The goal of rescue robotics is to extend the capabilities of human rescuers while also increasing their safety. During the rescue mission mobile robot is deployed on the site and is operated from a safe place by a human. A decision on the robot’s path selection is very complicated, since the operator cannot see the robot and the environment. Our goal is to provide a kind of automatic “pilot system” to propose the operator a good direction or several options to traverse the environment, taking into account the robot’s static and dynamic properties.

To find a good path we need a special path search algorithm on debris. The real state space of the search is extremely huge and to decrease the number of search directions we discretize robot’s motion and the state space before the search. Search algorithm needs a proper definition of node’s neighborhood, which will ensure smooth exploration of the search tree. In this paper we present our results in estimation of the transition possibilities between two consecutive states, connected with a translation step, and discuss the problems arising from the discretization of the state space. Exhaustive simulations were used to structure, analyze and solve the discretization issue problems and help to remove unsuitable directions of the search from the search tree.

1 INTRODUCTION

A long standing goal of mobile robotics is to allow robots to work in environments unreachable or too hazardous to risk human lives. Urban search and rescue is one of the most hazardous environments imaginable with victims often buried in unreachable locations. Rescue robotics is the application of robotics to the search and rescue domain. The goal of rescue robotics is to extend the capabilities of human rescuers while increasing their safety. In particular, the inside of severe earthquake stricken buildings or underground area should be investigated in advance of manned rescue operation in order to avoid risk of suffering from secondary disaster. During the rescue mission the mobile robot is deployed on the rescue site, while the human tele-operator is monitoring the robot’s activities and giving the orders from a safe place outside of the site (Figure1). The system consists of a robot control subsystem and a remote operation station, connected with a wireless LAN.

In this paper we present our current results in estimation of the transition possibilities of a crawler type vehicle between two consecutive states, connected with a translation step within Random Step Environment, which is a simulated debris environment, proposed by NIST (Jacoff et al., 2001). To find a good path we implement a special path search algorithm on debris. Because the debris site is dangerous and unstable, the main goal of the algorithm is to keep the robot maximally stable at every step of its path. The real state space of the search is extremely huge and to decrease the number of search directions we discretize robot’s motion and the state space before the actual search. A search algorithm utilizes a search tree (Cormen et al., 2001); for our problem dynamically created search tree cannot be explicitly present as a skeleton. To present it as a function $F(\text{Args}) = \text{Res}$, where arguments $\text{Args}$ are the robot’s current configuration and the environment and output $\text{Res}$ is a set of accessible within one step configurations, we need a proper definition of function $F$ which will guide the tree search. We created a theoretical basis for this function $F$ and confirmed it with exhaustive simulations, removing all unsuitable directions of the search from the search tree. A new feature of our research is a path evaluation process, which includes robot’s postures quality together with the inter posture transitions quality.

Currently rescue robots are operated manually by human operators. The remote operator uses only visual information about the environment, which is usu-
ally not sufficient to carry out complex tasks because of the limited visual fields of cameras. In the case of an on-site operator, which stays inside a crawler-type rescue vehicle, the human can feel the inclination of the vehicle and the decision on the traversability of the path becomes more easy. Unfortunately, the off-site operator can not use any of those natural biological sensors and have to judge on the next move on the base of the partial available information, taking subjective and time consuming decisions. Many optional paths from the start to the target position exist and it is very hard for the operator to choose a good and safe path. Transferring the function of taking such decisions to a computer will decrease the burden on the operator. Our final goal is to provide a “pilot system” to propose an operator a good direction or several options to traverse the environment. The operator will receive a proposal on a good path from the “pilot system” on the computer display by means of GUI and apply it in a real scenario driving KENAF robot.

![Figure 1: (a) Operator. (b) KENAF traversing RSE.](image)

### 2 THE SYSTEM FRAMEWORK

The National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) has created a set of reference test arenas for evaluating the performance of mobile autonomous robots performing urban search and rescue tasks (Jacoff et al., 2001). One of the examples, simulating cluttered environment with debris is a so-called Random Step Environment (RSE) or Stepfield, which is widely used in the RoboCup Rescue competitions and rescue related research (Sheh et al., 2007). RSEs are designed to be easily reproduced, and yet behave in a similar way to real rubble. RSE consists of a final number of random steps of some minimal size simulating a heavily damaged environment of the buildings after the earthquake(Figure 1b).

Our RSE is constructed from wooden block cells of 85x85mm size and 0, 90, 180 or 270 mm height each, where 0mm corresponds to the ground level around the RSE-patch. We assume a simple tractor-like crawler non-reconfigurable robot, corresponding to the main body of "KENAF" robot(Figure 2b). The main body of "KENAF" consists of two large tracks with a small gap in between; the main specifications of "KENAF" without sensors, front and the back pairs of arms, used in experiments and by the simulation "pilot system", are given in table 1.

![Figure 2: (a) Full KENAF configuration without sensors. (b) Main body without service arms and sensors.](image)

**Table 1: Specifications of "KENAF" in basic configuration.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Measurement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maximal inclination dynamic</td>
<td>60 deg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximal inclination static</td>
<td>80 deg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main body length</td>
<td>584 mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main body width</td>
<td>336 mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Track width</td>
<td>150 mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Height</td>
<td>270 mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weight</td>
<td>17.8 kg</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3 STATIC STABILITY AND BALANCE ESTIMATION

The most important question which the path search algorithm should be able to answer is if a specific robot configuration is possible or not. This includes not only collisions with the obstacles, but also the capability of the robot to keep the current configuration. The robot should be able to stay in the specific configuration without slipping or turning upside-down. In other words, a safe and reliable motion of an autonomous vehicle requires continuous satisfaction of static and dynamic constraints (Shoval, 2004). Static stability is a minimal necessary condition for the general vehicle stability. For the static stability satisfaction the robot’s center of mass (CM) must lie above the support polygon - a polygon with vertices at the contact points of the robot’s crawlers with RSE.

In (Magid et al., 2008) we presented an algorithm for static balance posture estimation of the robot’s posture in a specified configuration. In this section we give a brief description of the static balance posture types where we give color names, and add one new posture type - cyan. From the point of static balance estimation, we distinguish six posture types:
(R) Red State. Presents a statically unstable posture; it results in robot’s turning upside down while trying to climb to an impossible steepness.

(G) Green State. Stands for a statically stable posture (Figure 3a).

(Y) Yellow State. Is a private case of green state. Normalized Energy Stability Margin (NESM) (Hirose et al., 1998) is applied for estimating the quality of the green state posture. Green state turns into yellow if the $S_{NESM}$ criterion does not exceed a predefined minimum established in the process of experiment trials with KENAF robot.

(O) Orange State. Is something between red and green states. This posture is possible, but not stable. It does not result in robot’s turning upside down, but do not guarantee a single stable posture since there exist two options and the real one depends on the preceding posture and moving direction. Figure 3b demonstrates a side view of an orange state with two possible postures. The orange state is very important, since it affords the robot to lose the balance on purpose, when for example the robot traverses the barrier. Traversing the barrier includes climbing up and going down with loosing balance twice on top of the barrier. We distinguish $O_1$ and $O_2$ cases. $O_1$ is the first part of the O-posture, before the robot loses its balance. $O_2$ is the second part, which occurs after the robot have lost its initial balance; robot changes its posture discontinuously at that point and obtains a balance again in a different body orientation.

(M) Magenta State. Appears when the robot has to climb up or to slide down the vertical slope of the environment; it is legal only for translation motion.

(C) Cyan State. The cyan posture is detected between two successive G/Y/O postures if CM position change in Z-coordinate exceeds the predefined threshold. This jump is detected only after the second posture is explored and compared to the first posture. Cyan posture is legal only for a rotation motion. Further we denote by C-posture a posture which static balance corresponds to a Cyan type, R-posture - red type etc.

4 SEARCH SPACE AND SEARCH TREE

Next important task of the search algorithm is to decide on possible next steps of the robot from a given current location and orientation. In standard 2D navigation there are 2 types of cells in the state space “free” and “obstacle” and all transitions between free adjacent cells are legal (Latombe, 1991). Our important improvement of the existing approach is as follows. We have “possible” (stable) and “impossible” (unstable) postures with regard to robot’s static stability; but even in a case of two adjacent “possible” postures we check if the transition between them is legal. To decrease the number of search directions we discretize robot’s motion and the state space before the search. Next exhaustive simulations and experiments will remove all unsuitable search directions.

Initially we had chosen 3 levels of search space discretization for XY-coordinates of the environment:

- DISC2 - each 85x85mm cell of RSE turns into 2x2 cells of the internal robot map with the cell size of 42.5x42.5mm
- DISC5 - 5x5 cells of 17x17mm size per RSE cell
- DISC10 - 10x10 cells of 8.5x8.5mm size per cell

KENAF supports two types of motion: translation and rotation. Thus at each node of the search tree the search algorithm has to open the 3-neighborhood of the node - go straight or turn left/right - and to proceed the search in the most promising direction. Immediately we must cut off from the search tree all impossible search directions, which are different for rotation and translation steps. In this paper we present our results in estimation of the transition possibilities between two consecutive states, connected with a translation step.

Translation step is defined as a one cell length step forward in the direction of robot local frame’s axis $X_L$. Transition between two stable postures is

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1 Exhaustive simulations showed that cyan posture exists for the translational motion only due to the discretization issue: it exists for a big scale of the internal map of DISC2 (as defined in section 4), rarely appears at DISC5 and almost disappears at DISC10.
not always possible and to define this condition, we created a set of theoretical hypotheses, based on our experimental experience. Exhaustive simulations for environments existence in MATLAB and experiments with KENAF robot in RSE gave a valuable feedback for our theory and finally produced a branch cutting condition for the path search algorithm (Figure 4). Successive transition patterns will be integrated in the search algorithm as a part of neighbor opening and branch cutting function \( F(\text{Args}) = \text{Res} \).

5 DESCRIBING A POSTURE

To characterize robot’s posture qualitatively we use the coloring of the states. To decide possible transitions between two successive states, we have chosen 6 variables, whose combinations help us to define legal transitions between the states.

Steepness \( \theta_X \). The angle, showing the steepness of the environment at a given robot configuration. Angle between the local axis \( X_L \) and its projection on the plane of the global axes \( X_G, Y_G \) (Figure 5a).

Moment \( \theta_Y \). The angle, showing the dangerous rotational moment around robot’s \( X_L \)-axis at a given configuration. Angle between the local axis \( Y_L \) and its projection on the plane of the global axes \( X_G, Y_G \) (Figure 5b).

Contact Points Quality (CPQ). Depends on the angle \( \theta_{CPQ} \) between the robot’s crawlers and the edges of the RSE cells and affects the robot’s ability of climbing the obstacles and sliding down safely.

Inclination. Is the sign of the steepness angle \( \theta_X \). We distinguish three groups of posture sets with respect to this parameter: \( G_{\text{inc}} = G_{\text{MS}} \) is a climbing up the steps of the environment posture, \( G_{\text{Dinc}} \) is a going down and \( G_{\text{Zinc}} \) is a neutral inclination posture.

M-sign. Is the sign of the moment angle \( \theta_Y \). Similar to inclination, group \( G_{\text{PM}} \) contains all postures with positive M-sign, \( G_{\text{NSM}} \) with negative and \( G_{\text{ZMS}} \) with neutral\(^2\).

NESM-stability. Shows the probability of the robot’s turning upside down because of the situation, when the CM is too close to one of the edges of the support polygon in the sense of NESM.

Inclination and M-sign are the most important variables. They signal about discretization problems, pointing on the missed posture between two successive postures due to the discretization issue. 4 other variables are emphasized for the experimental work and particulary for creating input, which will satisfactorily span all possible translation step cases.

6 HYPOTHESES

We conducted a large set of experiments with KENAF robot in several Random Step Environments. Based on operation experience and basic logic, we created a set of rules on the translations (TR) between two successive postures. It includes trivial statements, definitions and assumptions:

(\( \text{TR1} \)) Translation preserves orientation \( \theta \).
(\( \text{TR2} \)) Starting at \( O_1 \) posture, we immediately translate to \( O_2 \) as a result of inertia; there is no way to obtain \( O_2 \) posture without previously obtaining \( O_1 \).
(\( \text{TR3} \)) Z-posture is defined if robot’s body is parallel to the ground level: \( G_{Z,M} \cap G_{Z,NS} \).
(\( \text{TR4} \)) The only way to climb up or slide down a vertical slope of RSE is to apply a sequence of M postures between two stable postures (start and end of the M-sequence). M-sequence cannot contain any non-M posture.
(\( \text{TR5} \)) C-posture does not exist.
(\( \text{TR6} \)) M-posture has no real \( \theta_X, \theta_Y \) and NESM parameter data, but only an approximation. Also it has no own inclination and M-sign data.
(\( \text{TR7} \)) NESM-stability coefficient is zero for O-postures.
(\( \text{TR8} \)) Change of inclination between two postures can occur only through O-posture and its \( O_1 \) or \( O_2 \) is a Z-posture.

\(^2G_{Z,inc} : \left| \theta_X \right| \leq \varepsilon; G_{Z,MS} : \left| \theta_Y \right| \leq \varepsilon; \varepsilon = 1\, \text{degree} \)
(TR9) Change of M-sign between two postures can occur only through O-posture.

(TR10) Significant change of steepness θX so that ΔθX = |θX(Pprev) − θX(Parr)| ≥ TXMAX without change in inclination or M-sign between two postures can occur only through M-posture.

(TR11) If the change between two successive postures in θY is ΔθY ≥ TYMAX degrees, it can occur only through O-posture.

(TR12) The possible change between two successive postures for a uniform translation motion case is ΔθX ≤ TXMIN and ΔθY ≤ TYMIN degrees.

(TR13) Inevitable O-posture (IOP) is obtained while passing the edge of the RSE-cell. If the posture (x,y,θ), preceding IOP, becomes (x±δx,y±δy,θ) with δx,y → 0, we will again and again obtain this IOP at the next translation step, i.e. IOP is preserved in the case of small shift δ in at least one direction.

(TR14) Accidental O-posture (AO) is obtained while passing through the corner of the RSE-cell. If the robot posture (x,y,θ), preceding AOP, would become (x±δx,y±δy,θ) with δx,y → 0, this AOP will not be obtained at the next translation step, i.e. any small shift will result in a differently colored posture.

We calculated a theoretical value of TXMIN for DISC5 by maximizing the difference ΔθX between two successive G-postures with optimization method according table 1. Obtained theoretical value was updated through a set of simulations and finally set to TXMIN = 3.5 degree. In a similar way we defined TYMAX = 8, TYMIN = 8 and TYMIN = 3.5 degrees. Unfortunately, the intermediate postures of (TR8)-(TR11) cannot always be obtained explicitly due to the discretization issue problem of the search space.

7 SUCCESSIVE POSTURE GROUPS

We divided all possible pairs of postures, connected with a translational step, into groups. Each group contains theoretically possible or impossible sequence with regard to section 6. For the translation case a legal set of colors for each posture is \{G, Y, O, M\} and we are supposed to obtain 16 groups of pairs at most.

7.1 Excluded and Forbidden Sequences

To decrease the number of groups we treat at the simulation level G and Y as a same G color. Since there is no real data for the M-cases by (TR6), we can treat it only as a color and a detailed study of G→M, M→M and M→G groups was done through experiments.

Pairs M→O, O→O and O→M are dangerous sequences, which should be forbidden and treated as R-posture. Such sequences are theoretically possible in very rare specific cases. Yet when the simulated path, containing such sequences, is to be repeated in the real world scenario by the operator, any small deviation may result into drastic path change and even into robot’s turning up side down. As an example, consider a pair O→O: just within one step the robot have to loose the balance twice; this means climbing and going down through a corner of the RSE-cell with a very small contact square between one of the crawlers and a cell, being close to the AOP case (TR14).

7.2 Possible and Impossible Sequences

Next we present a detailed description of G→G and G→O pairs. In this section we denote each posture as C(I) where C is the color, I is the inclination. For example, G(Z) means a green Z-posture (TR3) and O(U) means an orange posture with Uinc.

\[ G \rightarrow G \text{ groups :} \]

\[ (GG1): P_1=G(Z)\rightarrow P_2=G(D) \text{ due to the discretization issue by (TR8) there is a missed intermediate O-posture between P_1 and P_2(Figure6).} \]

\[ (GG2): G(D)\rightarrow G(Z); \text{ by (TR4) there is a missed intermediate M-posture(Figure7).} \]

\[ (GG3): G(Z)\rightarrow G(Z) \text{ corresponds to a trivial case when the robot is moving uniformly through the flat pattern of RSE.} \]

\[ (GG4): G(Z)\rightarrow G(U); \text{ by (TR4) there is a missed intermediate M-posture.} \]

\[ (GG5): G(U)\rightarrow G(Z); \text{ by (TR8) there is a missed intermediate O-posture.} \]

\[ (GG6): \text{a sign change for } \theta_Y \text{ between 2 postures signals about a missed AOP(Figure8).} \]

\[ (GG7): \varepsilon \leq |\Delta \theta_X| \leq TXMIN \text{ and } \varepsilon \leq |\Delta \theta_Y| \leq TYMIN - \text{ the robot is uniformly climbing up or going down with small 3D orientation changes in } \theta_X \text{ and } \theta_Y. \]

\[ (GG8): G(U)\rightarrow G(U), |\Delta \theta_X| > TXMAX \text{ and } |\Delta \theta_Y| < \varepsilon. \text{ The robot is climbing up the vertical slope of the RSE through a missed M-posture(Figure9).} \]

\[ (GG9): G(D)\rightarrow G(D), |\Delta \theta_X| > TXMAX \text{ and } |\Delta \theta_Y| < \varepsilon. \text{ This is a rare situation, when the robot is sliding down the vertical slope of the RSE with a missed M-posture, followed immediately by loosing the balance on the edge and finally gets into P_2. Such translation is still possible but dangerous and may be chosen only when no other path option exists.} \]

\[ (GG10): |\Delta \theta_X| > TXMAX \text{ and } |\Delta \theta_Y| > \varepsilon, \text{ in most cases corresponds to a dangerous AOP and should be forbidden.} \]

\[ (GG11): TXMIN \leq |\Delta \theta_X| \leq TXMAX \text{ and } TYMIN \leq |\Delta \theta_Y| \leq TYMAX, \text{ in most cases corresponds to a dan-} \]
gerous AOP and should be forbidden.

Pairs of type GG1 and GG5 are missing O-posture between two G-postures. Since O-posture is more important and has a higher cost in the path planning, we recolor the second posture $P_2$ of the sequence into O-color. Similarly, $P_2$ of GG2, GG4, GG7 and GG8 are recolored into M; and $P_2$ of GG6, GG10 and GG11 - into R.

![Figure 6: Translation GG1 from (left) to (right), missing intermediate O-posture.](image)

![Figure 7: Translation GG2 from (left) to (right), missing intermediate M-posture.](image)

![Figure 8: Translation GG6 from (left) to (right), missing intermediate AOP type O-posture.](image)

![Figure 9: Translation GG8 from (left) to (right), climbing up through a missed M-posture.](image)

Green $\rightarrow$ Orange: note that here $P_2=O_1$ and corresponds to the first part of the O-state before loosing the balance.

(GO1): G(U) $\rightarrow$ O(D) is forbidden; it occurs only if we missed another intermediate O-posture (TR8), which corresponds to a forbidden sequence O$\rightarrow$O (section 7.1).

(GO2): G(D)$\rightarrow$O(U) is similarly forbidden.

(GO3): G(D)$\rightarrow$O(D) is a rare case, meaning loosing balance on the edge of the cell while going down and having a small change in $\theta_x$ or/and $\theta_y$.

(GO4): G(D)$\rightarrow$O(Z) is an extremely rare case, which occurs when there is a missed intermediate M-posture. This mistake results into wrong calculations and the swap between $O_1$ and $O_2$; without this swap a jump between $P_1$ and $P_2$ would exceed the permitted threshold and $P_2$ would obtain R-color (Figure10: while the real posture sequence is a-b-c, the simulator understands it as a-c-b).

(GO5): G(U)$\rightarrow$O so that $P_2$ has $Z_{inc}$ and $|\theta| > \varepsilon$. This situation occurs due to AOP and is forbidden.

(GO6): G(Z)$\rightarrow$O(Z) is the most common case when the robot passes through the edge of the RSE cell while going down from the flat top of the barrier(Figure11).

(GO7): G(U)$\rightarrow$O(U) is the most common case when the robot passes through the edge of the RSE cell while climbing up to the flat top of the barrier.

![Figure 10: Translation GO4 from G (a) to $O_1$ (b), followed by $O_2$ (c), is missing an intermediate M-posture between (a) and (b).](image)

![Figure 11: Translation GO6 - going down from the flat top of the barrier from $O_1$ (left) to $O_2$ (right).](image)

While cases GO1, GO2, GO4 and GO5 are recolored into R-posture, cases GO3 should be accepted only if no other better choice of the path exists.
Orange $\rightarrow$ Green: Pairs O$\rightarrow$G are exactly the same as G$\rightarrow$G. The only difference is that the second posture for all cases different from GG3 and GG7 are recolored as R with regard to section 7.1.

8 SIMULATION

The only real proof of any theoretical hypothesis is an experimental proof. Thousands of different situations can occur in a completely random RSE and it is physically impossible to execute such huge number of experiments. The exhaustive simulations help us to conclude which situations can not occur due to the physical rules of RSE. Pairs of postures, impossible in the real world, are also impossible within the simulation. Since the reverse statement is not true, the simulator cannot substitute the experiments, but assists to structure the data and remove the impossible types of sequences, saving time and efforts.

Figure 12: A complicated environment of size 61x61 cells, covering all main types of the environment obstacles.

We created a huge environment of 61x61 cells (Figure 12) which includes all typical obstacles, usually appearing in the random step environment: horizontal and diagonal barriers, pairs of parallel barriers, traversable and non-traversable pikes and holes. For the simulation we have chosen discretization DISC5. An exhaustive check of all possible pairs of neighboring postures connected with a translation step were proceeded with voting for each group. As a first robot’s CM posture of the pair we took every node of the grid; a second posture of the pair was calculated as a 1-unit length change of CM’s location in the direction of the robot’s heading direction $\theta$. The total number of posture pairs was more than 6 millions.

The simulation included 91 robot orientations $\theta \in \{0, \frac{\pi}{180}, \frac{2\pi}{180}, \ldots, \frac{89\pi}{180}, \pi\}$. In addition to pointing at the impossible (empty) cases the simulation reveals the rare cases and the most often cases.

The results are summarized in the following tables. Table 2 presents the distribution of the pair appearances before recoloring the second posture of the pair at discretizations DISC2 and DISC5. We listed as legal pairs GG3, GG7, GO6 and GO7; pairs, containing at least one R-posture are legal as well, but we present them as a separate case. Undesirable pairs include fixable cases GG1, GG2, GG4, GG5, GG8, GG9, GO3, which appearance we still would prefer to avoid. Forbidden pairs are GG6, GG10, GG11, GO1, GO2, GO4, GO5, OO, OM, MO and C (second posture of the pair is cyan). We excluded from the statistics all G$\rightarrow$M, M$\rightarrow$M and M$\rightarrow$G cases, which otherwise would contribute 3.96%. Table 3 presents the distribution of the forbidden pair appearances in percents from the total pairs at DISC5; pairs GO1, GO2 and GO5 had zero appearance so they are excluded from the table. C-posture appearance signals on the missed M-posture. However, such M-posture should be forbidden, because the height difference between two G-postures exceeds KENAF’s climbing abilities threshold: fast vertical change and is too dangerous when sliding down and impossible when climbing up. Table 4 presents the distribution of the undesirable pair appearances in percents from the total pairs at DISC5. Table 5 presents the distribution after the recoloring. For DISC5 legal pair percent varies from 93.1% to 95.84% for different $\theta$ choice, which means we have a wide enough range of options for choosing a good path at DISC5.

Table 2: Pair distribution in percents for DISC2 and DISC5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DISC</th>
<th>Legal</th>
<th>Red</th>
<th>Undesirable</th>
<th>Forbidden</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>86.74</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>4.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>93.21</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>3.18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Forbidden pair distribution in percents for DISC5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GG6</th>
<th>GG10</th>
<th>GG11</th>
<th>GG4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>0.009</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MO</th>
<th>OO</th>
<th>OM</th>
<th>C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.009</td>
<td>0.009</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>0.862</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Undesirable pair distribution in percents for DISC5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GG1</th>
<th>GG2</th>
<th>GG4</th>
<th>GG5</th>
<th>GG8</th>
<th>GG9</th>
<th>GO3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.006</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Pair distribution in percents for DISC2 and DISC5 after the recoloring.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DISC</th>
<th>Legal</th>
<th>Red</th>
<th>Undesirable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>91.33</td>
<td>8.66</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>94.61</td>
<td>5.38</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3The nodes too close to the borders of the map were excluded.
9 DISCRETISATION ISSUE

The choice of a proper discretization of the search space is a very complicated task. We started our research with DISC5, which we considered to be good enough to notice main changes while traversing RSE. It turned that many of our initial theoretical expectations of robot’s behavior in RSE did not fulfill. We called those cases undesirable and started a deeper exploration of what is happening in such cases.

We discovered, that those unexpected cases appear only due to the level of the discretization: discretizing the environment into 17x17mm cells turned to be too coarse to note all the changes and capture all the intermediate postures, obtained by the robot within one translational step. Increasing discretization to DISC10 decreases percentage of undesirable cases, but unfortunately can not solve the problem completely. If the level of the discretization would be infinitely high, we would definitely obtain a properly colored posture between undesirable pair of postures in every case. Here is a simple example of the discretization influence: a small analytical step from one G-posture to another G-posture of $10^{-14}$ cm length, approximated by MATLAB as $2.8422 \cdot 10^{-14}$, resulted into robot orientation change of $\{25, -15.5, -17\}$ degrees with regard to global frame of RSE, signaling about a missed intermediate posture. This example shows that for any finite level of the discretization we still will have undesirable pairs appearances. Since we can not increase the discretization infinitely, we concluded that applying the results of section 7 for recoloring of the states at DISC5 is a good trade-off between execution time and precision. Of course, forbidding dangerous and suspicious transition, which still may be theoretically possible, limits our path choice, but increases the security of the practical use.

10 CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

The final target of our research is to provide an assistant “pilot system” for an operator of a rescue robot, decreasing the burden on the human operator. As soon as the robot obtains data from the environment and creates an internal world model, a selection on the path within the internal model should be done, followed by applying this path in the real world scenario. Since usually there exist more then just a single path, the path search algorithm needs a good instrument to evaluate the quality of each path. The search algorithm within the graph requires a proper definition of neighboring states to ensure smooth exploration of the search tree. In this paper we presented our results in estimation of the transition possibilities between two consecutive states, connected with a translation step. It is an important step toward a proper definition of a search tree neighborhood function $F(Args) = Res$, where arguments $Args$ are the robot’s current configuration and the environment and output $Res$ is a set of accessible within one step configurations. We created a theoretical basis for function $F$ and confirmed it with exhaustive simulations; the later were used to structure, analyze and solve the discretization of the RSE state space issue problems and help to remove unsuitable search directions. Next we plan to confirm our results with experiments and to complete function $F$ with the theory for the rotation step neighbor node.

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