

Visual based Navigation of a Free Floating Robot by Means of a Lab Star Tracker

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Abstract: A visual based navigation for a free floating platform has been realized. The basic principle is the same as for the star trackers used in space operations for attitude determination, with the remarkable difference that also the position with respect to an inertial reference frame is evaluated. Both the working principles and the algorithms for increasing the robustness of the device will be reported. The design and realization of the prototype is illustrated. Finally, the performance of the navigation system will be tested both in a numerical environment and in a dedicated experimental setup, showing a satisfactory level of accuracy for the intended operations.

1 INTRODUCTION

The Guidance and Navigation Laboratory (GN Lab) of the University of Rome La Sapienza has focused its research activities on the orbital operations involving complex space systems, such as attitude maneuvers of a satellite characterized by large flexible appendages (Gasbarri, 2014), and autonomous rendezvous by means of a visual based relative navigation (Sabatini, 2014).

Accurate mathematical models have been developed in order to determine the performance of the proposed GNC systems, yet a number of aspects can be hardly simulated in a numerical way. For instance, the visual based navigation suffers from a number of disturbances (varying lighting condition, background clutter and so on) that usually are not included in the simulations. Also the contact dynamics between free flying bodies can be a harsh matter to handle numerically, since they are strongly dependent on the parameters chosen to describe the (very short) time intervals in which the contact actually happens. Therefore ground tests must be considered a necessary step to assess the soundness of a given operation for a complex space system. A list of possible strategies for testing on ground robotic space systems is reported in (Xu, 2011). Micro-gravity experiments can be done in a water pool with the support of neutral buoyancy. Another possibility for testing three-dimensional free-flying

systems is boarding the setup on an airplane flying along a parabolic trajectory (Menon, 2005). Micro-gravity conditions (Fujii, 1996) can be also obtained using suspension systems. A sound alternative are the hardware-in-the-loop simulation systems, in which the motion in micro-gravity environment is calculated by the mathematical model; then the mechanical model is forced to move according to the calculation (Benninghoff, 2011).

In GN Lab of La Sapienza the air-bearing table approach has been implemented, since this can be considered as one of the most powerful setup for testing space robots, with the obvious shortcomings that cannot emulate the three-dimensional motion of space robot. This system is of great interest since friction is almost eliminated, thus simulating absence of gravity for planar robots. An overview of air-bearing spacecraft simulators is provided in (Schwartz, 2003).

The developed platform has been named PINOCCHIO (Platform Integrating Navigation and Orbital Control Capabilities Hosting Intelligence Onboard). As represented in Figure 1, it consists of a 10 kg central bus, accommodating the different subsystems and the pressured air tanks. All the maneuvers of the platform are performed thanks to these on-off actuators, which supply the required forces and torques, according to the commands sent by the Central Process Unit (CPU). This 1.6GHz main processor, belonging to the class Atom Intel,

manages the communication with all the sensors and actuators, and computes the reference trajectories and the required actions to be performed.



Figure 1: The free floating platform resting on the flat granite table.

In order to perform the experiments, an accurate navigation of the free floating platform is needed. The inertial measurement unit available on board supplies the angular velocity and linear acceleration measurements, which, even if filtered and processed, can supply only a poor information about absolute attitude and position.

At the scope of increasing the performance of the navigation system, an additional device must be therefore introduced. In this paper the attention will be focused on the design and test of a low-cost navigation system able to determine the attitude and the position of the platform moving over the flat granite table, by taking inspiration from the star trackers used for satellite navigation. These sensors take an image of the surrounding star field and compares it to a database of known star positions (Sidi, 1997).

A variety of attitude estimation algorithms that can be used have been proposed, like QUEST (Shuster, 1981) and AIM (Attitude estimation using Image Matching, (Delabie, 2013)). However, differently from the orbital case, in the proposed approach the developed device, that we will call Lab Star Tracker (LST) in the following, will be used to determine not only the attitude, but also the position with respect to an initially established reference frame.

The working principle will be first introduced (Section 2), together with the algorithms required to increase the robustness of the approach, in particular with respect to the presence of “false stars” i.e. points in an image that are misinterpreted as feature to be tracked, or, inversely, “missing stars”, i.e. a reference feature that for some reason is not present in the current image. In Section 3 a simulation tool is

presented, developed at the scope of investigating the potential performance and problems.

The hardware implementation of the LST is presented in Section 4, while the experimental activities and results are reported and discussed in Section 5. Finally, Section 6 is dedicated to outline the possible future developments and the final remarks.

2 VISUAL BASED NAVIGATION FOR THE LST

2.1 Fundamentals of the Approach: Affine Transformation

Given a point in the 3D space, its image is recorded by a camera as a 2D point in the image plane. In a digital image, the point on the image corresponds to an element of an array, as in Figure 2. The coordinates of the image center in the recorded array of pixels, X_0 and Y_0 in Figure 2, must be determined by calibration (as it will be shown in Section 5).

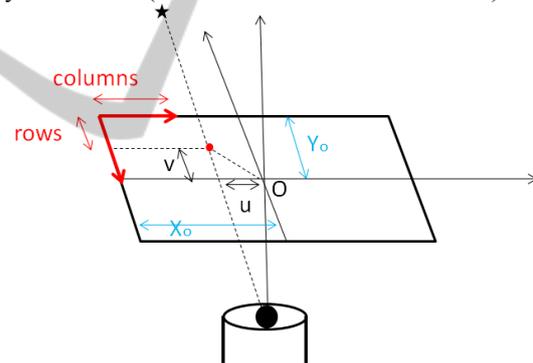


Figure 2: Coordinates of a keypoint acquired by a camera.

The algorithm adopted to determine the position and attitude is based on the hypothesis that an image acquired at a given time is related by means of an affine transformation to an image acquired at the initial time (reference image). Let us call x and y the coordinates of a keypoint (a “star”) in the reference image, and u, v the coordinates of the same keypoint in the current image. The relation between the reference and the current keypoint including scale, rotation and translation effects reads as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} s \cdot \cos \theta & -s \cdot \sin \theta \\ s \cdot \sin \theta & s \cdot \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} t_x \\ t_y \end{bmatrix} \quad (1)$$

where s is the scale factor, θ the rotation angle, and t_x, t_y the translation between the current and the

feature image. Considering all the N keypoints of the reference image that have been associated to keypoints of the current image, we can write:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \\ \dots \\ x_N \\ y_N \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 & -v_1 & 1 & 0 \\ v_1 & u_1 & 0 & 1 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ u_N & -v_N & 1 & 0 \\ v_N & u_N & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} s \cdot \cos \theta \\ s \cdot \sin \theta \\ t_x \\ t_y \end{bmatrix} \quad (2)$$

Let us rewrite Eq. (2) as:

$$\mathbf{u} = A \cdot \mathbf{c} \quad (3)$$

being \mathbf{u} the vector of keypoints of the current image, A the matrix of reference keypoints, \mathbf{c} the vector of the affine transform parameters. A least square solution $\tilde{\mathbf{c}}$ can be found by performing the pseudo-inverse (indicated by apex +) of the matrix A ,

$$\tilde{\mathbf{c}} = A^+ \mathbf{u} \quad (4)$$

Once the affine transformation parameters (i.e., θ , t_x , t_y , s) have been found, also the movement performed by the camera (relevant to the times when the reference and current images were acquired) can be evaluated. In fact θ (i.e. the rotation between the two images) clearly corresponds to the rotation of the camera; the (planar) translation of the camera in the 3D world is instead given by:

$$\begin{aligned} T_x &= f \cdot s \cdot t_x \\ T_y &= f \cdot s \cdot t_y \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

where f is the ratio between the focal length of the camera (in pixels) and the distance of the ceiling from the camera (i.e. a conversion factor to be found by calibration).

The main problems that characterize this approach are basically two: first, it is necessary to determine which point of an image is a keypoint (i.e. a “star”). Next, it is necessary to associate the corresponding keypoint in the reference image to each keypoint in the current image.

2.2 Identification of the Keypoints

At the scope of realizing a sufficient set of features, red laser beams are pointed to the ceiling. It is neither important the color of background surface (white in this case), nor it is important that other objects (a black cross in Figure 3) are in the camera field of view. In fact, the laser footprints are so bright that they result in a saturated point (close to a perfect white) when acquired by the camera. The

image is therefore processed in order to determine the mean value of the image array. A threshold is selected so that only the pixels above the mean value multiplied by the threshold are considered as features. The threshold is dynamically adjusted at the beginning of the maneuver in order to have a proper acquisition of the reference image, in which the known number of features must be present.

As a result, the processed image in Figure 4 is obtained.



Figure 3: Image acquired by the LST, including the keypoints and background clutter (black cross).

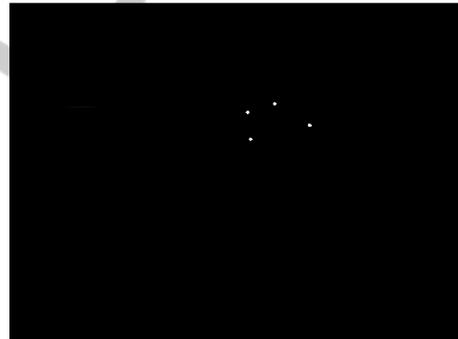


Figure 4: Keypoints resulting from the processing of the acquired image.

2.3 Matching the Keypoints in Tracking Mode

Space star trackers usually operate in two different modes (Liebe, 2002). The first of them is the initial attitude acquisition. Once an initial attitude has been acquired, the star tracker switches to the tracking mode. In this second mode, where the star tracker has a priori knowledge, the database search can be limited, allowing fast and accurate attitude estimation. The LST developed for the planar attitude and position determination is programmed to work in a similar case.

First the initial image is acquired and stored as a reference image. It is difficult however to match a feature acquired in a different position and attitude to the corresponding feature in the reference image. In fact, the set of currently acquired keypoints (vector \mathbf{u} in Eq. (3)) could be ordered in a different way with respect to the reference keypoints (in matrix A of Eq. (3)). Before performing the evaluation of the affine transformation parameters in Eq. (4), the current keypoint set must be reordered. Differently from more advanced (but computationally intensive) visual based methods, such as SIFT or SURF (Lowe, 2004) the “star” features are not characterized by identifiers, but simply by their coordinates in the image plane. Therefore it is not possible to discern between one star and another one.

The approach proposed in this paper is therefore to switch to a tracking mode where at each time step t_k the current set of features is reordered by means of a selection process based on the minimum Euclidean distance between the keypoints belonging to the current image and to the image acquired at the previous time step t_{k-1} . The hypothesis is in fact that if the two images are taken at two very close time steps (compared to the actual speed of the camera), the corresponding features will be very close in the two images – a hypothesis that is not true if at a generic t_k the keypoints are compared to the reference image (acquired in t_0).

The reordered set of features is then saved to serve as a benchmark at the following time t_{k+1} . In this way the keypoints order as extracted from the reference image is propagated over time.

Once reordered, the current set of keypoints can be compared with the reference set in order to solve the problem in Eq. (4) for evaluating the affine transformation parameters.

2.4 Dealing with False Stars

The approach described in the previous paragraph manages to keep track of the movement of the stars from the reference (initial) image to the currently acquired image. However, a number of false features could be present, corresponding to points in an image that are misinterpreted as feature to be tracked, or, inversely, “missing stars”, i.e. a reference feature that for some reason is not present in the current image. For example one of the laser footprints could exit from the camera field of view, or an incorrect tuning of the thresholds could lead to

identify as keypoints some bright points of the background.

In these cases the number of currently acquired keypoints is different from the number of reference keypoints, and Eq. (4) cannot be solved. The robustness of the algorithm has been increased by implementing the following algorithm:

```

find the features (brightest points)

    if (number of features now) equal to
    or greater than (number of reference
    features):
        Discard the keypoints with larger
        distance from the reference
        keypoints
    else:
        Substitute the missing keypoint
        with the corresponding one
        recorded at the previous time
        step.
    
```

The replacement of a keypoint with a previously acquired keypoint decreases the accuracy of the algorithm, but this detrimental effect is lesser as the number of keypoints increases.

3 SIMULATION

The image processing, the algorithms for the keypoint acquisition and reordering, the procedure for false keypoints rejection, and finally the attitude and position computation are firstly tested by means of a software tool. A virtual set of features have been modeled on a 640x480 array, taking the characteristics of a really acquired image into account. The “star” features are of different and time varying shapes, as it is possible to see from Figure 5. Moreover, for certain time intervals some of the keypoints are artificially removed, and in some other

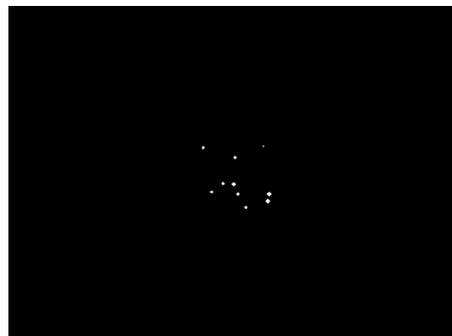


Figure 5: Numerical model for the simulation of the acquired keypoints.

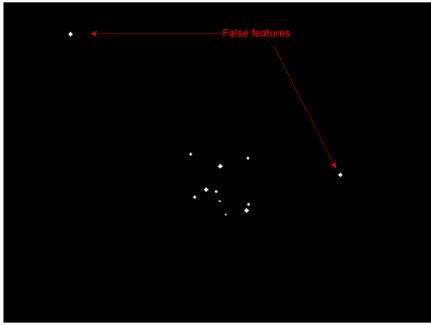


Figure 6: The software tool introduces varying brightness of the keypoints, false keypoints and missing keypoints.

intervals false features are added, while applying a translation and a rotation transformation to the reference image (see Figure 6).

In details, a rotation of 0.25 deg per unit time step (dimensionless in the simulation) has been imposed, together with a translation in the X-component. Figure 7 reports the simulated true attitude behavior and the behavior of the rotation as evaluated by means of Eq. (4) (upper subplot). The error (lower subplot of Figure 7) is in the range of ± 0.5 deg.

Regarding the computation of the translation, Figure 8 reports the simulated true and the simulated measured translation. The error in this case is measured in pixels, and in the range of approximatively ± 2 pixels.

The errors do not show any peak or sharp variation when a feature is removed (from $t = 15$ to $t = 30$) or when two false features are introduced (from $t = 45$ to $t = 60$).

These results are quite promising and they could be also improved by increasing the image resolution or by using a larger number of features. For example, passing from two features (bare minimum

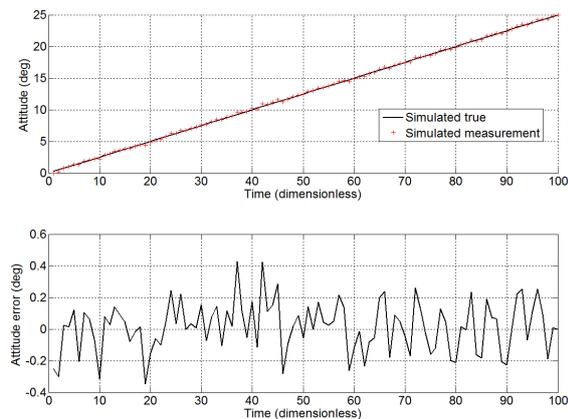


Figure 7: Attitude behaviour (upper subplot) and attitude error (lower subplot) in the simulated motion.

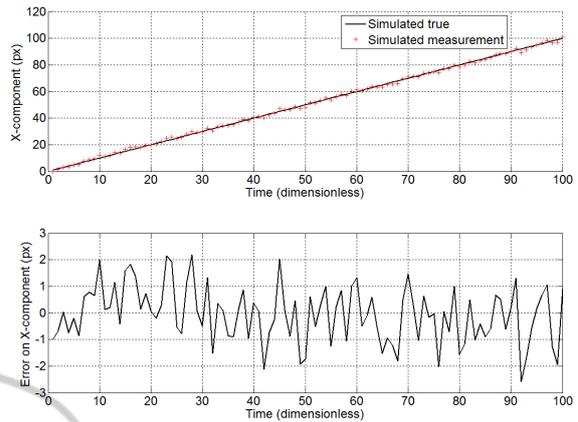


Figure 8: X-component behaviour (upper subplot) and X-component error (lower subplot) in the simulated motion.

to solve Eq. (4), not allowing for any false feature acquisition) to ten features means an improvement of the attitude error from 0.41 deg (standard deviation) to 0.12 deg, respectively.

4 DESIGN AND REALIZATION OF THE LST

The LST has been designed to be an autonomous device supplying position and attitude measurements at the CPU query. At the scope, a Raspberry Pi microprocessor has been selected for the image acquisition and processing, since the required algorithms are so simple that even with the limited computational power of this board it is possible to obtain a reasonable sampling time (5 Hz in the experiments, with large margins for improvements). A case has been realized with PLA plastic, following the design in Figure 9. Different top elements have been realized to accommodate a number of different cameras; as an example, in Figure 10 the cases of a Pi Camera Module (upper subplot) and a Microsoft LifeCam HD Cinema (lower subplot) are depicted. The former camera offers a compact stowing, while the second one has a better optics and autofocus

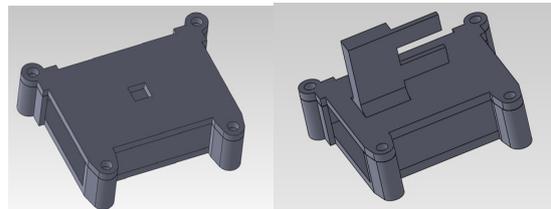


Figure 9: CAD design of the LST case for two possible cameras, a Pi Camera Module (left) and a Microsoft LifeCam (right).

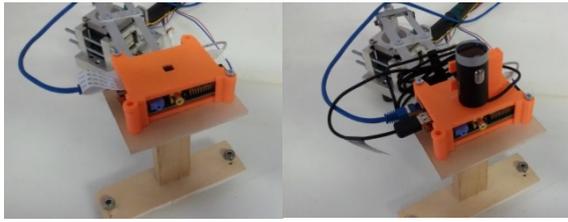


Figure 10: Actual realization of the LST with a Pi Camera Module (left) and a Microsoft LifeCam (right).

capabilities. All the experiments have been performed with the Pi Camera Module mounted.

The Raspberry Pi board has been programmed via Matlab/Simulink. The C-code required to run on the Linux release (Raspian) installed on the microprocessor is automatically generated and downloaded to the board. As shown in Figure 11, the communication between the main processor (a Desktop PC in this case, the free floating CPU in the experiments involving the simulation of space-like maneuvers) happens via UDP protocol; in the current version a LAN cable is used, but in future development a Wi-Fi communication will substitute the physical link.

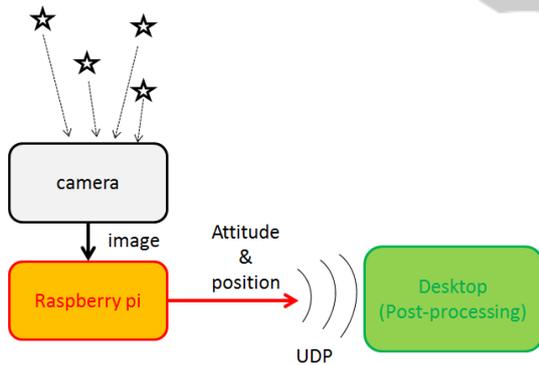


Figure 11: Data flow and software architecture for the LST.

5 TESTS

For testing the LST, a two links planar manipulator has been used, as shown in Figure 12. The movements of its links are recorded by a shoulder and an elbow encoder, with a resolution of 0.0003 deg and 0.0045 deg, respectively. This accuracy is by far greater than the one expected from the simulations reported in Section 4, and they will be taken as the benchmark values for assessing the LST performance. Four laser beams are used to create the features on the lab ceiling.

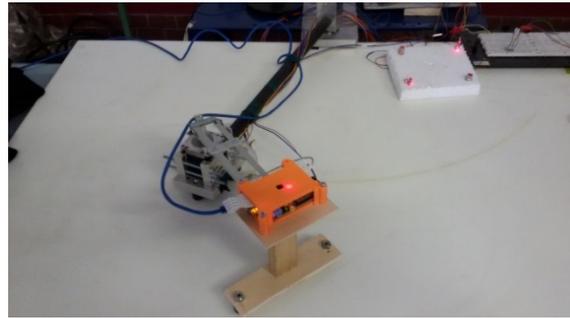


Figure 12: The planar two-links manipulator used to move the LST along predetermined paths.

5.1 Pure Rotation

As a first test, the LST is attached to the shoulder joint. In this way, a pure rotation is assigned to the system. A sequence of ramps from 0 deg to 60 deg (and back) are assigned. The rotation is measured by the shoulder encoder (benchmark value) and by the LST. Figure 13 reports the two values (upper subplot) and the difference between them (lower subplot). The error is slightly higher than the one expected from simulation. In fact the standard deviation of the attitude error with four features is 0.23 deg in a simulation, while it is 0.6 in the experiment. This difference was expected, since the visual navigation suffers from a number of disturbances (varying light conditions, background clutter and so on) which can be hardly modeled in a simulation environment.

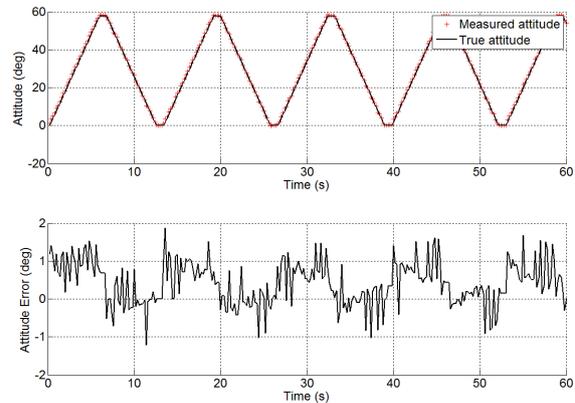


Figure 13: Attitude behaviour (upper subplot) and attitude error (lower subplot) for the experiment involving pure rotation.

This experiment has been also used for a calibration of the camera. In fact, as explained in Section 2, in a camera the image center does not coincide with the center of the array; referring back to Figure 2, this means that in a 640x480 image, the

coordinates of the point O are not necessarily 320x240. This fact has an important effect when the measurements of the translation must be evaluated. When a pure rotation is imposed to the LST, the evaluation of the affine transformation parameters for a non-calibrated camera will result in a rotation (correctly computed) plus a residual translation. A simple calibration has been therefore performed (a more complete one could be found in (Zhang, 2002)) by acquiring the keypoints once, and then post-processing them with a number of different values of the possible center coordinates. For each tentative center the maximum value of the norm of the residual translation is recorded. The coordinates of the center that allow for a minimum – ideally zero – norm of the translation (see Figure 14) is the real image center.

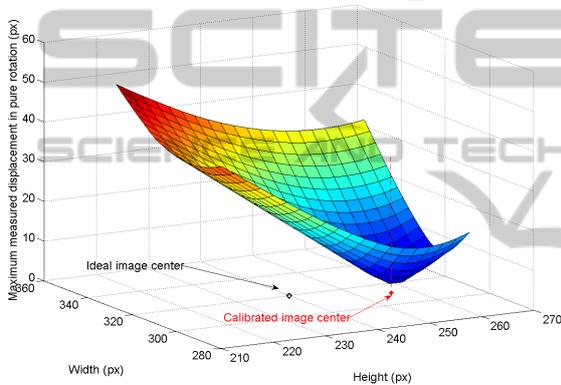


Figure 14: Result of the procedure to determine the image centre by means of a calibration procedure.

5.2 Translation and Rotation

The final experiment consists in a coupled rotation and translation of the LST device. At the scope, it is placed at the end of the second link, which is moved along a circular trajectory by moving the elbow motor between +160 deg and -160 deg. The true and measured trajectories are reported in Figure 15, where the selected reference frame is coincident with a reference frame attached to the camera at the initial time.

The attitude behaviour is not reported, since the accuracy is of the same order as in the pure rotation experiment. The X and Y translation (in the real world) are plotted in Figure 16 and Figure 17, respectively. From the upper subplot of the two figures it is possible to compare the true and measured components of the translation. The lower subplots report the errors. The standard deviation is 0.4 cm for X component and 0.57 cm for the Y component, while the maximum errors (absolute

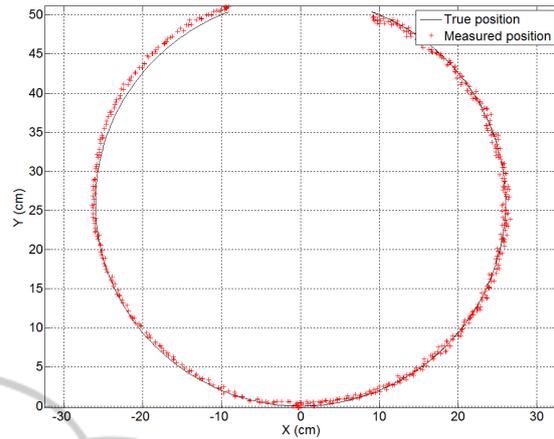


Figure 15: True and measured trajectory.

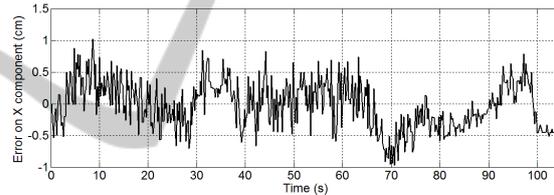
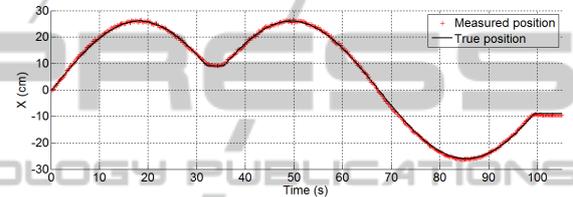


Figure 16: X-component behaviour (upper subplot) and X-component error (lower subplot) in the experiment.

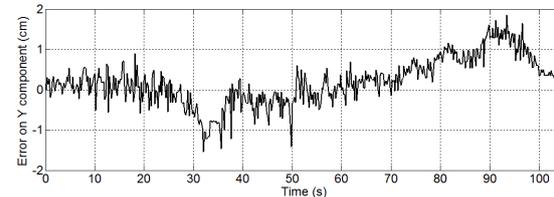
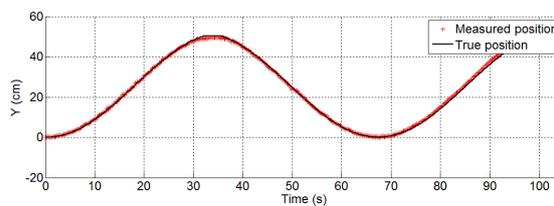


Figure 17: Y-component behaviour (upper subplot) and Y-component error (lower subplot) in the experiment.

value) are 1.0 cm for the X component and 1.8 cm for the Y component. Even though the device is currently under development, these values are quite promising and could allow an accurate and safe

navigation for a large number of space experiments, taking into account the possibility to implement data fusion algorithms including the inertial measurements.

6 CONCLUSIONS

A device has been developed for the navigation of a free floating platform, dedicated to experiments involving space operations. The device has been named Lab Star Tracker (LST) since, like a space star tracker, it uses a set of features acquired by means of a camera in order to determine its attitude. Differently from the space star trackers, also the position with respect to an inertial frame can be determined. The working principles at the basis of the LST have been reported, together with the algorithms that are required to make the system robust with respect to false acquisitions and missed acquisitions. The performance of the system has been first simulated by means of a dedicated software tool which reproduces the image of the features, and then tested by means of an experimental setup. A planar two-links manipulator has been used to move the LST along known trajectories. The LST measurements have been compared with the true trajectory, and the performance in terms of attitude and position accuracy have been established. In details, an error below 1deg and 1cm have been found for attitude and position, which is a level of accuracy that can be satisfactory for a large number of operational scenarios. Future developments of the LST will consist in adding a Wi-Fi link, and increasing the image resolution up to high definition levels, maintaining an acceptable sample time. Finally, the influence of the keypoints distribution should be studied, in order to find optimal “constellations” that allow for a minimization of the navigation error.

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