86   //Prefilter
87   vdf = ( (td*h)*vd + (td*h)*vd_p - (td*h - 2)*vdf_p)/(2 + td*h);
88
89   vdf_p = vdf;
90   vd_p = vd;
91
92   R = re.read();
93   RdVal = (double)( R - R_last)/(td);
94   wR = RdVal*2*3.14159/48;
95   wRn = (wR + wRp)/2.0;
96
97   wRp = wR;
98
99   Rerror = vdf - wRn*Radius;
100  //Controller
101  CR = ((alpha*td*td*ki+2*alpha*td*kp)*Rerror +
102  (2*alpha*td*td*ki)*Rerror_p + (alpha*td*td*ki-2*alpha*td*kp)
103  *Rerror_pp + 8*CR_p -
104  (4-2*alpha*td)*CR_pp)/(2*alpha*td + 4);
105
106  CR_pp = CR_p;
107  CR_p = CR;
108
109  Rerror_pp = Rerror_p;
110  Rerror_p = Rerror;
111
112  PWMR = int(255.0*CR/7.8);
113
114  if (PWMR>=255) {PWMR=255;}

```



```

115     else if (PWMMR<=0) {PWMMR=0;}
116
117     leftMotor->setSpeed(PWMMR);
118     leftMotor->run(FORWARD);
119     rightMotor->setSpeed(PWMMR);
120     rightMotor->run(FORWARD);
121
122     R_last = R;
123
124     Serial.print(" ");
125     Serial.print( wRn*Radius); //
126     Serial.print(" ");
127     Serial.println( PWMMR); //
128
129 }

```

```

1 //Robot (v,theta) control
2 //Go Along a line
3
4 #include <Wire.h>
5 #include <SPI.h>
6 #include <Adafruit_MotorShield.h>
7 #include <Servo.h>
8 #include <math.h>
9 #include <Adafruit_Sensor.h>
10 #include <Adafruit_BNO055.h>
11 #include <utility/imuMaths.h>
12 // #include <Encoder.h>
13 #include "utility/Adafruit_PWMServoDriver.h"
14
15 #define Center 20
16
17 Servo steer_servo;
18
19 Adafruit_BNO055 bno = Adafruit_BNO055();
20
21 Adafruit_MotorShield AFMS = Adafruit_MotorShield();
22 Adafruit_DCMotor *M1 = AFMS.getMotor(1);
23 Adafruit_DCMotor *M2 = AFMS.getMotor(2);
24 #define MAG_OUTPUT 3
25
26 int wheelServo;
27 int count;
28 int offset;
29 double radius = 0.024;
30 double L_r = 0.134;
31 double pi = 3.14159;
32 double vx; //robot cruise speed
33 double vx_p=0;
34 double vx_filtered;
35 double theta;
36
37 unsigned long timeold;
38 imu::Vector<3> euler_init;
39 imu::Vector<3> euler;
40

```

```

41 double servo_kp = 2;
42 double servo_kd = 2;
43 double theta_p = 0;
44 double start_time;
45
46 void setup() {
47     bno.begin();
48     steer_servo.attach(9);
49     steer_servo.write(Center);
50
51     delay(2000);
52
53     Serial.begin(115200); // Initialize serial port to
54     //send and receive at 115200 baud
55     AFMS.begin();
56
57     pinMode(MAG_OUTPUT, INPUT_PULLUP); // turn on inside
58     //pull-up resistor
59     attachInterrupt(MAG_OUTPUT-2, pulseCNT, RISING);
60
61     double start_time = millis();
62 }
63
64 double pd_theta(double err, double err_p, double Ts,
65     double Kp, double Kd){
66     double u = Kp*err+ Kd*(err-err_p)/Ts;
67     // add roll off later
68     return u;
69 }
70
71 void loop() {
72     if(millis()-start_time<10000){
73
74         get_speed();
75         float theta_raw = get_theta();
76         theta = double(theta_raw * 180/3.14);
77
78         if(theta<=360 && theta >= 330)
79             {theta = theta - 360;
80         }
81
82         Serial.print(vx_filtered);
83         Serial.print(" , ");
84         Serial.print(theta);
85         //Serial.print(" , ");
86         //Serial.println(wheelServo);
87
88         if(abs(theta<30.00)){
89             M1->run(FORWARD);
90             M2->run(FORWARD);
91             M1->setSpeed(55);
92             M2->setSpeed(55);
93         }
94
95         else
96         { M1->run(RELEASE);
97           M2->run(RELEASE);
98         }
99     }

```

```

98
99   int wheelServo = Center;
100
101   if (abs(theta) > 3){
102       int u = pd_theta(theta,theta_p,0.1,servo_kp,servo_kd);
103       wheelServo = Center + u;
104
105       //Serial.print(" , ");
106       //Serial.println(wheelServo);
107       if(abs(u)>30)
108           {u = 0;}
109       else{
110           steer_servo.write(wheelServo);
111       }
112   }
113
114   else{
115       steer_servo.write(Center);
116   }
117
118   Serial.print(" , ");
119   Serial.println(wheelServo);
120
121   theta_p = theta;
122
123   delay(100);
124   }
125   else{
126   M1->run(RELEASE);
127   M2->run(RELEASE);
128   }
129 }
130
131 void get_speed(){
132 vx = (((double)count/12.0)*2.0*pi*radius)*
133 1000.0/(millis()-timeold);
134 vx_filtered = (vx + vx_p)/2;
135 timeold = millis();
136 count = 0;
137 vx_p = vx;
138 }
139
140 void pulseCNT(){
141 //Serial.println(count);
142 count++;
143 //Each rotation, this interrupt function is run twice
144 }
145
146 float get_theta(){
147 euler = bno.getVector(Adafruit_BNO055::VECTOR_EULER);
148 return (euler.x() - euler_init.x()) * 3.14 / 180.0;
149 }
150 }

1 // Outer Loop XY Using IMU
2

```

```

3 #include <Adafruit_Sensor.h>
4 #include <Adafruit_BNO055.h>
5 #include <utility/imumaths.h>
6 #include <math.h>
7 #include <Wire.h>
8 #include <Adafruit_MotorShield.h>
9 #include "utility/Adafruit_PWMServoDriver.h"
10 #include <math.h>
11 #include <Encoder.h>
12 #include <TimerOne.h>
13 #include <SPI.h>
14 #include <Servo.h>
15 /* -----Hardware Setting----- */
16 // Create the motor shield object with the default I2C address
17 Adafruit_MotorShield AFMS = Adafruit_MotorShield();
18 Adafruit_DCMotor *MotorR = AFMS.getMotor(2);
19 Adafruit_DCMotor *MotorL = AFMS.getMotor(1);
20
21
22 const double xy_eps = 0.15; // xy satisfying error region
23
24 // PID Setting
25 // Outer Loop P controller Two P controller for theta and dist
26 // Kp_theta > Kp_dist To be Stable
27 const double OuterLP_PID_Kp_theta=10;
28 const double OuterLP_PID_Kp_dist =0.3;
29
30
31 // Inner Loop PI controller Incremental Method
32 const double InnerLP_PID_Kp =11.68;
33 const double InnerLP_PID_Ki =23.36; //This number is
34 //independent of Ts Ki_c=Ki/Ts;
35 const double Prefilter_Coeff=0.167;
36
37
38 // Servo Setting
39
40 Servo myservo;
41 Servo panservo;
42 #define servo_center 10
43 #define panservo_center 83
44 #define servo_offset_limit 30
45 double u_wheelServo;
46 int wheelServo ;
47 int panServo;
48
49 //IMU object and Global Variable
50 Adafruit_BNO055 bno = Adafruit_BNO055();
51 imu::Vector<3> euler_init;
52 imu::Vector<3> euler;
53
54 // PWM Control Related Terms
55 const int PWM_Intitial=0;
56 const int PWM_UpperLimit=150;
57 const int PWM_LowerLimit=0;
58
59 // Encoder relevant variables for computing speed

```

```

60 Encoder EncR(3,3);
61
62
63 const int Enc_CPT=48;// Count Per Turn of Encoder
64 volatile long EncR_Ticks=0;// counter for Right wheel Encoder
65 volatile int Flag_TimerUpdate =1;// Timer Flag to
66 //Control iterative Every Loop
67 long Timer_Counter=0;
68
69 long EncR_Ticks_p=0; //RTick Record of last update
70
71
72 // Vehicle Basic Parameters
73 const double WheelRadius =0.024;
74
75
76
77
78 /* ----- Software Setting ----- */
79 // General Parameters
80 const double Time_SamplingTime=0.1;// sampling time
81 //of timer1 period in seconds
82 const long Time_StopTimeMS =7000;
83 const long SerialTimeOutMs =10000;
84 const int ledPIN=13;
85 long StartRunTime=0;
86
87
88 /* ----- Other Function Global Variables ----- */
89 // ctrl_inner_loop Global Variables
90
91 double wR=0;// angular velocity of right wheel
92
93
94 double v_dsr=0;// set this variable up
95 double v;
96 double v_dsr_filtered_p=0;// pre-filter
97 double Err_v_p=0;
98
99 int PWMR_p = 0;
100 int PWML_p = 0;
101 // OuterLP Global Vars
102
103
104 double x_dsr=1.52;//
105 double y_dsr=1.52;
106 double x=0;
107 double y=0;
108 double theta=0;
109
110 double x_p=0;
111 double y_p=0;
112
113 /* ----- Other Function Global Variables ----- */
114 //Regulated outputs measured/estimated
115 //double LinearV; //linear speed of the vehicle
116 //double AngularV;//angular velocity of the vehicle

```

```

117 //w.r.t. instantaneous ICC
118
119 int TaskFinished_Flag = 0;
120 // stop the motor and halt when current time reaches TimeMS
121 void test_stop(long TimeMS) {
122     if(millis()-StartRunTime>TimeMS || TaskFinished_Flag==1){
123         MotorL->run(RELEASE); // turn off motor
124         MotorR->run(RELEASE);
125         // digitalWrite(ledPIN,LOW); // turn off led light to
126         // indicate test is over
127         while(1);
128     }
129 }
130
131 // CTRL_XY Global Variables
132 double LinearV_dsr=0;
133 double AngularV_dsr=0;
134
135 double LinearV=0;
136 double AngularV=0;
137 double theta_dsr =0;
138
139
140 /* ----- Other Function Global Variables ----- */
141 // Iteration according to Timer Flag
142 // Run Different Main Function According to mode setting
143 long time_old = 0;
144 void iterative(int mode){
145     if(millis()-time_old > 100){
146         enc_update();
147         time_old = millis();
148     }
149     if (Flag_TimerUpdate){
150         // Main Function Updates
151         get_wheel_speed();
152         switch(mode) {
153             case 0:
154                 ctrl_inner_loop();
155                 break;
156             case 1:
157                 // CTRL_LineTracking();
158                 break;
159             case 2:
160                 ctrl_planar_stabilization();
161                 break;
162             default:
163                 // if nothing else matches, do the default
164                 // default is optional
165                 break;
166         }
167         Flag_TimerUpdate=0;
168     }
169 }
170 // Update Encoder Register in interrupt
171 // when interrupt happens set Flag_TimerUpdate
172 void enc_update() {
173     EncR.Ticks = EncR.read();

```

```

174   Flag_TimerUpdate=1;// set flag for this
175   Timer_Counter++;
176   //Serial.println("timer_update");
177
178   // Remember to reset Encoder if Encoder CPT is high
179 }
180
181 // PWM Saturation Setting
182 int pwm_saturation(int PWM_In){
183   int PWM_Out=PWM_In;
184   if(PWM_In>PWM_UpperLimit){PWM_Out=PWM_UpperLimit;}
185   if(PWM_In<PWM_LowerLimit){PWM_Out=PWM_LowerLimit;}
186   return PWM_Out;
187 }
188
189 // Motor Setting (Replace by Duo)
190 int motor_set_pwm(int PWML_In,int PWMR_In){
191   int PWML_Out,PWMR_Out;
192   PWML_Out=pwm_saturation(PWML_In);
193   PWMR_Out=pwm_saturation(PWMR_In);
194   MotorL->setSpeed(PWML_Out);
195   MotorR->setSpeed(PWMR_Out);
196 }
197
198
199
200 // compute angular velocity of each wheel through
201 //Encoder Measurement
202 //input : EncR_Ticks,
203 //output : v
204 void get_wheel_speed(){
205   // Serial.print(" enc increment: ");
206   // Serial.print(EncR_Ticks-EncR_Ticks_p);
207   // floating point operation on Arduino might cause
208   //real-time performance problem
209   wR=1.0*(EncR_Ticks-EncR_Ticks_p)/Time_SamplingTime*2*3.1416/Enc_CPT;
210   // Iteration
211   EncR_Ticks_p =EncR_Ticks;
212   v = wR*WheelRadius;
213
214 }
215
216
217 // PI controller Incremental Style
218 //input: u_p,e,e_p (Very Like to put u_p inside but seems difficult )
219 //output: u
220 int ctrl_pi_controller(int u_p,double Error, double Error_p){
221
222   int u=0; // control input
223   double BV = 7.8;
224   double Kp=InnerLP_PID_Kp;
225   double Ki=InnerLP_PID_Ki;
226   double Ts=Time_SamplingTime;
227   double delta_u = (Kp*(Error - Error_p) + Ki*Ts*Error)* (255.0/BV);
228
229   u = u_p + (int)delta_u;
230   return u;

```

```

231 }
232
233
234 void servo_steer(){
235
236     wheelServo = servo_center + u_wheelServo;
237     myservo.write(wheelServo);
238     // servo saturation control
239     if(wheelServo > servo_center+30 )
240         {wheelServo= servo_center+30; myservo.write(wheelServo);}
241     if(wheelServo < servo_center-30 )
242         {wheelServo= servo_center-30; myservo.write(wheelServo);}
243
244     // Serial.print(" wheelServo ");
245     // Serial.print(wheelServo);
246     // Serial.print(" , ");
247     // myservo.write(wheelServo);
248 }
249
250
251 // Update desired angular velocity and use PI
252 //controller to generate control input
253 // Thus control inner loop (angular velocity )
254 // input: v_dsr
255 // output:v
256 void ctrl_inner_loop(){
257
258     double v_dsr_filtered=Prefilter_Coeff*v_dsr+
259     (1-Prefilter_Coeff)*v_dsr_filtered_p;
260     //Error Variables error between measured output
261     //and desire value
262     double Err_v = v_dsr_filtered - v;
263
264     // PI Inner loop Controller for v
265
266     int PWML=ctrl_pi_controller(PWML_p,Err_v,Err_v_p);
267     int PWMR=ctrl_pi_controller(PWMR_p,Err_v,Err_v_p);
268
269     // Set Control Input to Motor
270     //motor_set_pwm(55,55);
271     motor_set_pwm(PWML,PWMR);
272
273     // Iteration
274     PWMR_p=PWMR;
275     PWML_p=PWML;
276
277     v_dsr_filtered_p = v_dsr_filtered;
278
279     // inner loop for lateral w
280     servo_steer();
281 }
282 }
283
284
285
286 void imu_setup() {
287

```



```

288     bno.begin();
289     delay(2000);
290     euler_init = bno.getVector(Adafruit_BNO055::VECTOR_EULER);
291 // imu_bno055.begin();
292 }
293
294 // Get Theta From IMU
295 double imu_get_theta(){
296     euler = bno.getVector(Adafruit_BNO055::VECTOR_EULER);
297     double raw_degree = euler.x();
298     if (raw_degree >= 180)
299         return -(360-raw_degree)*3.14/180);
300     else
301         return (raw_degree*3.14/180);
302
303     // Serial.println(raw);
304 }
305
306 // Restriction Control Action
307 //input: In,Th(Threshold),Output UpperLimit Output LowerLimit
308 //output: Out
309 double dead_zone_saturation(double In,double Th, double Min,double Max){
310     double Out=In;
311     if(fabs(In) <= Th) {Out=0;} // threshold Means No response region is [-Th Th]
312     else if (In > Max){Out=Max;}
313     else if (In < Min){Out=Min;}
314     return Out;
315 }
316
317 // Drive Robot to Desired Position with Desired Orientation
318 // input x_dsr, y_dsr,
319 // output x , y , theta
320 void ctrl_planar_stabilization(){
321
322     double Kp_theta = OuterLP_PID_Kp_theta;
323     double Kp_dist = OuterLP_PID_Kp_dist;
324
325     double Ts = Time_SamplingTime;
326     double phi = atan2((y_dsr-y_p),(x_dsr-x_p));
327     // test this function first
328
329     // double atan2 (double _y, double _x) // arc tangent of y/x
330     theta = imu_get_theta();
331     double Err_dist = sqrt(pow((x_dsr-x_p),2)+pow((y_dsr-y_p),2));
332
333     if (Err_dist < xy_eps){
334         TaskFinishedFlag=1;
335         Serial.println("Task Finished Reach Target!");
336         MotorL->setSpeed(0);
337         MotorR->setSpeed(0);
338         MotorL->run(BACKWARD); // turn on motor

```

```

345     MotorR->run(BACKWARD);
346     delay(300);
347     test_stop(Time_StopTimeMS);
348 }
349 double delta_phi= phi+theta;
350 double Err_s     = Err_dist*cos(delta_phi);
351 //Serial.print(" Err_dist ");
352 //Serial.print(Err_dist);
353 //Serial.print(" phi: ");
354 //Serial.print(phi);
355 //Serial.print(" Err_s ");
356 //Serial.print(Err_s);
357 //Serial.print(" , ");
358 //Serial.print(" theta ");
359 //Serial.print(theta);
360 //Serial.print(" delta_phi ");
361 //Serial.print(delta_phi);
362
363 // P Control of Distance and Theta
364 AngularV_dsr= dead_zone_saturation((Kp_theta*delta_phi)
365     , 0,     -30,    30 );
366 v_dsr = dead_zone_saturation((Kp_dist *Err_dist)
367     , 0,     0.3,    0.75 );
368
369 //Serial.print(" v_dsr ");
370 //Serial.println(v_dsr);
371 //v_dsr = 0;
372 u_wheelServo = AngularV_dsr;
373 ctrl_inner_loop();
374 //motor_set_pwm(45,45);
375
376 //Serial.print(" u_wheelServo ");
377 //Serial.println(u_wheelServo);
378
379 // Dead Reckoning, Ts=0.1; May Cause Problem if Running Fast
380 //Serial.print(" v: ");
381 //Serial.print(v);
382 x = x_p+(v*cos(-theta)*Ts);
383 y = y_p+(v*sin(-theta)*Ts);
384
385 //Serial.print(" x  ");
386 Serial.print(x);
387 Serial.print(",");
388 Serial.println(y);
389
390 //Iteration
391 x_p=x;
392 y_p=y;
393 #if defined(DEBUG_FLAG) && defined(CTRL_POSITION_DISP)
394     //Serial.print("x_p");
395     //Serial.print(x_p);
396     //Serial.print("y_p");
397     //Serial.println(y_p);
398 #endif
399 }
400
401 void setup(){

```

```

402     myservo.attach(9);
403     //panservo.attach(10);
404     myservo.write(servo_center);
405     //panservo.write(panservo_center);
406
407     imu_setup();
408     StartRunTime=millis();// record start time in mS
409     Serial.begin(115200);
410     AFMS.begin(); // create with the default frequency 1.6KHz
411     // Set the speed to start, from 0 (off) to 255 (max speed)
412     MotorL->setSpeed(PWM_Intitial);
413     MotorR->setSpeed(PWM_Intitial);
414     MotorL->run(FORWARD); // turn on motor
415     MotorR->run(FORWARD);
416     // Timer1.initialize(500000);//Timer1.initialize(microseconds);
417     //Set timer 100ms
418     // Timer1.attachInterrupt(enc_update); //
419 }
420 }
421
422 void loop(){
423     test_stop(Time_StopTimeMS);
424     // void CTRL_InnerLoop(double LinearV_dsr, double AngularV_dsr)
425     iterative(2); // Run in Mode 2-XY
426     //myservo.write(20);
427     //Serial.println("changing servo");
428     //delay(1000);
429     //myservo.write(6);
430     //delay(1000);
431 }

```

```

1 //Main Arduino Code for Track Following
2
3 #include <Wire.h>
4 #include <SPI.h>
5 #include <Adafruit_MotorShield.h>
6 #include <Servo.h>
7 #include <math.h>
8 #include <Adafruit_Sensor.h>
9 #include <Adafruit_BNO055.h>
10 #include <utility/imumaths.h>
11 // #include <Encoder.h>
12 #include "utility/Adafruit_PWMServoDriver.h"
13
14 #define servo_center 6
15 #define panservo_center 83
16 #define servo_offset_limit 30
17 Adafruit_BNO055 bno = Adafruit_BNO055();
18
19 Servo myservo;
20 Adafruit_MotorShield AFMS = Adafruit_MotorShield();
21 Adafruit_DCMotor *M1 = AFMS.getMotor(1);
22 Adafruit_DCMotor *M2 = AFMS.getMotor(2);
23 //Encoder R(3, 3);
24 #define MAG_OUTPUT 3
25

```

```

26
27     //rear wheel velovities
28 int count;
29 double radius = 0.024;
30 double L_r = 0.134;
31 double pi = 3.14159;
32 double vx;           //robot cruise speed
33 double vx_p=0;
34 double vx_filtered;
35 unsigned long time_stamp = 0;
36
37
38 int sampling_time_ms = 100;
39
40
41 imu::Vector<3> euler_init;
42 imu::Vector<3> euler;
43
44 //Servo servo;
45 Servo servo_pan;
46 //Servo servo_tilt;
47
48 double servo_kp = 0.6;
49 double servo_kd = 0.05;
50 double theta_cam_p = 0;
51 double K_pan = 0.12;
52
53 int wheelServo ;
54 int panServo;
55
56 const int NUMBER_OF_FIELDS = 2; // how many
57 //comma separated fields we expect
58 int fieldIndex = 0;           // the current
59 //field being received
60 double values[NUMBER_OF_FIELDS]; // array
61 //holding values for all the fields
62 double theta_cam;
63 double theta_imu;
64 double timeold;
65
66 int FLAG; // normal case on track
67 int sign;
68
69
70 // function declaration
71 void get_speed();
72 void pulseCNT();
73 void servo_steer();
74 void longitudinal_operation();
75 void status_print();
76 double imu_get_theta();
77 double pd_theta(double err, double err_p,
78     double Ts, double Kp, double Kd);
79
80
81
82 // pid controller for steer servo

```

```

83 double pd_theta(double err, double err_p,
84 double Ts, double Kp, double Kd){
85 double u = Kp*err+ Kd*(err-err_p)/Ts;
86 // add roll off later
87 return u;
88 }
89
90 void longitudinal_operation(){
91 if(abs(theta_cam)<50 && FLAG == 1){
92 // release motors if theta_cam is too large or lose track
93
94 if(abs(theta_cam) > 20){
95 M1->run(FORWARD);
96 M2->run(FORWARD);
97 M1->setSpeed(35);
98 M2->setSpeed(35);
99 }
100
101 else{
102 M1->run(FORWARD);
103 M2->run(FORWARD);
104 M1->setSpeed(32);
105 M2->setSpeed(32);
106 }
107 }
108 else{
109 M1->run(RELEASE);
110 M2->run(RELEASE);
111 }
112 }
113 void status_print(){
114 // Serial.print(" vx: ");
115 Serial.print((millis()-timeold)/1000);
116 Serial.print(" , ");
117 Serial.print(vx_filtered/2);
118 Serial.print(" , ");
119 //Serial.print(" theta_imu: ");
120 Serial.print(theta_imu);
121 Serial.print(" , ");
122 Serial.print(theta_cam);
123 Serial.print(" , ");
124 Serial.println(K_pan*theta_cam);
125 }
126 void servo_steer(){
127 //servo PD
128 if(abs(theta_cam)>20)
129 {
130
131 int i = K_pan*theta_cam;
132 panServo = panservo_center - i;
133
134 if(panServo > panservo_center + 20)
135 {panServo= panservo_center + 20; servo_pan.write(panServo);}
136 if(panServo < panservo_center - 20 )
137 {panServo= panservo_center + 20; servo_pan.write(panServo);}
138
139 servo_pan.write(panServo);

```

```

140 }
141 else{
142   servo_pan.write(panservo_center);
143 }
144
145
146   if (abs(theta_cam) > 5){ // set deadzone
147     for straight line
148       //if(wheelServo > servo_center+30 )
149         //{wheelServo= servo_center+30;}
150       //if(wheelServo < servo_center-30 )
151         //{wheelServo= servo_center-30;}
152       double u = pd_theta(theta_cam,theta_cam_p,
153         0.1,servo_kp,servo_kd);
154       wheelServo = servo_center - u;
155       myservo.write(wheelServo);
156     }
157
158     if (abs(theta_cam) <= 5){
159       myservo.write(servo_center);
160
161     }
162     // servo saturation control
163     if(wheelServo > servo_center+30 )
164       {wheelServo= servo_center+30; myservo.write(wheelServo);}
165     if(wheelServo < servo_center-30 )
166       {wheelServo= servo_center-30; myservo.write(wheelServo);}
167     //myservo.write(wheelServo);
168     //}
169     // iteration of theta_cam
170     theta_cam_p = theta_cam;
171
172   }
173
174 void get_speed(){
175   vx = (((double)count/12.0)*2.0*pi*radius)*
176   1000.0/sampling_time_ms;
177   vx_filtered = (vx + vx_p)/2;
178   count = 0;
179   vx_p = vx;
180 }
181
182 void pulseCNT(){
183   //Serial.println(count);
184   count++;
185   //Each rotation, this interrupt function is
186   //run once in rising edge
187 }
188
189 double imu_get_theta(){
190   euler = bno.getVector(Adafruit_BNO055::VECTOR_EULER);
191   double raw = (euler.x() - euler_init.x()) * 3.14 / 180.0;
192   if (raw < 6.28)
193     return raw;
194   else
195     return (raw - 6.28);
196 }

```

```

197
198 void setup(){
199     myservo.attach(9);
200     servo_pan.attach(10);
201     myservo.write(servo_center);
202     servo_pan.write(panservo_center);
203     bno.begin();
204     delay(2000);
205     euler_init = bno.getVector(Adafruit_BNO055::VECTOR_EULER);
206
207     Serial.begin(115200); // Initialize serial port
208     //to send and receive at 115200 baud
209     AFMS.begin();
210     pinMode(MAG_OUTPUT, INPUT_PULLUP); // turn on
211     //inside pull-up resistor
212     attachInterrupt(MAG_OUTPUT-2, pulseCNT, RISING);
213     //M1->setSpeed(25);
214     //M2->setSpeed(25);
215     //M1->run(FORWARD);
216     //M2->run(FORWARD);
217     timeold = millis();
218 }
219 void loop()
220 {
221     //servo_pan.write(90);
222
223     if( Serial.available())
224     {
225         char ch = Serial.read();
226         if(ch >= '0' && ch <= '9') // is this an ascii digit
227             // between 0 and 9?
228             {
229                 // yes, accumulate the value if the fieldIndex is within range
230                 // additional fields are not stored
231                 if(fieldIndex < NUMBER_OF_FIELDS)
232                 {
233                     values[fieldIndex] = (values[fieldIndex] * 10) + (ch - '0');
234                 }
235                 else if (ch == ',') // comma is our separator, so
236                     //move on to the next field
237                     {
238                         values[fieldIndex] = values[fieldIndex] * sign;
239                         fieldIndex++; // increment field index
240                         sign = 1;
241                     }
242                 else if (ch == '-')
243                 {
244                     sign = -1;
245                 }
246                 else
247                 {
248                     // any character not a digit or comma ends the
249                     // acquisition of fields
250                     // in this example it's the newline character sent
251                     //by the Serial Monitor
252                     values[fieldIndex] = values[fieldIndex] * sign; //last number
253                     // print each of the stored fields

```

```

254  theta_cam = values[0]/100; //get degree error
255  FLAG = values[1]; //get FLAG
256
257  for(int i=0; i < min(NUMBER_OF_FIELDS, fieldIndex+1); i++)
258  {
259      //Serial.println(values[i]);
260      values[i] = 0; // set the values to zero, ready
261      //for the next message
262  }
263  fieldIndex = 0; // ready to start over
264  sign = 1;
265  //robot(Rtarget,Ltarget);
266 }
267 //theta_cam = values[0]; //get degree error
268 //FLAG = values[1]; //get FLAG
269
270     //Serial.print("serial ch: ");
271     //Serial.print(ch);
272     //Serial.print("value0: ");
273     //Serial.print(values[0]);
274     //Serial.print(" value1: ");
275     //Serial.println(values[1]);
276
277     }
278
279  if(millis()-time_stamp >= sampling_time_ms){// inner loop
280      //Serial.print("inner loop run");
281      //Serial.print(" theta_cam: ");
282      //Serial.print(theta_cam);
283      //Serial.print(" FLAG: ");
284      //Serial.println(FLAG);
285
286      // update and print status
287      get_speed();
288      time_stamp = millis(); //update current time
289
290
291      theta_imu = imu_get_theta();
292      //status_print();
293
294      // robot control
295      longitudinaloperation();
296
297      servo_steer();
298
299  //     status_print();
300  //
301  }
302 }

```