



# Wheeled mobile robots

Description, Kinematics, Modeling, Planning



**TECHNICAL  
UNIVERSITY**  
OF CLUJ-NAPOCA  
ROMANIA

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# Agenda

- Types of wheels and wheeled robots
- Moving around
- Kinematics, modeling
- Navigation, planning



# Why wheeled robots?

Why wheeled robots are useful?  
Provide some examples of applications



# Wheels

## Types of wheels



# Wheels

## Types of wheels

- Fixed wheel



# Wheels

## Types of wheels

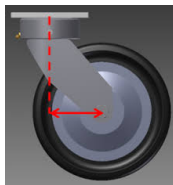
- Fixed wheel
- Centered wheel



# Wheels

## Types of wheels

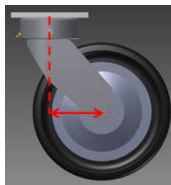
- Fixed wheel
- Centered wheel
- Off-centered wheel



# Wheels

## Types of wheels

- Fixed wheel
- Centered wheel
- Off-centered wheel
- Swedish wheel





# Wheeled robots

## Wheel configuration

Wheeled robots are categorized based on the type of wheels and configurations that they use.

- By-wheel
- Tricycle
- Four wheel
- Omnidirectional
- etc. etc.



# Wheeled robots

## Instantaneous center of rotation

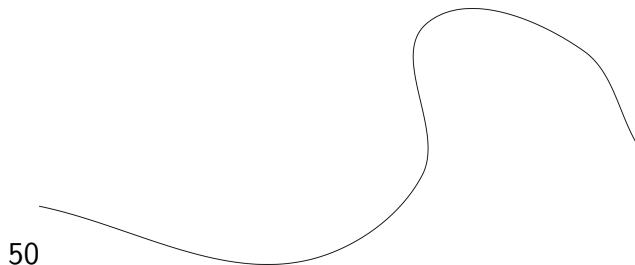
Every motion can be modeled as a rotation around a point. For a circular motion, this point is fixed, but for a more complex motion it is constantly moving.



# Wheeled robots

## Instantaneous center of rotation

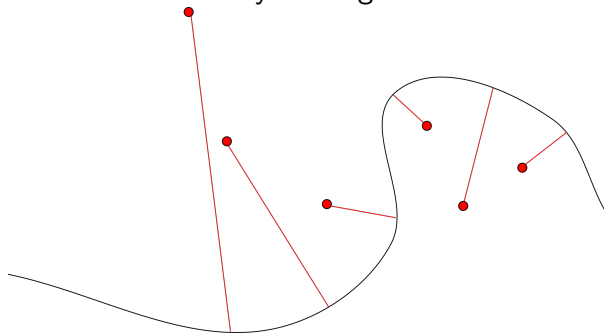
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# Wheeled robots

## Instantaneous center of rotation

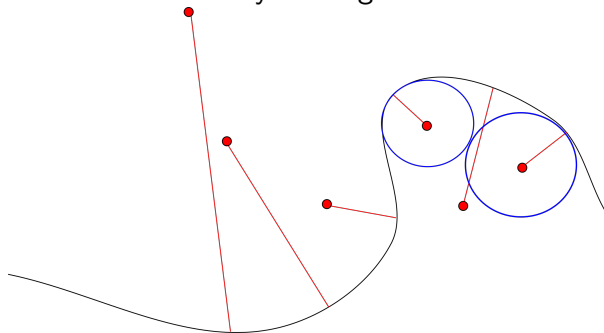
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# Wheeled robots

## Instantaneous center of rotation

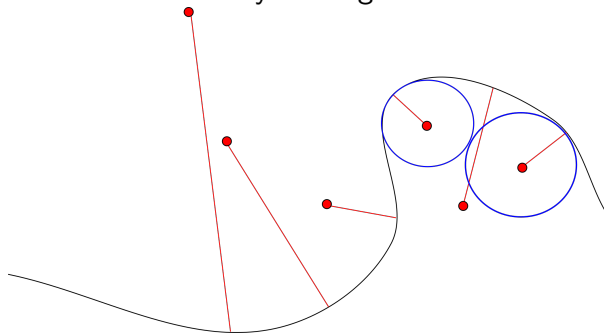
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# Wheeled robots

## Instantaneous center of rotation

Every motion can be modeled as a rotation around a point. For a circular motion, this point is fixed, but for a more complex motion it is constantly moving.



Where is the ICR for straight motion?



# Wheeled robots

## Differential drive

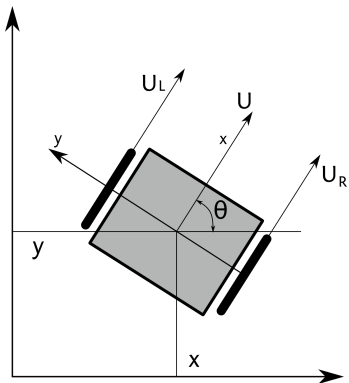
The differential drive is implemented:

- Two driving wheels
- Each can rotate independently
- Need for a third balancing point (usually a roller-ball)
- Sensitive to relative velocity of the two wheels



# Differential drive

## Kinematics modeling

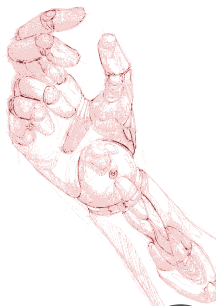


Posture of the robot

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

Control input

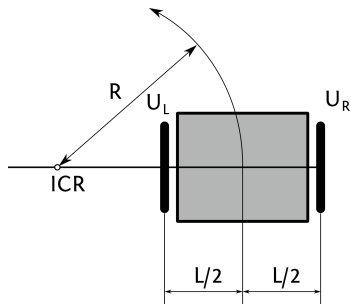
$$U = \begin{bmatrix} u \\ \omega \end{bmatrix}$$





# Differential drive

## Kinematics modeling



Definitions:

$U_R(t)$ : Linear velocity of the right wheel

$U_L(t)$ : Linear velocity of the left wheel

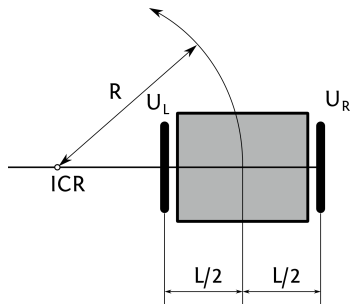
$r$ : nominal radius of each wheel

$R$ : Instantaneous Curvature Radius



# Differential drive

## Kinematics modeling



Definitions:

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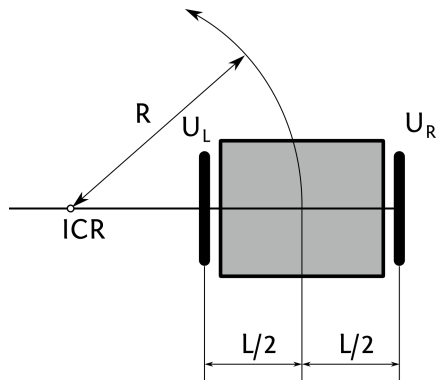
$r$ : nominal radius of each wheel

$R$ : Instantaneous Curvature Radius

If we want to follow a specific trajectory (i.e. a specific  $R$ ), the wheels must move in such rate so they rotate around the ICR with the same angular velocity

# Differential drive

## Kinematics modeling



$$U_R = \omega(R + \frac{L}{2})$$

$$U_L = \omega(R - \frac{L}{2})$$

Where:

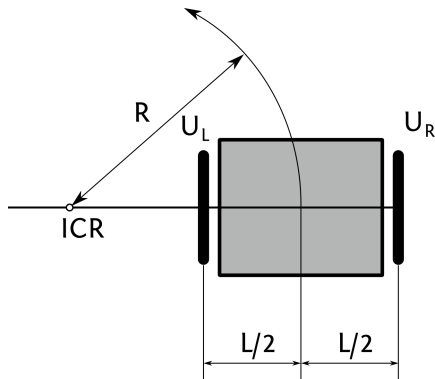
$$U_L = r\omega_L$$

$$U_R = r\omega_R$$



# Differential drive

## Kinematics modeling



$$U_R = \omega(R + \frac{L}{2})$$

$$U_L = \omega(R - \frac{L}{2})$$

Where:

$$U_L = r\omega_L$$

$$U_R = r\omega_R$$

We can also observe:

$$\omega = \frac{U_R - U_L}{L}$$

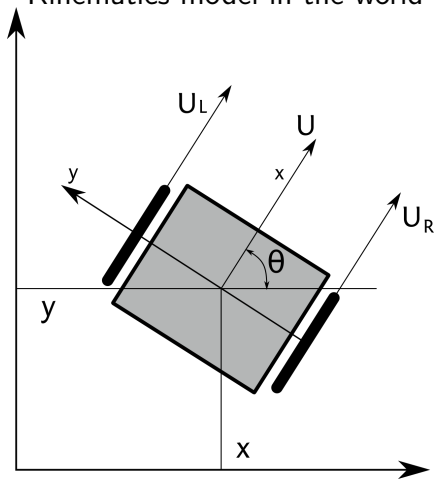
$$u = \frac{U_R + U_L}{2}$$



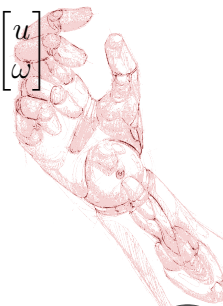
# Differential drive

## Kinematics modeling

Kinematics model in the world frame



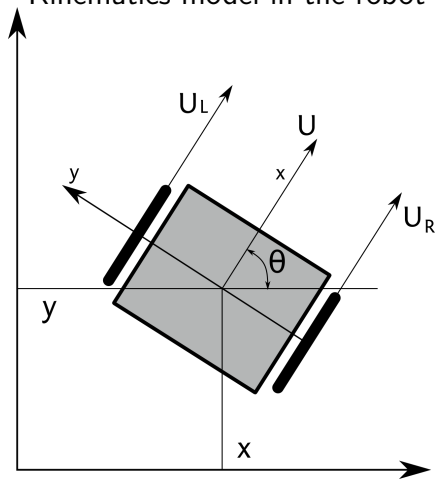
$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{y} \\ \dot{\theta} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & 0 \\ \sin\theta & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u \\ \omega \end{bmatrix}$$



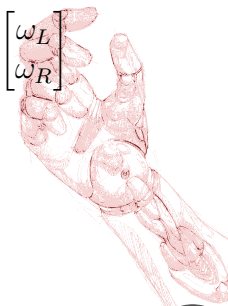
# Differential drive

## Kinematics modeling

Kinematics model in the robot frame



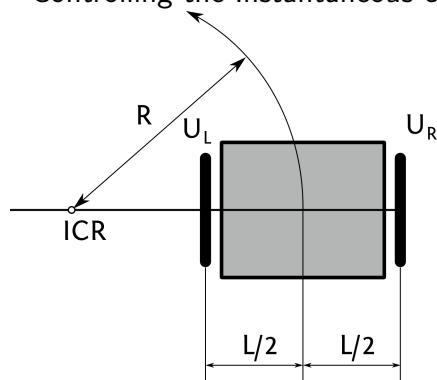
$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{y} \\ \dot{\theta} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} r & r \\ 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{r}{L} & \frac{r}{L} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \omega_L \\ \omega_R \end{bmatrix}$$



# Differential drive

## Kinematics modeling

Controlling the Instantaneous center of rotation



From:

$$U_R = \omega \left( R + \frac{L}{2} \right)$$

$$U_L = \omega \left( R - \frac{L}{2} \right)$$

we can obtain:

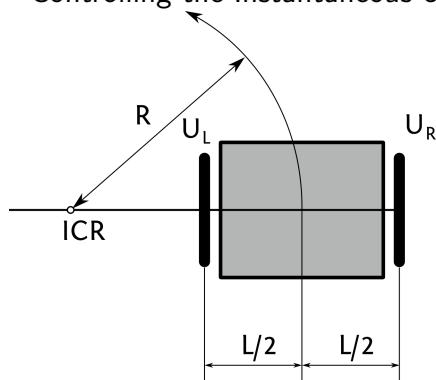
$$R = \frac{L U_R + U_L}{2 U_R - U_L}$$



# Differential drive

## Kinematics modeling

Controlling the Instantaneous center of rotation



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$$U_R = \omega(R + \frac{L}{2})$$

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What happens when  $U_R = U_L$  or  $U_R = -U_L$ ?



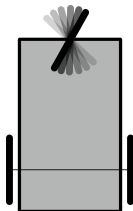


# Tricycle

## Description

A wheeled robot with three wheels:

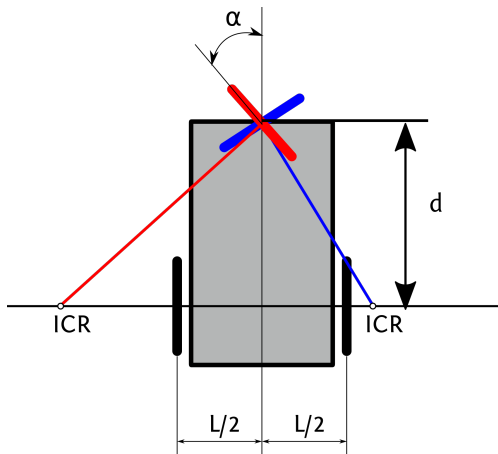
- Two fixed wheels with the same axis
- They two wheels can move independently
- One wheel that steers and pushes the robot
- The third wheel is usually between the other two with an offset



# Tricycle

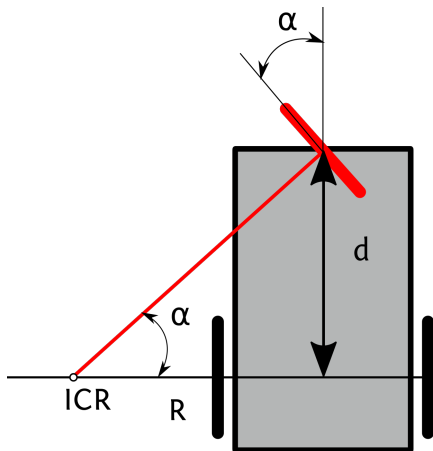
## Kinematics

We control the location of the ICR by changing the steering angle  $\alpha$ , and the velocity, by changing the wheel velocity  $\omega$



# Tricycle

## Kinematics model

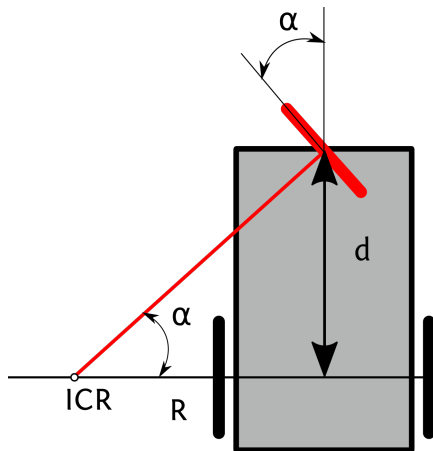


If  $r$  is the steering wheel radius, then:



# Tricycle

## Kinematics model



If  $r$  is the steering wheel radius, then:

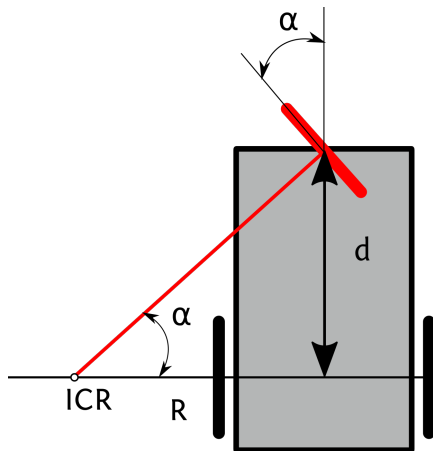
$$u_s = \omega r$$

$$R(t) = d * \tan\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \alpha(t)\right)$$



# Tricycle

## Kinematics model



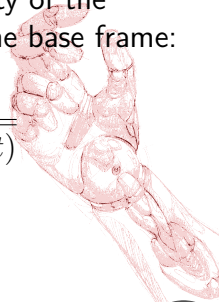
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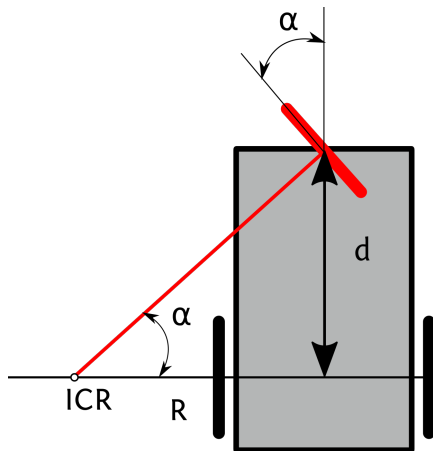
The angular velocity of the robot relative to the base frame:

$$\dot{\theta}(t) = \frac{u_s(t)}{\sqrt{d^2 + R^2(t)}}$$



# Tricycle

## Kinematics model



If  $r$  is the steering wheel radius, then:

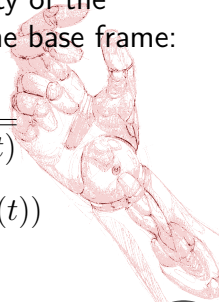
$$u_s = \omega r$$

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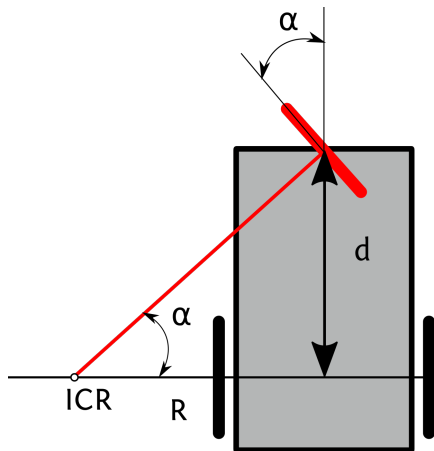
$$\dot{\theta}(t) = \frac{u_s(t)}{d} \sin(\alpha(t))$$



# Tricycle

## Kinematics model

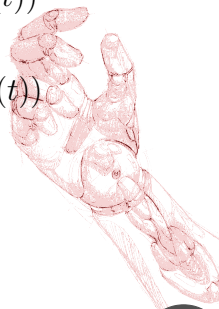
Kinematics model in the robot body frame:



$$\dot{x}(t) = u_s(t) \cos(\alpha(t))$$

$$\dot{y}(t) = 0$$

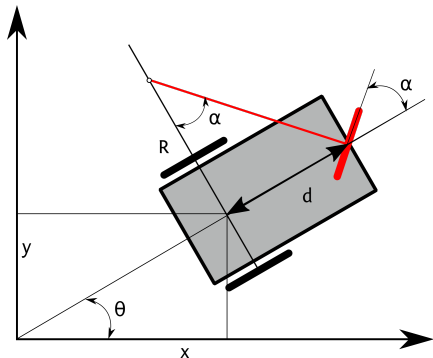
$$\dot{\theta}(t) = \frac{u_s(t)}{d} \sin(\alpha(t))$$



# Tricycle

## Kinematics model

Kinematics model in the world body frame:



$$\dot{x} = u_s \cos(\alpha(t)) \cos(\theta(t))$$

$$\dot{y} = u_s \cos(\alpha(t)) \sin(\theta(t))$$

$$\dot{\theta}(t) = \frac{u_s(t)}{d} \sin(\alpha(t))$$

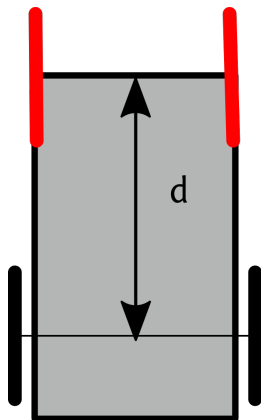




# Four wheels

## Description

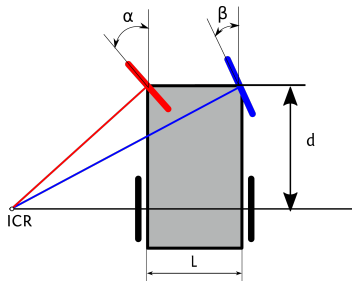
Another type of wheeled robot, is with four wheels. The two front are transmitting the power and are steered, while the back ones are fixed wheels



# Four wheels

## Ackerman drive

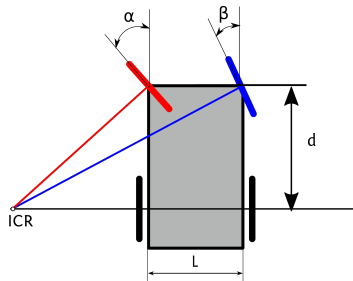
For this to work, the steering of the two wheels must be coordinated:



# Four wheels

## Ackerman drive

For this to work, the steering of the two wheels must be coordinated:

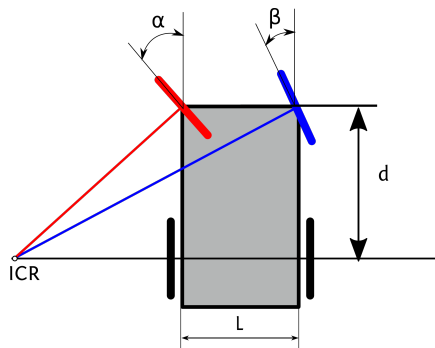


$\alpha > \beta$ : when turning left  
 $\beta > \alpha$ : when turning right



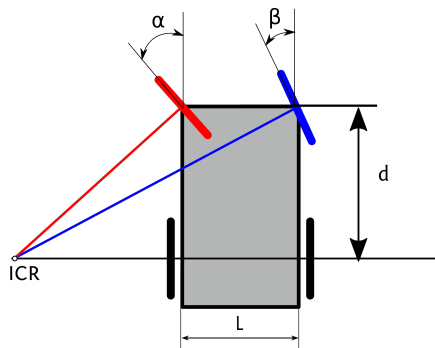
# Four wheels

## Ackerman drive



# Four wheels

Ackerman drive

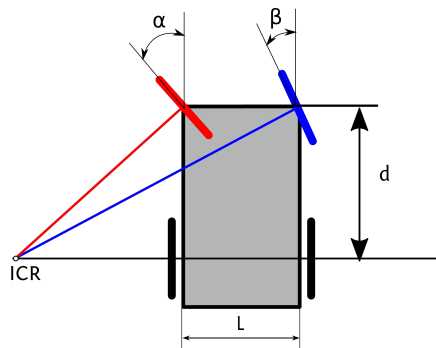


$$\cot(\alpha) = \frac{R - \frac{L}{2}}{d}$$
$$\cot(\beta) = \frac{R + \frac{L}{2}}{d}$$



# Four wheels

Ackerman drive



$$\cot(\alpha) = \frac{R - \frac{L}{2}}{d}$$
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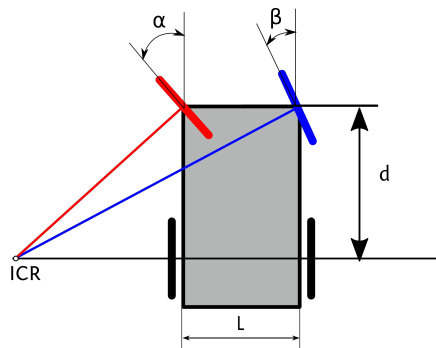
Therefore:

$$\cot(\beta) - \cot(\alpha) = \frac{L}{d}$$



# Four wheels

Ackerman drive



$$\cot(\alpha) = \frac{R - \frac{L}{2}}{d}$$
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Therefore:

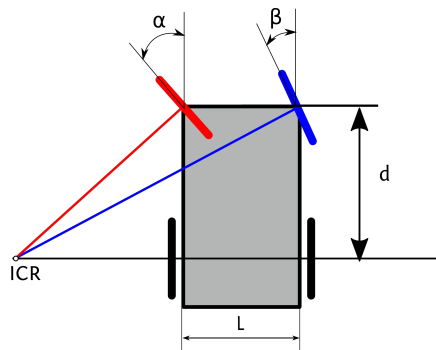
$$\cot(\beta) - \cot(\alpha) = \frac{L}{d}$$

What happens when  $\alpha = \beta = 0$ ?



# Four wheels

Ackerman drive



$$\cot(\alpha) = \frac{R - \frac{L}{2}}{d}$$
$$\cot(\beta) = \frac{R + \frac{L}{2}}{d}$$

Therefore:

$$\cot(\beta) - \cot(\alpha) = \frac{L}{d}$$

What happens when  $\alpha = \beta = 0$ ?

What is the relationship between angular velocities  $\omega_L$  and  $\omega_R$ ?

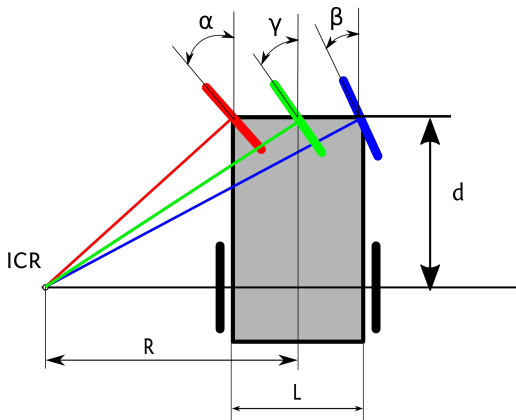




# Four wheels

## Ackerman and tricycle

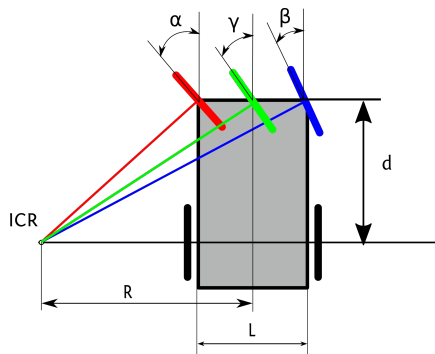
We can describe the ackerman drive kinematics, the same way as for the tricycle, if we consider a virtual fifth wheel between the two front ones



# Four wheels

## Ackerman drive

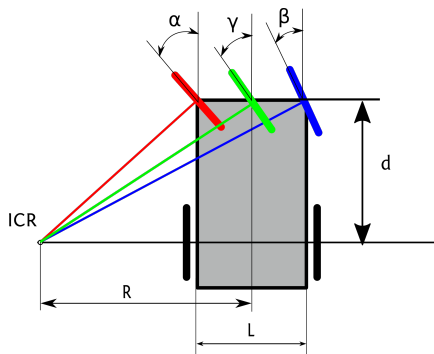
We can easily calculate the equivalent virtual angle  $\gamma$



# Four wheels

## Ackerman drive

We can easily calculate the equivalent virtual angle  $\gamma$



$$\cot(\gamma) = \cot(\alpha) + \frac{L}{2d}$$

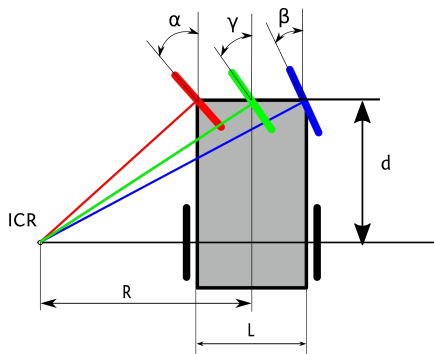
$$\cot(\gamma) = \cot(\beta) - \frac{L}{2d}$$



# Four wheels

## Ackerman drive

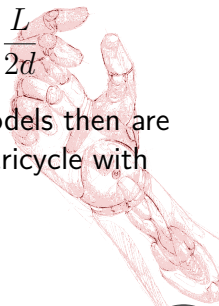
We can easily calculate the equivalent virtual angle  $\gamma$



$$\cot(\gamma) = \cot(\alpha) + \frac{L}{2d}$$

$$\cot(\gamma) = \cot(\beta) - \frac{L}{2d}$$

The kinematics models then are the same as for a tricycle with steering angle  $\gamma$



# Mobile robots

## Motion planning

Why we need planning?



# Mobile robots

## Motion planning

Why we need planning?

- The world is full of obstacles



# Mobile robots

## Motion planning

Why we need planning?

- The world is full of obstacles
- We want to find the most efficient way

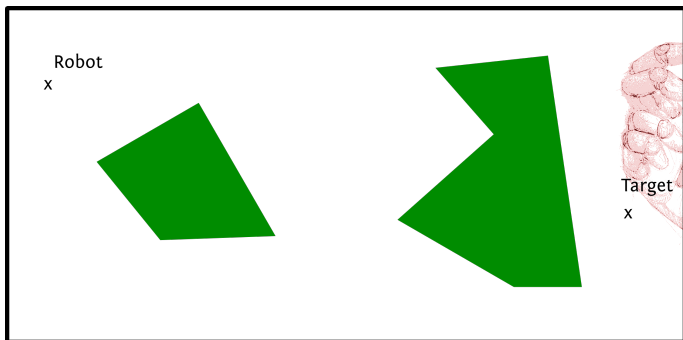


# Mobile robots

## Motion planning

Why we need planning?

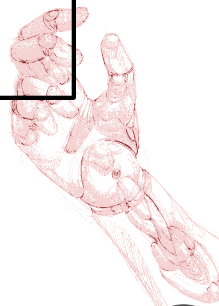
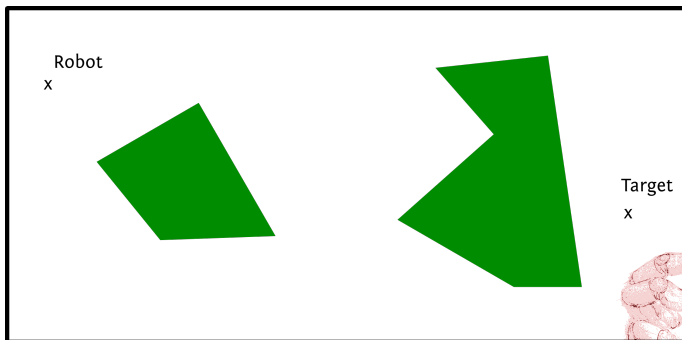
- The world is full of obstacles
- We want to find the most efficient way





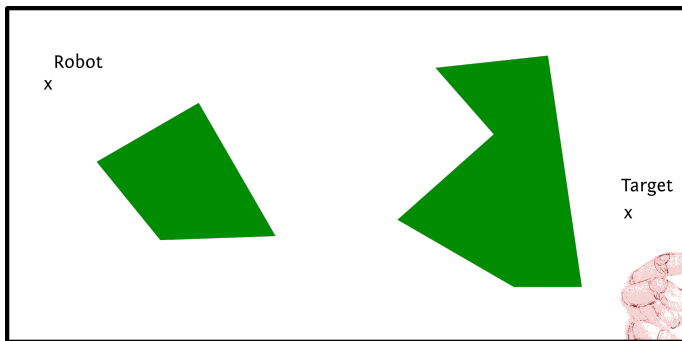
# Mobile robots

## Motion planning



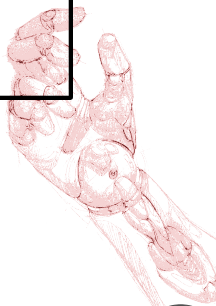
# Mobile robots

## Motion planning



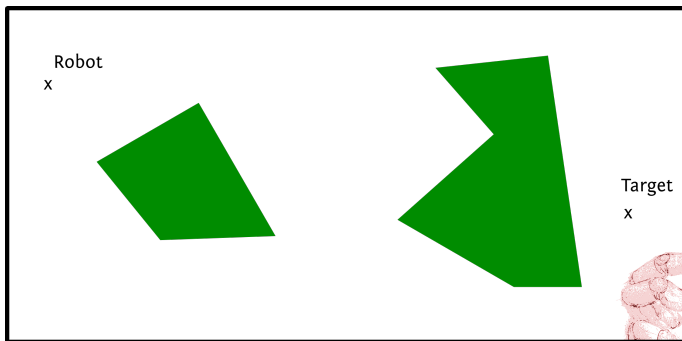
### Input

- Geometric description of robot
- Geometric description of the environment
- Initial position and goal



# Mobile robots

## Motion planning



### Input

- Geometric description of robot
- Geometric description of the environment
- Initial position and goal

### Output

A path from the initial position until the goal

# Mobile robots

## Motion planning methods



# Mobile robots

## Motion planning methods

### **Roadmap approaches:**

Reduce all the possible paths to a subset of them



# Mobile robots

## Motion planning methods

### **Roadmap approaches:**

Reduce all the possible paths to a subset of them

### **Cell decomposition:**

Account for all of the free space



# Mobile robots

## Motion planning methods

### **Roadmap approaches:**

Reduce all the possible paths to a subset of them

### **Potential fields:**

Local control strategies, optimality

### **Cell decomposition:**

Account for all of the free space



# Mobile robots

## Motion planning methods

### **Roadmap approaches:**

Reduce all the possible paths to a subset of them

### **Potential fields:**

Local control strategies, optimality

### **Cell decomposition:**

Account for all of the free space

### **Bug algorithms:**

Limited knowledge of environment

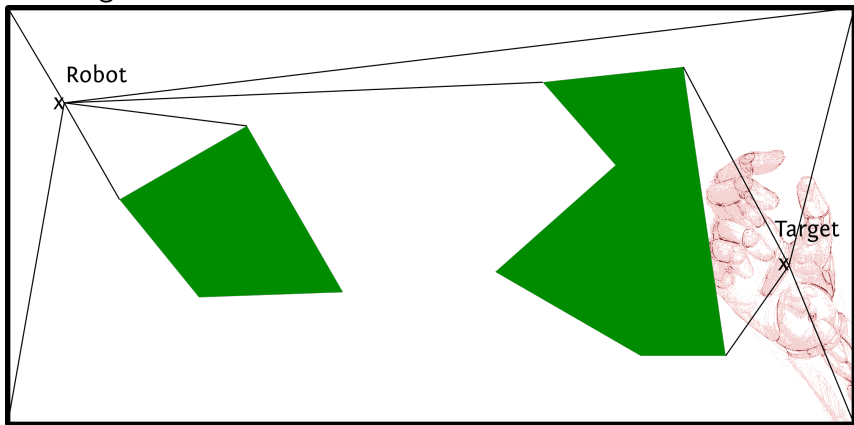




# Motion planning

## Roadmap approaches

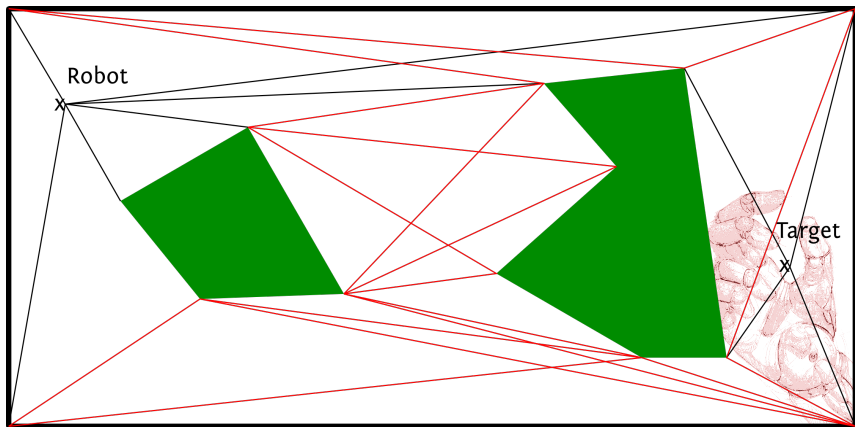
We construct by drawing lines of 'sight' from the initial position and target to all their 'visible' vertices.



# Motion planning

## Roadmap approaches

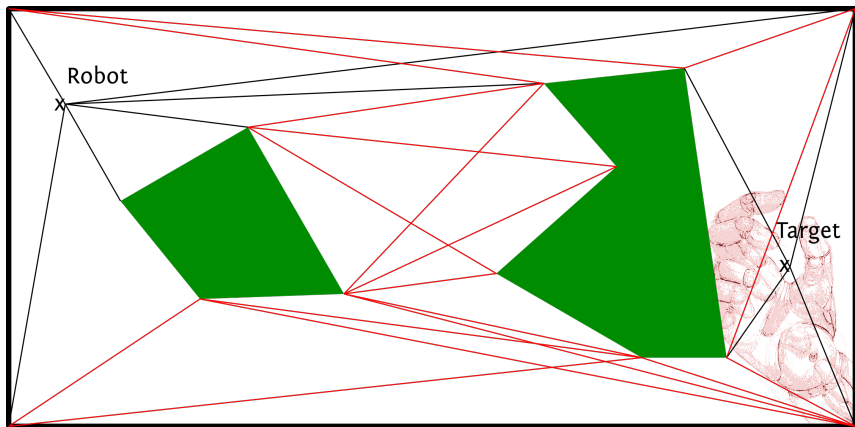
We then do the same for all vertices



# Motion planning

## Roadmap approaches

We then do the same for all vertices



These are the possible paths for our robot. By searching, we can find the shortest ones.

# Motion planning

## Roadmap approaches

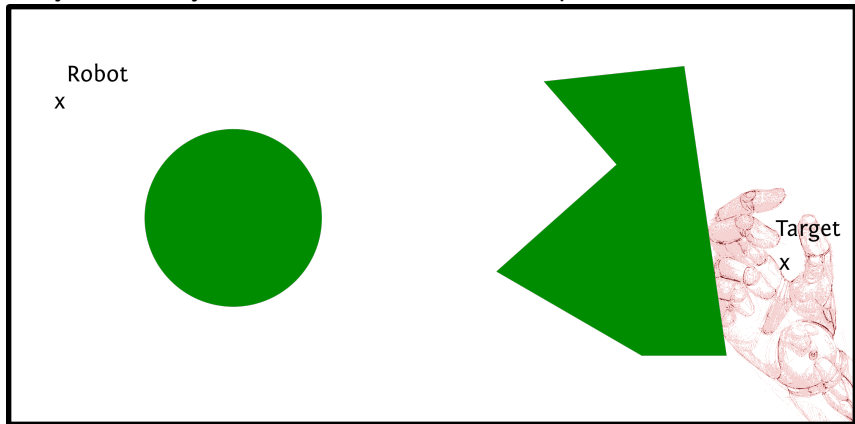
Do you see any drawback with this technique?



# Motion planning

## Roadmap approaches

Do you see any drawback with this technique?

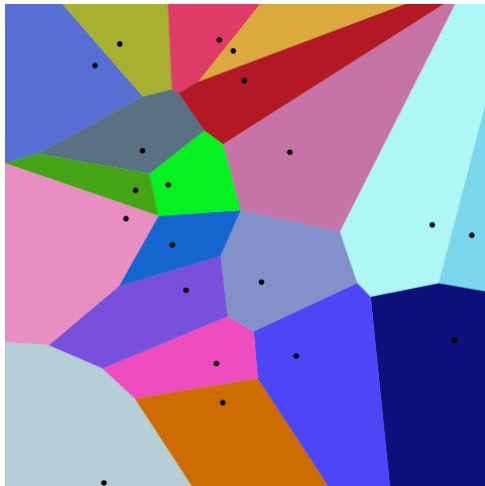


What do we do here?

# Motion planning

## Voronoi diagrams

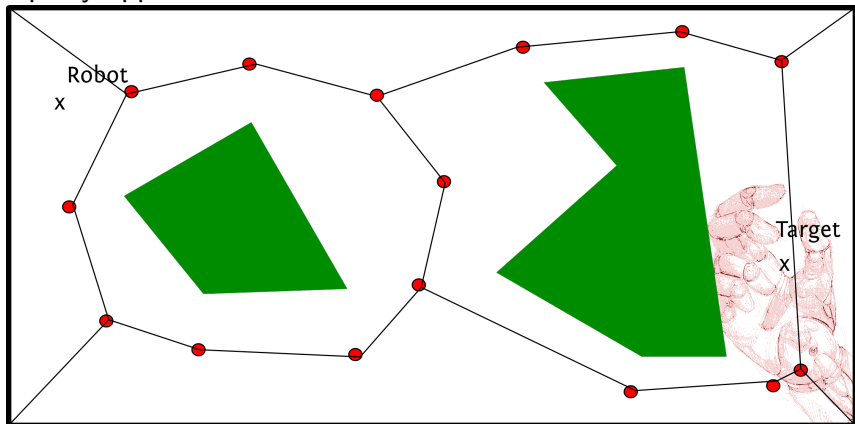
A Voronoi diagram is a partitioning of a plane so that different areas are the closest to a specific point.



# Motion planning

## Voronoi diagrams

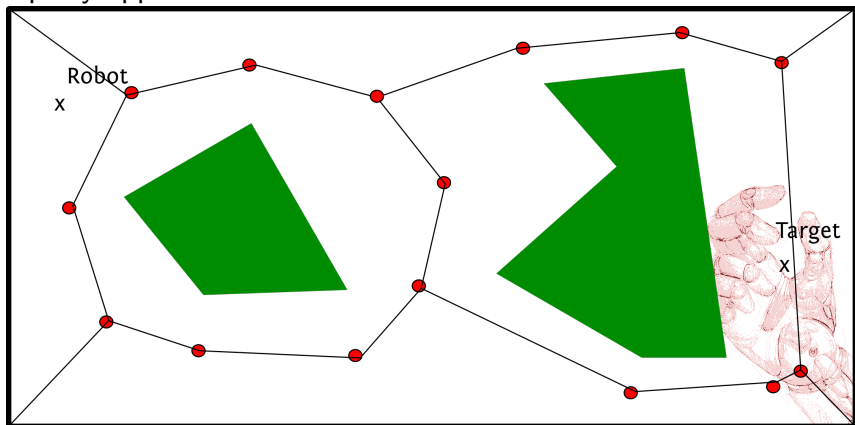
We use a very similar approach for constructing lines that are equally apart from obstacles



# Motion planning

## Voronoi diagrams

We use a very similar approach for constructing lines that are equally apart from obstacles



This technique can be used for curved surfaces, and it also generates clearance for the robot



# Motion planning

## Voronoi diagrams

There are different metrics for defining the distance:



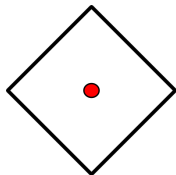
# Motion planning

## Voronoi diagrams

There are different metrics for defining the distance:

L1 metric:

$$(x, y) : |x| + |y| = \text{const}$$



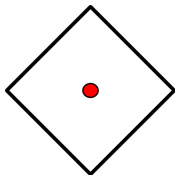
# Motion planning

## Voronoi diagrams

There are different metrics for defining the distance:

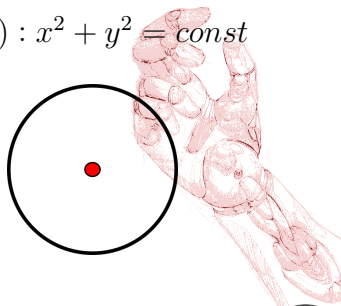
L1 metric:

$$(x, y) : |x| + |y| = \text{const}$$



L2 metric:

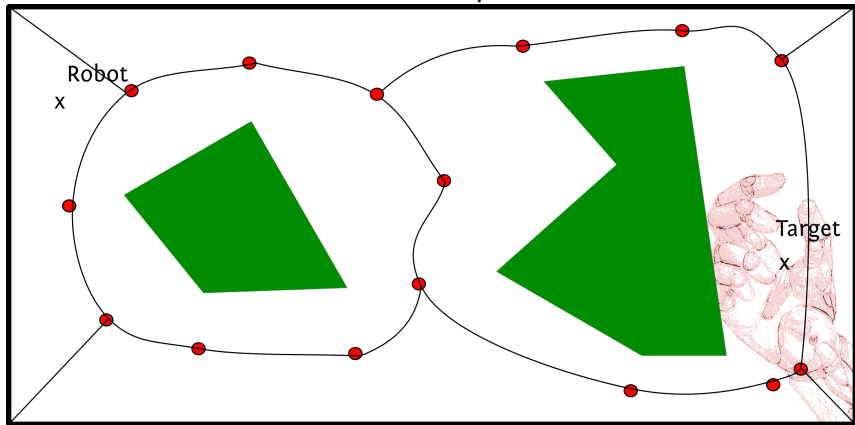
$$(x, y) : x^2 + y^2 = \text{const}$$



# Motion planning

## Voronoi diagrams

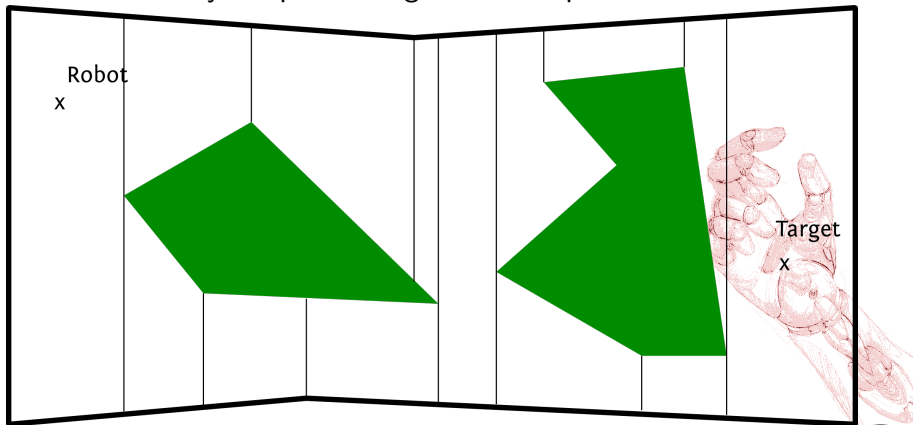
Different metrics, result in different paths



# Motion planning

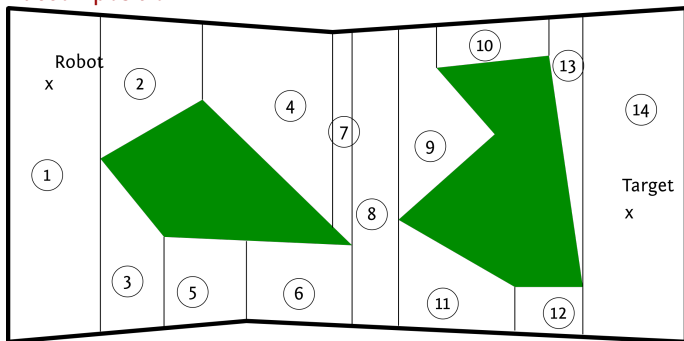
## Cell decomposition

We decompose the available space into cells, and we create a connectivity graph, which helps us identify possible paths. There are different ways of performing the decomposition.



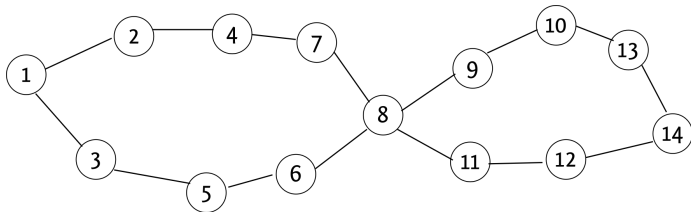
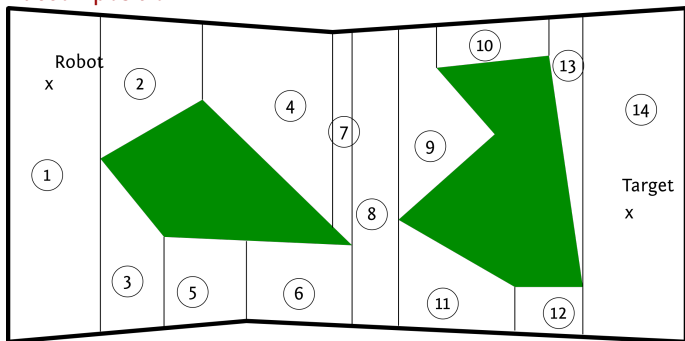
# Motion planning

## Cell decomposition



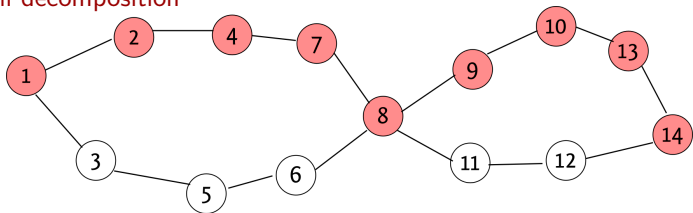
# Motion planning

## Cell decomposition



# Motion planning

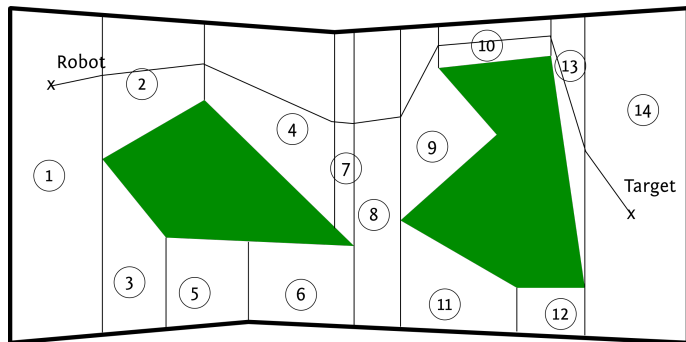
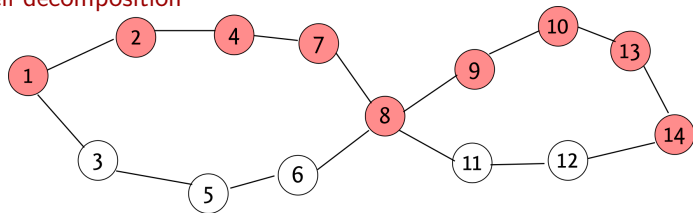
Cell decomposition





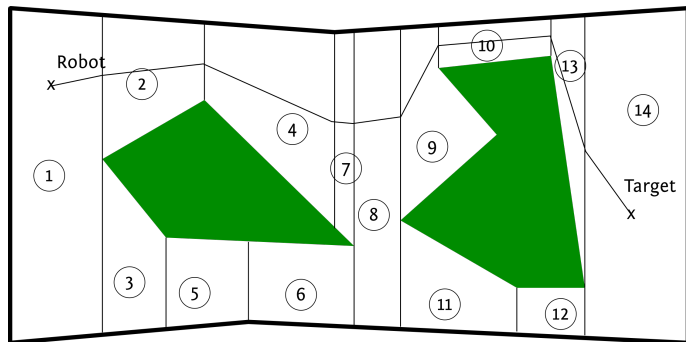
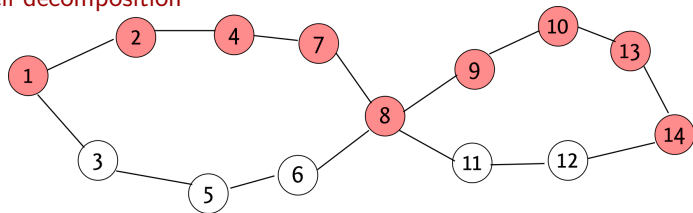
# Motion planning

## Cell decomposition



# Motion planning

## Cell decomposition



This

# Motion planning

## Potential field method

We construct a potential function that 'pulls' our robot towards the goal and is being 'pushed' by the obstacles. To do this, we need to:



# Motion planning

## Potential field method

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# Motion planning

## Potential field method

We construct a potential function that 'pulls' our robot towards the goal and is being 'pushed' by the obstacles. To do this, we need to:

- Generate an attractive potential function centered at the goal
- Generate repulsive potential functions at the edges of the obstacles

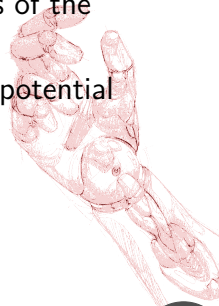


# Motion planning

## Potential field method

We construct a potential function that 'pulls' our robot towards the goal and is being 'pushed' by the obstacles. To do this, we need to:

- Generate an attractive potential function centered at the goal
- Generate repulsive potential functions at the edges of the obstacles
- Add the two together to come up with a complex potential function



# Motion planning

## Potential field method

We construct a potential function that 'pulls' our robot towards the goal and is being 'pushed' by the obstacles. To do this, we need to:

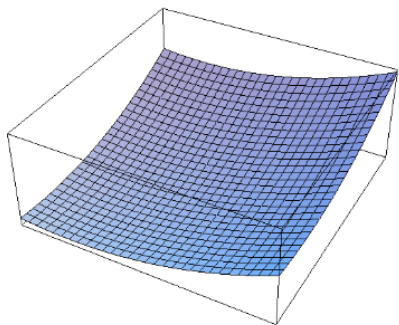
- Generate an attractive potential function centered at the goal
- Generate repulsive potential functions at the edges of the obstacles
- Add the two together to come up with a complex potential function
- The gradient of the total potential is an artificial force that drives the robot. This ensures optimal path



# Motion planning

Potential field method

## Attractive field

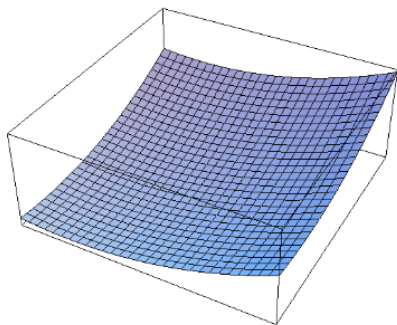




# Motion planning

## Potential field method

### Attractive field



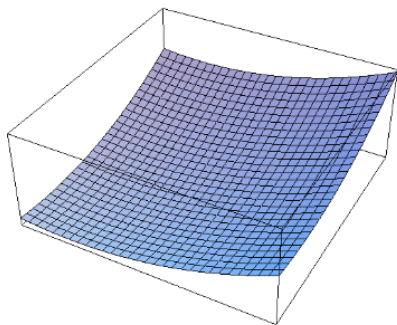
$$U_{at} = \frac{1}{2}\xi\|q - q_{goal}\|^2$$



# Motion planning

## Potential field method

### Attractive field



$$U_{at} = \frac{1}{2}\xi\|q - q_{goal}\|^2$$

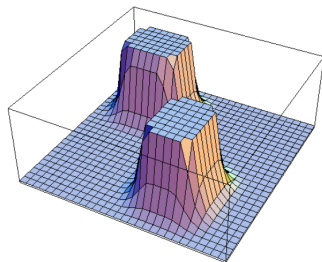
The potential is parabolic and centered at position  $q_{goal}$



# Motion planning

## Potential field method

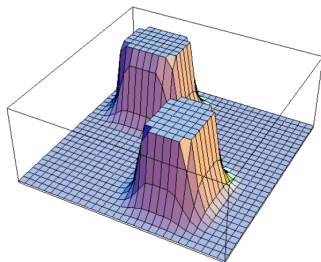
### Repulsive field



# Motion planning

## Potential field method

### Repulsive field



$$U_{rep} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}\eta \left( \frac{1}{\rho(q)} - \frac{1}{\rho_0} \right)^2, & \text{if } \rho(q) \leq \rho_0 \\ 0, & \text{if } \rho(q) > \rho_0 \end{cases}$$

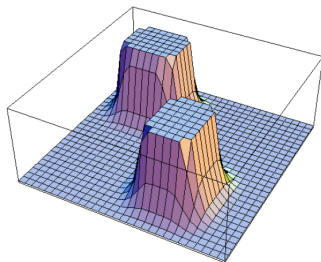


# Motion planning

## Potential field method

The potential is reciprocal with distance  $\rho$ , which is the distance from the edge of the obstacle.

### Repulsive field



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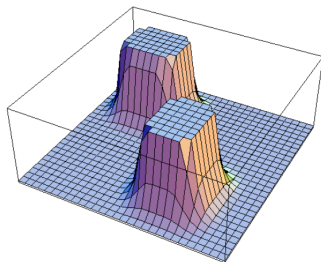


# Motion planning

## Potential field method

The potential is reciprocal with distance  $\rho$ , which is the distance from the edge of the obstacle. We want the effect of the repulsion to wear off after distance  $\rho_0$

### Repulsive field



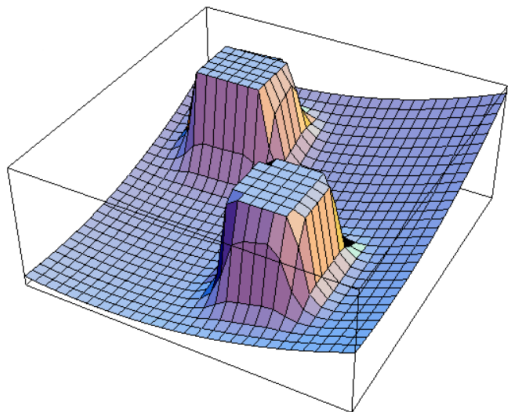
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# Motion planning

## Potential field method

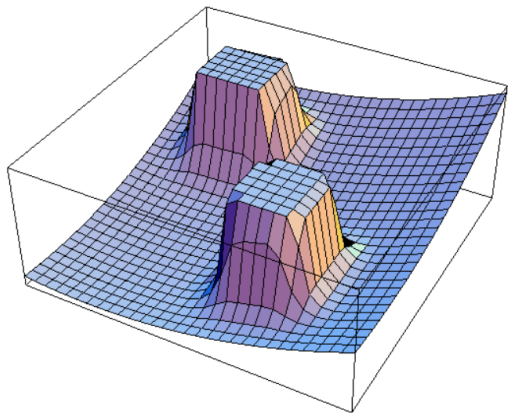
When adding the two potentials, we get a complex potential that can guide our robot



# Motion planning

## Potential field method

When adding the two potentials, we get a complex potential that can guide our robot



Of course, this isn't a perfect solution. What do you think are its limitations?







Questions?