

REACTIVE SIMULATION FOR REAL-TIME OBSTACLE AVOIDANCE

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Abstract: This paper provides a new approach to the dynamic path planning and obstacle avoidance in unknown and dynamic environments. The system is based on the interaction between four different modules: the Path Planner, the Graph which memorizes all the local target, the "Sentinel", and the module which computes the Reactive Simulation every time an obstacle is detected along the path. The Reactive Simulation takes in account the kinematics model of the vehicle and the actual state conditions to make a real-time simulation in order to predict the trajectory of the differential drive robot that would allow the safe reaching of the local target.

1 INTRODUCTION

The main aspects in the field of Autonomous Guided Vehicles are the safety of motion planning and accurate pose measurement. Both of these aspects are still challenging problems.

Improving the degree of system autonomy makes possible to use AGV in unknown and dynamic environments, where the main problem is to avoid obstacles and trap situations. Main aspects which have to be taken into consideration are dynamic obstacles, accurate relative pose estimation, kinematics and dynamical parameters variations.

Past studies concerning obstacle avoidance (Khatib, 1986; Koren, Borenstein, 1991) were based on potential fields where obstacles exert repulsive forces, while the target applies an attractive force to the robot. A resultant force vector is calculated for a given robot position and it gives the current motion direction. These methods have strong limitations in approaching doors, U-shape obstacles and in avoiding trap situations. Virtual Force Histogram (VFH) was developed to improve and make the potential field method more robust: it uses a two-dimensional Cartesian histogram grid as a world model to reduce sensors data and to compute the desired control motion for the vehicle (Borenstein,

Koren, 1991; Ulrich, Borenstein, 1998; . Ulrich, Borenstein, 2000).

Based on potential field methods, other studies were focused on a dynamical building of figure (Dynamic Force Fields) where the magnitude in each point can be seen as proportional to the probability of collision at that point (Planas).

All these methods, when operating in unknown environment cannot really solve trap-situations and can't find an optimal path (it can only be found when complete environmental information is given).

In order to search for optimality it is possible to build a map during motion with the application of Kalman filter (Nebot, Durrant-Whyte, 1999), but this can become useless in very dynamic environments, like factories or ports with a lot of vehicles in motion, thus wasting computational time.

To cope with dynamic environments, sensor-based motion generation techniques were developed: environmental changes or moving obstacles detected by sensors imply a "reactive path planning", adapting robot motions to every new event, and sensorial measures are used to create a local model of the environment exploited to drive the robot safely, also in dense and cluttered scenarios (Minguez, Montano, 2005).

A different approach (Kelly, Nagy, 2002) is a complete trajectory generation: based on real-time

perceptual information, a feasible nonholonomic motions plan (from a given initial posture to a given final posture) is generated using a parametric representation. With this approach the main problem is the computational time, and the existence of a trajectory which satisfies all the boundaries and conditions, namely the solution of a constrained optimization problem. But this approach doesn't take into account the model of the vehicle and so possible changes in kinematics and dynamical parameters.

In fact the environment could change, as well as kinematics parameters, affecting vehicle's path. This second aspect is usually not taken into account in path planning and obstacle avoidance.

In recent times simulation techniques have been applied to real-time systems optimization (De Cecco, 2005).

In this paper we describe a reactive simulation starting every time that a new target position is planned during motion due to the detection of an obstacle: if the output of the simulation is safe obstacle avoidance the robot continues smoothly its path, otherwise it stops to avoid dangerous collisions and to plan a safe path. The output is a more robust real time obstacle avoidance algorithm that would allow navigation in unknown and dynamically changing environment.

An important advantage of this approach is that the use of a model for simulation permits to estimate on-line the kinematics parameters and this allows to take into account parametric variations like different diameters of wheels, inertia of masses, etc, that could affect sensibly vehicle's motion (De Cecco, 2002).

The algorithm was implemented on an autonomous vehicle with differential drive kinematics (Figure 2). A PXI (National Instruments) with an embedded real-time operating system (RTOS) was used to control the robot and implement the Reactive Simulation.

2 KINEMATICS MODEL

The vehicle used in the experiment has a differential drive kinematics (Figure 1):

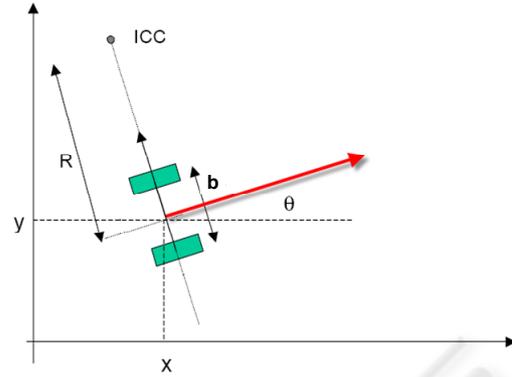


Figure 1: Differential drive kinematics.

The discrete form of the Inertial-Odometric navigation equations is the following:

$$\begin{cases} \delta_k = \frac{(v_{rk} - v_{lk})}{b} T_c + \delta_{k-1} \\ x_k = (v_k \cos \delta_k) T_c + x_{k-1} \\ y_k = (v_k \sin \delta_k) T_c + y_{k-1} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

where b is the distance between the centers of the two wheels, v_{rk} and v_{lk} are the linear velocities of right wheel and left wheel, v_k is the velocity of vehicle relative to the mid-point of axis b :

$$v_k = \frac{1}{2} * (v_{rk} + v_{lk}) \quad (2)$$

T_c is the period of the task which estimates the pose.



Figure 2: The prototype of AGV used in the experiment.

3 SIMULATION OPTIMIZATION

Kinematics parameters were measured and then optimized by minimizing a function cost which considers the pose estimated by odometric and the one estimated by the reference infrared triangulation system (De Cecco, 2000).

As regards the CC motor, it was used this model:

- Electrical part:

$$V_a(t) = Ri(t) + L \frac{di(t)}{dt} + K_\phi \omega(t) \quad (3)$$

where R is the resistance and L is the inductance of electric circuit, K_ϕ is the constant of torque, V_a is the input voltage, ω is the angular velocity,

- Mechanical part:

$$\tau_m(t) = K_\phi i(t) = J\dot{\omega}(t) + B\omega(t) \quad (4)$$

where τ_m is the motor torque, J is the rotor inertia, B is the viscous friction.

Combining the two parts:

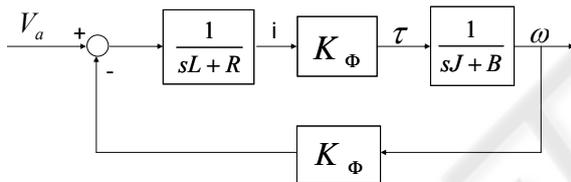


Figure 3: Scheme of CC motor.

Concerning to Figure 4, the trajectory is tracking projecting the center of vehicle on the segment P1P2 (where P1 is the target just reached and P2 is the new target planned) obtaining Pp, computing the point Pi:

$$Pi = Pp + d_0 L_{12} \quad (5)$$

where d_0 is distance between Pp and Pi, and imposing the angular velocity of the vehicle according to:

$$\omega = k\delta \quad (6)$$

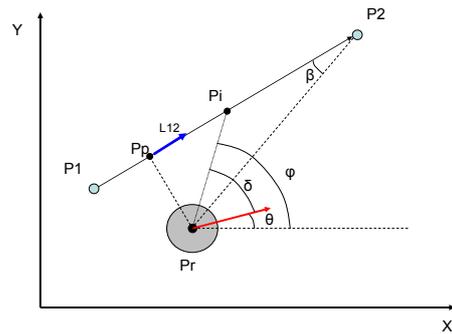


Figure 4: Scheme of trajectory tracking.

The step of integration in simulation was chosen as a compromise between computational time (it is a real time simulation) and accuracy of trajectory. Errors between simulations with a step of integration of 1 ms and simulations with increasing steps are shown in Table 1, which summarizes a set of tests with different velocities and trajectories, and with different initial heading with respect to the point to reach:

Table 1: Maximum simulated errors increasing step of integration in simulation.

Step of integration	Maximum simulated error
25 ms	8 mm
50 ms	16 mm
100 ms	32 mm
200 ms	61 mm

A maximum error of 16 mm enters in boundaries of safe robot motion, on the contrary a step of integration of 100 ms would be too inaccurate. A good compromise was considered a maximum step of 50 ms. In Figure 5 it is clear as the simulated trajectories get worse increasing the step of integration.

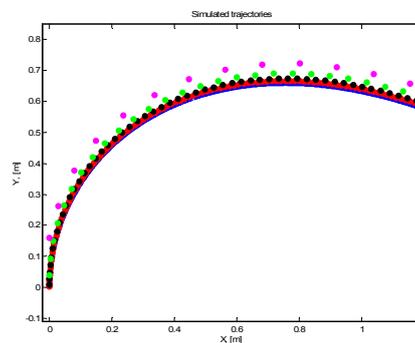


Figure 5: a detail of simulated trajectories with increasing steps of integration: 1 ms (blue), 25 ms (red), 50 ms (black), 100 ms (green), 200 ms (pink).

The computational time of Reactive Simulation is a very important aspect in real time applications. It depends on various influence quantities: actual velocity of vehicle, length of the trajectory that has to be simulated, initial pose of vehicle, step of integration. Table 2 shows computational times of Reactive Simulation: a trajectory of 2 m at the velocity of 0.4 m/s was simulated with different steps of integration, and for every step with different heading with respect to the point to reach.

Table 2: Computational time of Reactive Simulation: every time is the mean of simulations with different heading with respect to the point to reach.

Step of integration	Mean Time
10 ms	69 ms
20 ms	36 ms
30 ms	25 ms
40 ms	19 ms
50 ms	16 ms

It is clear as faster simulation has to be preferred for real time applications and so a step of integration of 50 ms was chosen

4 DYNAMICAL PATH PLANNING

The Planner makes a dynamical path planning to reach the goal with no a priori information about the environment. The only information are the initial position of the vehicle and the final target position. Planner searches for open spaces and for doors: the so called “openings”. Dynamically the planner makes a representation of the environment based on a graph, which memorizes all the openings. In this way the problem of dead-ends can be solved: when no opening is found, the vehicle rotates on its own axes by 180° degrees, then it searches again and if actual openings are yet memorised in the graph, the planner understands that it is probably in a dead-end. So based on the openings memorised in the graph, the new path is planned: the vehicle goes to a point memorised but not yet visited, selected by A* search algorithm. A* search is a common algorithm based on a heuristic function which permits to make a local optimal choose (because any map of the environment is available) (Chestnutt, Kuffner, Nishiwaki, Kagami, 2003; Stentz, 1994).

5 THE MEASUREMENT SYSTEM

The vehicle used in experiment is equipped with an encoder for every wheel, and a laser range finder.

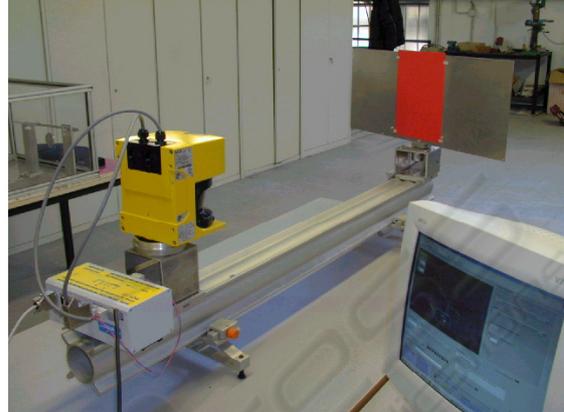


Figure 6: Experimental apparatus used for laser characterisation.

In order to characterise the laser range finder it has been mounted on a calibration setup (see Figure 6) composed of a bar for optical alignment, a panel hinged in the axis orthogonal to the bar, whose rotation is measured with an incremental encoder with 14400 ppr.

By means of the above system it was first characterised the noise standard deviation that come out to be about 4 mm, then the effect of the following influence parameters on laser accuracy: temperature drift, distance, surface colour, surface material, angle of incidence with respect to the object.

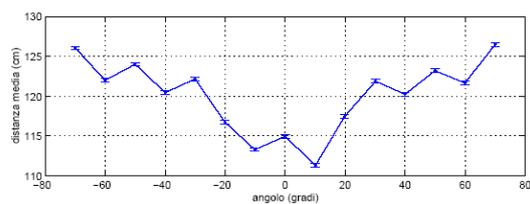


Figure 7: Measurement as a function of the incidence angle. Measurements taken with the target at fixed distance of 115 cm with the apparatus of Figure 6.

Above all influence quantities the angle of incidence plays a major role in degrading the measurement accuracy. The effect of the incidence angle over range estimation is shown in Figure 7. It is evident that uncertainties of about 200 mm can arise only because of rotation or perspective effects.

Uncertainty of range data was taken to apply a margin to the output of the Reactive Simulation.

The above characterisation is important also because laser scan data are now starting to be used for pose estimation (De Cecco, 2006).

6 REACTIVE SIMULATION

Reactive Simulation is an algorithm based on the vehicle's model which compute a simulation of the trajectory to the local target.

This is the logical scheme of interaction between modules (as it can be seen in Figure 9):

1. "Planner" chooses a local target, and vehicle moves towards it (see first frame of Figure 8a, where a simulation of obstacle avoidance is shown).
2. "Sentinel" checks environment to detect moving obstacles or something like these in robot's trajectory (in second frame of Figure 8a, on the left an obstacle detected by the Sentinel).

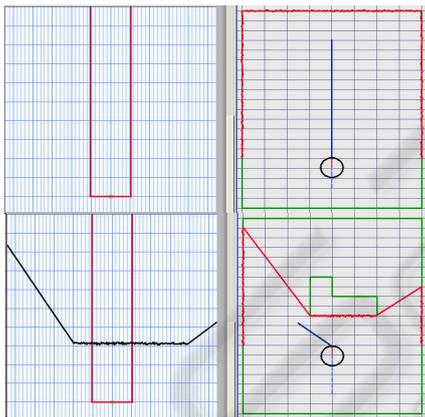


Figure 8a: Example of simulation of obstacle avoidance. On the right side is shown the trajectory of vehicle. On the left side it's shown the Sentinel, which checks a virtual corridor from the actual position of vehicle to the local target to detect any obstacle, as happens in second frame, where an obstacle suddenly appears.

3. If obstacles are detected, Sentinel alerts the Planner which find a new local target (in second frame of Figure 8a, on the right the new local target planned).
4. Then Reactive Simulation starts, simulates the trajectory to cover to reach the actual local target, and communicates to Planner if the computed trajectory crashes into some obstacles or not (see Figure 12c and 12d).

5. Finally planner decides to reach or not the local target. In the first case vehicle continues smoothly its path, otherwise it stops to avoid dangerous collision and to plan a safe path (in the first frame of Figure 8b, the vehicle continues to move towards the local target).

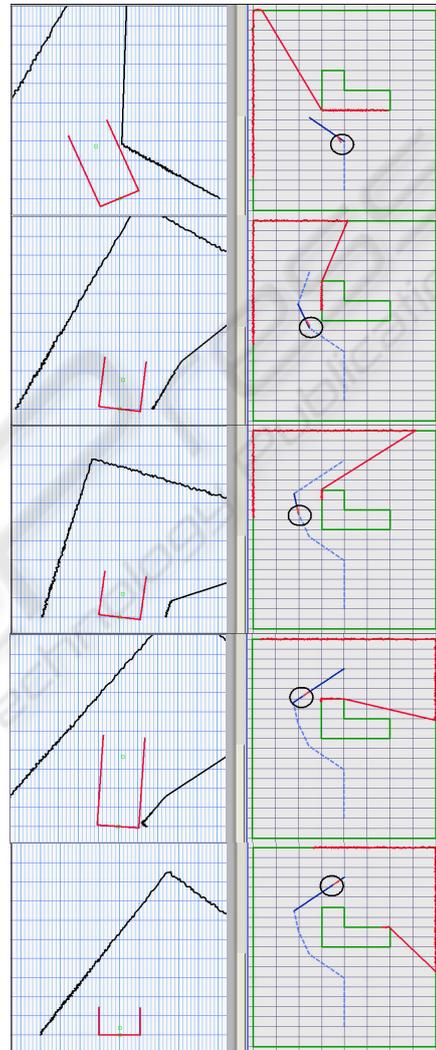


Figure 8b: Example of simulation of obstacle avoidance.

By this way, and integrating the reactive simulation with an on-line identification parameters algorithm, it could be possible to take into account variations in kinematics parameters, for example diameters of wheels, inertia of masses, etc, that could affect sensibly vehicle's motion.

A complete scheme of the Drive Module is shown in Figure 10.

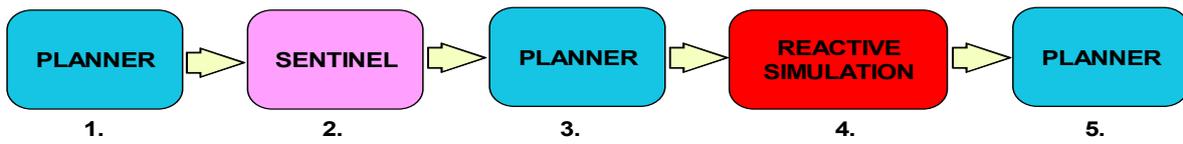


Figure 9: Logical scheme of interaction between different modules.

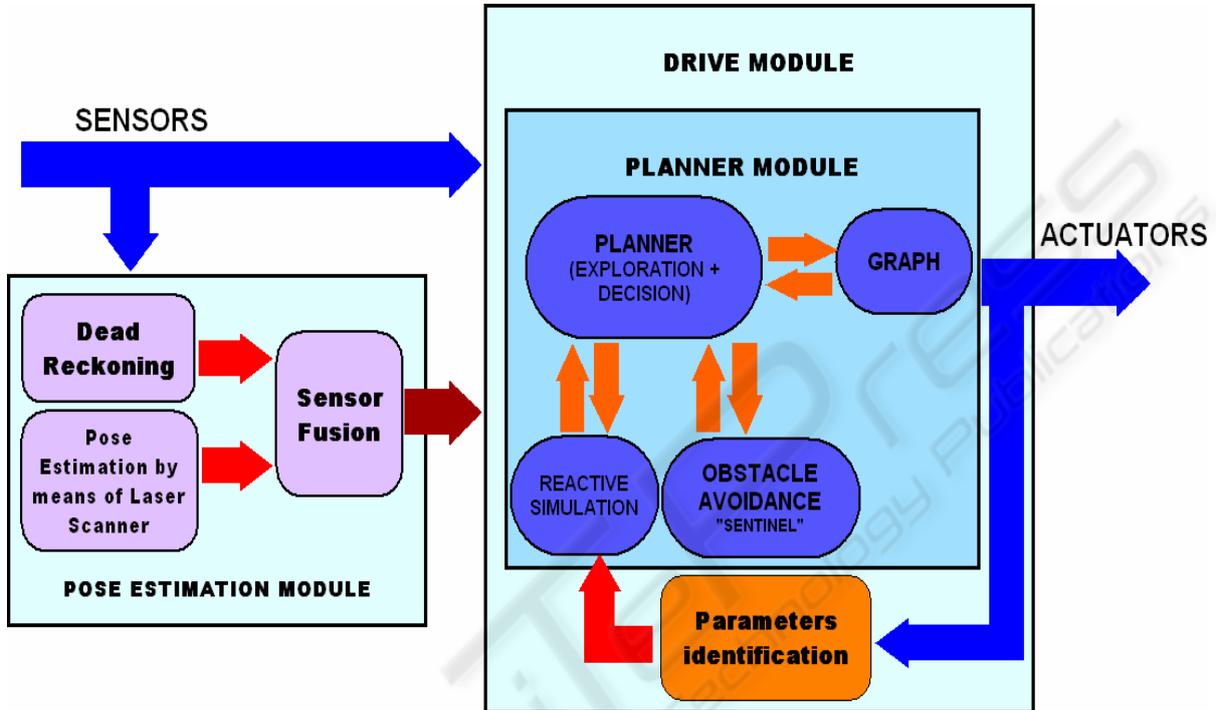


Figure 10: Complete scheme of Drive Module, and its interaction with Sensors Fusion Algorithm and on-line Parameters Identification Algorithm.

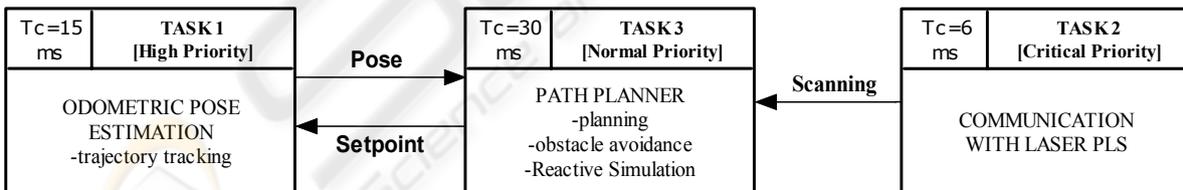


Figure 11: Scheme of the three main tasks.

7 REAL-TIME IMPLEMENTATION

Reactive Simulation has been implemented in real-time applications using the prototype of autonomous vehicle. It is equipped with a 333 MHz PXI (National Instruments) with an embedded real-time operating system (RTOS). The software has three main tasks (see Figure 11):

- TASK 1 which estimates the pose with data from odometers sensors and executes the trajectory tracking
- TASK 2 of communication with laser
- TASK 3 which makes the path planning, obstacle avoidance and Reactive Simulation.

The priority (static-priority) of the tasks was initially assigned according to rate monotonic algorithm which assign the priority of each task

according to its period, so that the shorter the period the higher the priority.

In order of priority:

- TASK 2 has a worst-case execution time of 2-3 ms (except when a scan is received), a period of 6 ms, and so has critical priority
- TASK 1 has a worst-case execution time of 4-5 ms, a period of 15 ms, and so has high priority
- TASK 3 has a worst-case execution time of 10-12 ms, a period of 30 ms, and so has normal priority.

But in this way when a scan from laser was received (every 200 ms), the TASK 2 has to make a lot of calculates utilizing CPU for about 16 ms and so getting worse the pose estimation, which is the main aspect. Therefore priority of TASK 1 is now critical, and priority of TASK 2 is high.

The Reactive Simulation algorithm is part of Planner Module (TASK 3), and so has normal priority.

8 EXPERIMENTAL VERIFICATION

The prototype used in the experiments is a differential drive robot. It has a diameter of 1.05 m, height is 0.9 m and maximum velocity is about 2.5 m/s.

Many trajectories were tested with sudden and dynamic obstacles, in which were taken into account the standard deviation of laser's scans and the linear and angular velocities of the vehicle when the scans were received to perform a safe robot motion. In fact, the trajectory is planned based on scans closer to vehicle respect to the received scans (see pink line in Figure 12c and 12d which represents the closer scan). The distance between the received scan and "the safe" one depends on actual linear and angular velocities of the vehicle.

An example of obstacle avoidance is shown in Figure 12.



Figure 12a: Example of obstacle avoidance with Reactive Simulation: the vehicle starts to move toward target.



Figure 12b: an obstacle suddenly appears.

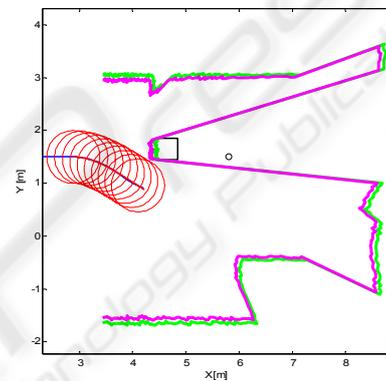


Figure 12c: a new local target was planned and Reactive Simulation computes the trajectory (the red lines). The green line is the received scan and the pink one is the calculated closer scan.

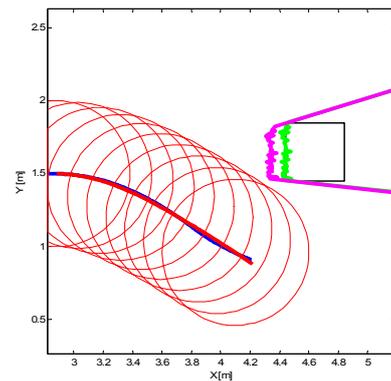


Figure 12d: a detail of Reactive Simulation where the blue line is the real trajectory made by vehicle after the Reactive Simulation.

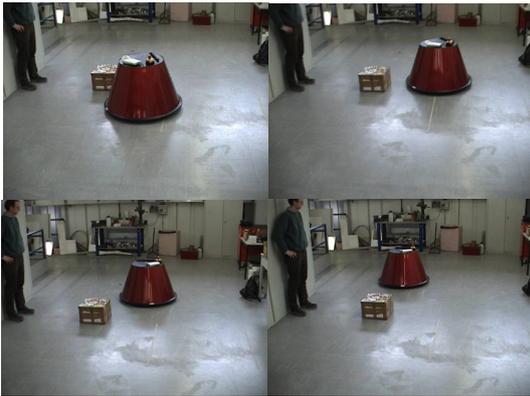


Figure 12e: safe robot motion to the target.

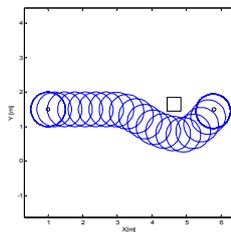


Figure 12f: entire real trajectory.

9 CONCLUSIONS

This paper presents a novel technique called “Reactive Simulation” for real-time obstacle avoidance. A vehicle’s trajectory simulation starts every time a new local target is planned due to the detection of an obstacle. It was verified that 50 ms integration step permits a fast simulation and the maximum error enters in boundaries of safe robot motion. The algorithm was successfully tested on a vehicle in real-time applications, where an important aspect is the correct execution of the tasks which have to communicate with sensors, to estimate the pose and to plan a safe path.

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