



University of HUDDERSFIELD

University of Huddersfield Repository

Lockwood, Stephen

Design of an obstacle avoidance system for automated guided vehicles

Original Citation

Lockwood, Stephen (1992) Design of an obstacle avoidance system for automated guided vehicles. Doctoral thesis, University of Huddersfield.

This version is available at <http://eprints.hud.ac.uk/id/eprint/9285/>

The University Repository is a digital collection of the research output of the University, available on Open Access. Copyright and Moral Rights for the items on this site are retained by the individual author and/or other copyright owners. Users may access full items free of charge; copies of full text items generally can be reproduced, displayed or performed and given to third parties in any format or medium for personal research or study, educational or not-for-profit purposes without prior permission or charge, provided:

- The authors, title and full bibliographic details is credited in any copy;
- A hyperlink and/or URL is included for the original metadata page; and
- The content is not changed in any way.

For more information, including our policy and submission procedure, please contact the Repository Team at: E.mailbox@hud.ac.uk.

<http://eprints.hud.ac.uk/>

DESIGN OF AN OBSTACLE AVOIDANCE SYSTEM FOR AUTOMATED GUIDED VEHICLES

Stephen Lockwood

**A thesis submitted to the University of
Huddersfield in Partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of Doctor of
Philosophy.**

October 1992

**The University of Huddersfield in
collaboration with the Holset Engineering
Company Limited.**

CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	
ABSTRACT	
LIST OF FIGURES	
1 INTRODUCTION	
1.1 Automated Guided Vehicles and Factory Automation	1
1.2 Research Objectives	2
2 BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH	
2.1 Summary	6
2.2 An Introduction to the Guidance Methods Available for Automated Vehicles	6
2.2.1 Line Following Techniques	7
2.2.1.1 Passive Line Guidance	7
2.2.1.2 Active Line Guidance	8
2.2.1.3 Other Line Following AGV Guidance Methods	8
2.2.2 Free Ranging AGV Navigation	9
2.3 Review of Obstacle Avoidance Research	10
2.3.1 Architectures For Obstacle Avoidance	11
2.3.2 Sensors and Systems Used For Obstacle Avoidance	11
2.3.2.1 Ultrasonic Systems	12
2.3.2.2 Optical Systems	13
2.3.3 The Need for a New Obstacle Avoidance System	15
3 DESIGN OF A LOW-COST OBSTACLE DETECTION SYSTEM	
3.1 Summary	17
3.2 The Application of Structured Light for Measurement and Detection	17
3.3 Method of Light Generation and Projection	19
3.4 Design for a Novel Light Coding Scheme	20

	Page
4 HARDWARE FOR THE OBSTACLE DETECTION AND EMBEDDED COMPUTER SYSTEM	
4.1 Summary	27
4.2 The CCD Video Camera as a Sensing Element	28
4.3 Description of the Video Digitising System	28
4.4 Introduction to the Intel MCS-51 Series Microcontroller	32
4.5 The Embedded Computer Development System	35
5 DIGITAL SIGNAL PROCESSING	
5.1 Summary	38
5.2 Digital Filter Design	39
5.3 Direct Methods for Code Feature Extraction	46
6 REFLECTED LIGHT CODE RECOGNITION	
6.1 Summary	50
6.2 Light Code Calibration Method	50
6.3 Light Code Recognition	53
7 EXPERIMENTAL VEHICLE DESIGN	
7.1 Summary	57
7.2 Review of AGV Drive Configurations	57
7.3 Overview of the Experimental Vehicle Design	59
7.4 The HCTL-1100 Microprocessor Based Motor Controller	60
7.4.1 Interface With Intel-8031 Embedded Microcontroller	62
7.4.2 Types of Output	64
7.4.3 Types of Control	65
7.4.4 HCTL-1100 Digital Motor Controller Tuning	68
8 DEVELOPMENT OF THE OBSTACLE AVOIDANCE STRATEGY	
8.1 Summary	70
8.2 Obstacle Avoidance Algorithms	71

	Page
8.2.1 'LeftOrRight' Subroutine	73
8.2.2 'TURNAGV' Subroutine	74
8.2.3 'ADVANCEAGV' Subroutine	76
8.2.4 'RECOVER' Subroutine	78
8.3 Obstacle Avoidance Simulation Package	81
8.4 Obstacle Avoidance Algorithms Transferred to the Intel 8031 Embedded Microcontroller	84
 9 EVALUATION OF THE OBSTACLE AVOIDANCE SYSTEM	
9.1 Summary	87
9.2 Obstacle Detection System	87
9.3 Response Time and Real-Time Operation Accuracy and Repeatability	90
 10 CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER WORK	
10.1 Conclusions	110
10.2 Limitations of the System and Recommendations for Further Work	113
 REFERENCES	
 APPENDICES	
A1 Embedded Computer and Memory Access Buffer Circuit Diagrams	
A1.1 Intel 8031 Computer	
A1.2 Memory Access Buffers	
A2 Pascal Terminal Emulation Software Listing	
A3 Assembler Obstacle Avoidance Software Listing	
A4 Motor Control Circuits and HCTL-1100 Specifications	
A4.1 Dual Motor Control Circuit	
A4.2 H-Bridge Motor Drive Amplifier	
A5 Assembler Motor Control Software Listing	
A6 Pascal Obstacle Avoidance Model Software Listing	

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my gratitude to all in the School of Engineering at the University of Huddersfield and AMECAS for their help and friendship throughout the research project.

Thanks in particular to Dr Bruce Mehrdadi and Dr Jeff Chandler (Directors of Studies) for their technical input and editorial assistance in the preparation of the thesis. Their relentless encouragement, support and sense of humour have been invaluable. Special thanks are also extended to Dr Mike Freeman (Supervisor) for his technical advice and for proof reading the thesis. His feedback has been most helpful and constructive.

I would also like to express my gratitude to all the Technicians in the Engineering Systems Division for their practical help during the development of the hardware for the research.

Finally I would like to thank my partner Jacinta. I owe her much for her help in preparing the thesis, and more for her unwavering love and support.

ABSTRACT

Most Industrial Automated Guided Vehicles (AGVs) follow fixed guide paths embedded in the floor or bonded to the floor surface. Whilst reliable in their basic operation, these AGV systems fail if unexpected obstacles are placed in the vehicle path. This can be a problem particularly in semi-automated factories where men and AGVs share the same environment.

The performance of line-guided AGVs may therefore be enhanced with a capability to avoid unexpected obstructions in the guide path. The research described in this thesis addresses some fundamental problems associated with obstacle avoidance for automated vehicles.

A new obstacle avoidance system has been designed which operates by detecting obstacles as they disturb a light pattern projected onto the floor ahead of the AGV. A CCD camera mounted under the front of the vehicle senses obstacles as they emerge into the projection area and reflect the light pattern.

Projected light patterns have been used as an aid to static image analysis in the fields of Computer Aided Design and Engineering. This research extends these ideas in a real-time mobile application. A novel light coding system has been designed which simplifies the image analysis task and allows a low-cost embedded microcontroller to carry out the image processing, code recognition and obstacle avoidance planning functions.

An AGV simulation package has been developed as a design tool for obstacle avoidance algorithms. This enables potential strategies to be developed in a high level language and tested via a Graphical User Interface. The algorithms designed using the simulation package were successfully translated to assembler language and implemented on the embedded system. An experimental automated vehicle has been designed and built as a test bed for the research and the complete obstacle avoidance system was evaluated in the Flexible Manufacturing laboratory at the University of Huddersfield.

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page	
2.3.1.1	Subsumption Architecture	11
3.3.1	Projector Lens System	19
3.3.2	Projector - Camera Geometry	20
3.3.3	Projected Light Distortion	20
3.4.1	Projector Masks	21
3.4.2	Obstacle Distorting Projected Dot Grid	21
3.4.3	Distorted Dot Grid After Edge Detection and Thresholding	22
3.4.4	Projected Light Pattern Tends to 'Grow' from the Ground	23
3.4.5	Uniform Vertical Bar Pattern	24
3.4.6	'Letterbox' Viewing Area	24
3.4.7	Projected CCD Elements are Approximately 3mm X 3mm at a Distance of 1 Metre	25
3.4.8	Vertical Bar Code Projection Mask	26
4.3.1	Composite Video Signal	29
4.3.2	Video Frame Store and Memory Access Buffers	31
4.4.1	Intel 8051 Block Diagram	32
4.4.2	a) Embedded Computer System b) 8031 Memory Map	34
4.4.3	Method of Digitising Video Image into Two Interleaved Blocks	35
4.5.1	Development System	36
5.1.1	Obstacle Detection System	38
5.2.1	Grey Level Graph of a Horizontal Strip of the Image	39
5.2.2	Digital Transversal Filter	41
5.2.3	Transversal Filter Frequency Response	41
5.2.4	C-R Filter	43
5.2.5	Frequency Response of a Filter Derived Using Bilinear Transform Method	43
5.2.6	Simply Derived Digital Version of a C-R Analogue Filter	44

	Page	
5.2.7	Video Data After Recursive Filtering	46
5.3.1	Typical Filtered Code Pattern Shape	48
5.3.2	Relationship Between Code Features	48
5.3.3	Turning Point Detector Algorithm	49
5.3.4	Video Data and Results form Peak Extraction Algorithm	49
6.2.1	Code Calibration Board Must Fill Camera Field of View	52
6.2.2	Flow Chart for Automatic Code Calibration Algorithm	53
6.2.3	Calculation of T1, T2 and T3	54
6.3.1	Code Features Transformed	54
6.3.2	Flow Chart of Code Detection Algorithm	55
7.2.1	Three Wheel AGV Design	58
7.2.2	Differential AGV Drive Arrangement	58
7.3.1	Experimental Vehicle Suspension System	59
7.3.2	Experimental Vehicle	61
7.3.3	Camera Mounting Detail	62
7.4.1	Experimental Vehicle Drives	63
7.4.2	Experimental Vehicle Drive Block Diagram	63
7.4.3	HCTL-1100 Simplified Functional Block Diagram	64
7.4.2.1	H-Bridge Amplifier	65
7.4.2.2	PWM Motor Controller Output Signals	66
7.4.3.1	HCTL-1100 rapezoidal Profile Mode	68
8.2.1	Automated Heading and Deviation	72
8.2.2.1	Flow Chart for 'TURN' Algorithm	75
8.2.2.2	Flow Chart for 'TEST_TURN' Procedure	75
8.2.3.1	Distance That Automated Vehicle Must Advance to Clear an Obstacle	76
8.2.3.2	Flow Chart for 'ADVANCE' Procedure	77
8.2.3.3	'ADVANCE' Procedure Fails if Gap is Too Small for Automated Vehicle to Negotiate	78
8.2.4.1	Simplistic 'RECOVER' Procedure	79
8.2.4.2	AGV 'RECOVER' Procedure	80

	Page	
8.2.4.3	Flow Chart for 'RECOVER' Procedure	81
8.3.1	Graphical Elements of Computer Model	82
8.3.2	a) Single Obstacle Avoidance	84
	b) Double Obstacle Avoidance	85
	c) Avoidance of Three Obstacles	86
9.2.1	'Test Obstacle', Positioned in Light Pattern	89
9.2.2	Video Camera View of 'Test Obstacle'	89
9.2.3	Video Camera View of Matt Black Obstacle	90
9.2.4	Video Camera View of a Gloss White Board	90
9.2.5	Typical Obstacles Encountere in Factories	91
9.3.1	Oscilloscope Trace Showing Access Control Signal	94
9.3.2	Motor Control Signals Illustrating Avoidance Response Time	95
9.3.3	PWM Signal is Smoothed Due to Motor Inductance	95
9.3.4	Subtracted Motor Control Signals During 'TURN' Phase of Obstacle Avoidance	98
9.3.5	Right Hand Motor Control Signal During 'ADVANCE' Phase of Obstacle Avoidance	98
9.3.6	Moving Obstacle Test	99
9.3.7	Sequence of Photographs Showing Moving Obstacle Real-Time Test	100
9.3.8	Photograph Showing Real-Time Path Correction	102
9.3.9	Photograph Showing System Responding to Two Obstacles	103
9.4.1	Accuracy of Obstacle Avoidance System	104
9.4.2	Vehicle Path Defined Parallel to Laboratory Wall	105
9.4.3	Photograph Showing Accuracy Test	106
9.4.4	Photograph Showing Accuracy Test	108
9.4.5	Photograph Showing Repeatability Test	109

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Automated Guided Vehicles and Factory Automation

The first Automated Guided Vehicles (AGVs) were developed in the 1950s by Barrett Electronics of the USA for use in warehouses^[1]. These were automated trucks towing trains of carts, guided by a wire system similar to that still used in many installations today.

In 1990, the worldwide AGV market was worth about £2500 million having grown at an annual rate of 12-15% in the previous decade^[2]. This growth rate has led to the appearance of AGVs in many guises ranging in complexity from basic units similar to the original Barrett vehicles, to highly 'intelligent' legged automats designed for such tasks as extra-terrestrial exploration and hazardous environment inspection. In general, the cost of automated vehicles is reflected in their performance. Complex and expensive vehicles are used in applications where cost is secondary to safety or research, whereas more basic types are employed in warehouses, offices and factories where commercial viability is essential.

Only recently have automated vehicles been used widely in the manufacturing industry. This is partly due to advancing computer technology and its falling cost, and also, partly as a result of changing trends in industrial administration. In particular the adoption of management philosophies such as Just In Time (JIT) coupled with the concept of Flexible Manufacturing Systems (FMS) provide ideal environments for AGVs^[3].

The benefits brought about by automated vehicle systems include reduced labour costs since drivers are not required, reduced paper work in the form of dockets and

requisitions and the fact that work need not be interrupted by rest periods. A further major advantage of automated vehicles as opposed to traditional forms of factory transport such as conveyors and railways, is that they allow more efficient use of the available factory space. This is made possible by the fact that AGVs use unobtrusive or hidden guide-paths that are only apparent when vehicles are actually present. At other times, the thoroughfares can be used by people and other transport. Conveyors and railways on the other hand, require exclusive routes constructed from intrusive steel work and transport equipment.

1.2 Research Objectives

The research presented in this thesis has been carried out in collaboration with AMECAS Ltd., (Advanced Manufacturing Equipment Control and Automation Systems), a trading division of the Holset Engineering Company Ltd., Huddersfield. This division was formed as a small consultancy following the award winning in-house implementation of a Flexible Manufacturing System at the Holset turbo-charger manufacturing plant in Huddersfield.

The subject of the research was highlighted at an AMECAS Automated Guided Vehicle installation in Doncaster, England. This factory is approximately 1/4 mile long and several hundred metres wide. The AGV system is a wire-guided network of pallet transporters operating along side manual trucks.

As mentioned in the previous section, a major benefit of AGVs is that they can share space with people. However, as in the case of the Doncaster installation, a problem occurs where automatic vehicles and similar manually operated vehicles are doing the same job in the same work space. AGVs can not operate with the same level of flexibility as manual truck drivers and require that their guide path be completely unimpeded. In practice, objects such as untidily stacked pallets or bins are inevitably

placed in the AGV guide-path, which in turn leads to automated vehicles becoming stranded. In a factory the size of the Doncaster installation, this is a severe problem as the time taken to find and travel to stranded vehicles to clear obstructions can be significant. This affects work schedules and hence disrupts production planning.

The problem of obstacle avoidance is associated with the guidance and navigation of automated vehicles and two main solutions are possible:

- ❑ either completely replace the existing AGV system with a new one that has the capability to avoid unexpected obstacles,
- ❑ or use an obstacle avoidance system that can be retrofitted to existing vehicles.

As yet, no AGV system that can avoid unexpected obstacles is commercially available. Even if such a system did exist, organisations would be unlikely to be persuaded to reinvest heavily in a completely new installation. Rather, they would prefer to upgrade existing vehicles with 'add on' obstacle avoidance units.

Much research has been carried out in the field of obstacle avoidance in attempts to provide commercially viable systems. This is based on a variety of sensor systems and techniques including ultrasound ranging systems, CCD camera systems, laser range finders and combinations of these. The research presented in this thesis is concerned specifically with the rigorous requirements of the manufacturing industry and with the high demands that such harsh operating environments place on any practicable design. For example, a suitable system should not use moving parts since these would be subject to the eventual ingress of dirt and wear resulting in a degradation of performance. This factor rules out the use of delicate mechanical sensors such as rotating scanners and moving cameras etc.

Cost is a crucial factor affecting the acceptance of products by competitive industry. Hence any retrofitting obstacle avoidance system must be low-cost. Not only in terms

of its relation to the value of the host vehicle, but also in its operation and maintenance. This implies that the hardware must be relatively simple to install and configure, preferably without the need for special calibration equipment.

A further constraint on the design of a retrofitting obstacle avoidance system is its physical size. Although commercial automated vehicles come in many shapes and sizes, an add-on system must be compact and light-weight enough to be relatively unobtrusive when installed on the host vehicle. This excludes the use of relatively large standard computers and suggests that a design based on compact, single-chip microcontrollers is desirable.

Many automated vehicle systems described in the literature require detailed on-board 'knowledge' of the factory layout in order to perform obstacle avoidance tasks. These tend to be application-specific and are not suited to general use. Although obstacle avoidance is often treated as a completely separate issue to that of obstacle detection, this research seeks to combine both detection and avoidance into a practical system that is suitable for general applications.

The objectives discussed in the previous paragraphs have been translated into an innovative obstacle avoidance system. This is based on a novel light pattern projection system and a charged Coupled Device (CCD) imaging system. The light pattern is projected onto the floor ahead of the automated vehicle and is not normally visible to the CCD camera mounted under the front of the chassis. However, if an obstacle emerges, the projected light pattern becomes visible to the camera, and the obstruction is detected. The system then controls the vehicle drives to circumnavigate the obstruction and rejoin the original guide path.

The complete obstacle avoidance system has been appraised in the Flexible Manufacturing Laboratory at the University of Huddersfield. Extensive tests have been carried out to confirm the design specifications in terms of real-time operation, the

smallest detectable object, and the diverse range of obstructions that can be detected. Several examples of the system detecting obstacles typical of those likely to be found in factories are included. The performance of the obstacle avoidance system is assessed in terms of the accuracy with which it returns to the original guide path. The accuracy with which it repeats a route given equivalent conditions and its ability to avoid multiple obstacles are also presented

2 BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH

2.1 Summary

This chapter explores the background to the problem of obstacle avoidance. A brief overview of the guidance methods available for Automated Guided Vehicles (AGVs) and mobile robots is presented. Options for solving the obstacle avoidance problem are discussed and a solution is identified for further research. Relevant work by other researchers is reviewed which highlights the key difficulties associated with detecting and negotiating unexpected obstacles. This review confirms that further research work is necessary towards the design of a low-cost, reliable obstacle avoidance system for industrial automated guided vehicles.

2.2 An Introduction to the Guidance Methods Available for Automated Vehicles

AGVs are guided using two basic systems:

- ❑ Line following. This is currently the most common method and has been available since the birth of AGV technology
- ❑ Free ranging. Advanced systems which are only just starting to be offered commercially.

2.2.1 Line Following Techniques

Line following is the most common method of automated vehicle guidance^[4], characterised by the fact that AGVs follow paths physically marked on the ground. Either passive or active techniques can be used, depending on the application and the operating environment^[5].

2.2.1.1 Passive Line Guidance

Passive systems are common in relatively clean environments where AGV guide lines are not vulnerable to hard wear and dirt. Various methods are used for marking and detecting AGV guide paths depending on the particular design. An excellent review of these and other methods of line guidance has been presented by Premi and Besant^[6].

White line following systems use sensors consisting of infrared transmitters and receivers to detect the presence and position of white or brightly coloured lines painted or taped onto a dark floor, (or dark lines on light coloured floors). The position of a line in relation to the sensors is used to derive control signals for the AGV drive motors^[7].

'Littons Patented Optical System'^[1] uses a fluorescent compound to mark AGV guide lines, which is invisible to the human eye under normal circumstances. Automated vehicles are equipped with sensing heads consisting of ultra-violet lamps and optical detectors which irradiate the chemical compound and detect its position. Control actions are derived from the sensing heads in a similar fashion to white line following systems.

Metal line systems differ from optical methods in that a metal adhesive tape is used to mark AGV guide lines. This has the advantage that it can be concealed under carpets or other floor coverings. Sensors on board AGVs (similar to metal detectors) are used

to detect the metal tape and derive control signals for the vehicle drives.

2.2.1.2 Active Line Guidance

Active line guided systems are by far the most commonly used in factories, particularly where the environment is too hostile for systems requiring paint or tape on the floor surface. In active systems, AGV guide paths are marked by embedding large wire loops 1 or 2cm below the floor surface which are driven by AC signals. Automated vehicles equipped with pick-up coils sense the signals, the amplitude of which give a measure of the proximity of the embedded wire and are used to derive steering control. Each embedded guide loop is driven by a different frequency (typically in the range 1-15KHz) allowing AGVs to navigate between regions by using band pass filters to select the required loop frequency and reject all others.

2.2.1.3 Other Line Following AGV Guidance Methods

Other methods of AGV guidance which broadly fall into the category of passive line following have been devised. In particular, Tsukagoshi, Miura and Yamauchi of Japan have described a guidance system which uses ferrite tiles to construct lanes that cross each other in a lattice arrangement^[8]. AGVs follow the ferrite lanes using magnetic sensors.

A variation on passive line following has been designed for a clean-room inspection robot^[9,10,11]. This uses spot reflectors embedded in the floor at discrete intervals which are illuminated using a powerful infrared lamp. Reflections from the spot marks are detected using an infrared CCD camera. Steering control is derived from the position of the spot reflections in the CCD image.

In general, passive line guided systems are not robust enough for harsh factory

environments because paint or foil tape can easily become worn away, and white lines or spot reflectors can be obscured by dirt and debris. Also, white line following systems depend on a high contrast between the line and the surrounding floor. However, active embedded wire loops, are not subject to wear and debris and as a result, have been installed widely in the manufacturing industries.

2.2.2 Free Ranging AGV Navigation

Free-ranging automated guided vehicles do not follow physical guide lines. Most systems are based on odometry^[12] (or dead reckoning) where vehicle position and heading are derived from incremental encoders coupled to the AGV road wheels and steering gear. Examples of this type of system can be seen in references^[13,14,15]. The main disadvantage of AGV navigation using odometry is its inaccuracy^[12,16]. If the wheel diameters are not accurately matched, the floor not perfectly flat, or the wheels pick up debris, errors accumulate in proportion to the distance travelled and can become unacceptably large. This error may be reduced by combining odometry with other methods of navigation. This approach has been adopted by Stephens Robins and Roberts in their 'TURTLE' system which uses scanning lasers and optical sensors to detect reflectors strategically positioned in known locations around the AGV environment^[17]. The angular bearing of the reflectors is used to triangulate the absolute position of the vehicle, and this information is used to correct the accumulated odometry error. Similar triangulation systems have also been designed which use infrared beacons and detectors^[18] and ultrasonic transponders and targets^[19].

An alternative method of dead reckoning navigation based on inertial techniques has been considered by Eaton-Kenway Incorporated of the USA^[20]. However, the cost of mechanical or optical gyro sensors is high and as Tsumura points out^[21], the technique suffers from accumulative position errors in the same way as odometry.

Systems which do not use any form of dead reckoning guidance are based on ultrasonic ranging^[22] and imaging techniques^[23,24,25] which attempt to build range measurement maps of the AGV environment for navigation. Other systems employ optical systems to achieve the same ends and also to recognise previously described objects in the AGV environment^[26,27].

Other work on free-ranging AGV navigation systems has tended towards the integration of various sensing techniques in attempts to achieve high reliability and accuracy^[28,29,30].

2.3 Review of Obstacle Avoidance Research

An obvious solution to the problem of obstacle avoidance would be to prevent objects being placed in the path of automated vehicles. However, this undermines a major benefit of AGV systems which is the sharing of common thoroughfares. In an integrated environment, obstacles could only be totally prohibited from the working environment by making the guide path exclusive to AGVs.

Alternatively, the whole wire guidance system could be replaced by a free-ranging scheme with the means to avoid unexpected obstacles. Although considerable research effort continues to be devoted to the design of free-ranging AGV systems the problems which must be overcome to make such systems commercially viable are manifold. These include high cost, high complexity, low speed of operation and low reliability. Only one company has succeeded in commercially marketing a free-ranging AGV system (based on the previously mentioned TURTLE laser range finding system^[17,31]), and that does not overcome the crucial problem of obstacle avoidance.

2.3.1 Architectures For Obstacle Avoidance

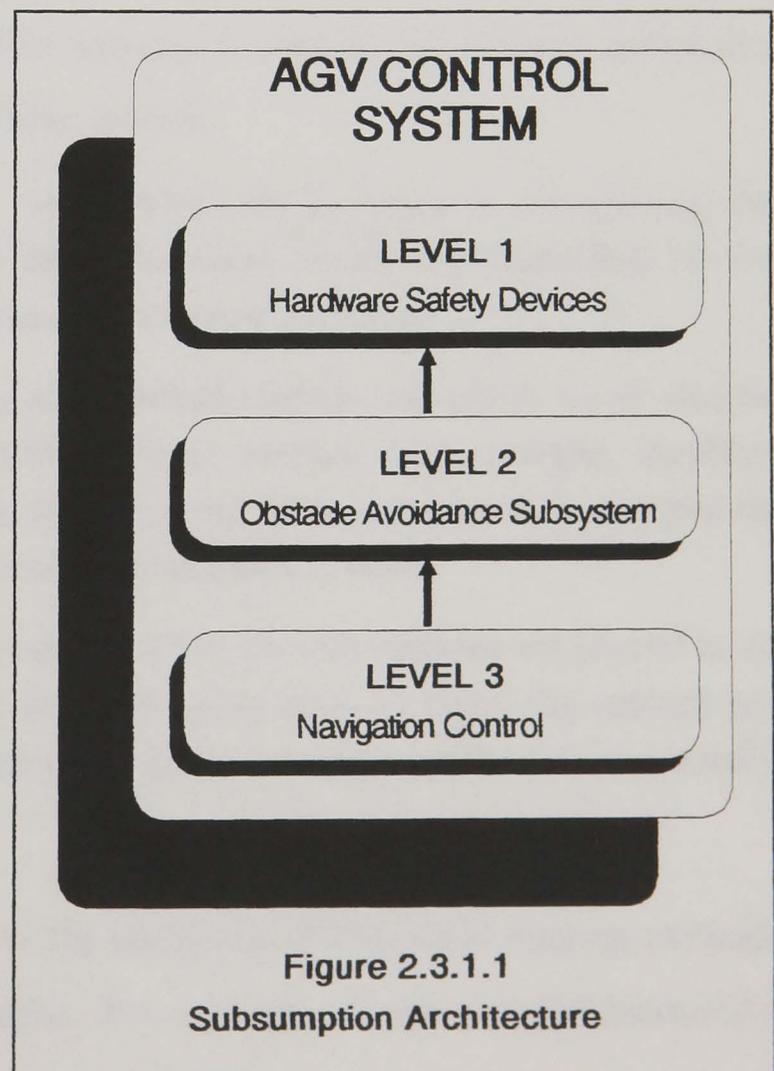
Most current research on obstacle avoidance uses subsumption architecture^[32] which stems from work of biological origin^[33]. Subsumption architecture is a hierarchical control structure with various priority levels. Each level of control has a set of conditions which once met, triggers its action. A characteristic of the architecture is that when a level of control is activated, all lower levels are inhibited. Figure 2.3.1.1 shows an example of an AGV hierarchical control structure incorporating three levels:

1. hardware safety devices
2. obstacle avoidance
3. navigation.

Level 3 is a general navigation control system which can be inhibited by an obstacle avoidance control system should an unexpected obstacle be detected (level 2). Level 2 can in turn be inhibited by the hard wired safety bumper (level 1) in the event of an object being physically touched by the Automated Guided Vehicle.

2.3.2 Sensors and Systems Used for Obstacle Avoidance

Work on obstacle avoidance is almost exclusive to free ranging AGV systems since, to avoid unexpected obstacles, the automated vehicle must deviate from its planned path, circumnavigate the obstruction and



either rejoin, or revise the original path. In order to achieve this, the AGV must have some notion of where it is and where it is allowed to go on a new trajectory. This knowledge is usually derived from a software model (or map) of the environment with which the AGV compares its current perceived position^[34,35,36].

Although much work has been carried out on collision free path planning^[37,38,39], a large emphasis is now placed on sensing as the key problem^[34,36] and in particular achieving reliable obstacle detection in real-time.

The sensors used in obstacle detection are either acoustic or optical and in some cases both^[40].

2.3.2.1 Ultrasonic Systems

The relatively modest information processing requirements of most ultrasonic ranging systems can be met in real-time but their success is limited by inherent difficulties associated with acoustics^[34,35,40,41,42,43,44]. These include:

- ❑ Poor directionality which limits the accuracy in determining the spatial position of edges to about 10-50 cm depending on the distance of the target object from the sensor.
- ❑ Inaccuracies in distance measurements can easily occur due to ultrasonic noise from external sources (for example, machine tools, neighbouring sensors, hand tools being used or dropped on the floor etc.) and also by multi-path echoes.
- ❑ Specular reflections occur when smooth surfaces are placed at an angle to the sound source^[41]. This leads to either the surface not being detected at all or at best, appearing smaller than it actually is.

Systems have been designed to overcome the shortfalls of ultrasonic ranging methods by integrating them with other technologies. For example, Evans and Krishnamurthy

et al^[40] combine ultrasonic techniques with optical methods to navigate a 'health care service' robot. An integrated system has been described by Hollingham^[45], which uses twelve combined SONAR and infrared sensing heads distributed around the periphery of an automated vehicle. Each Transputer based sensing head can be rotated by a small stepper motor in order to scan its locality. A further transputer is used for overall control of the system. Although these sensors may be useful in some automated environments, their cost and delicate nature makes them unsuitable for most factory based AGVs.

2.3.2.2 Optical Systems

Optical sensors used in obstacle avoidance systems range from laser range finders to CCD cameras and in general, present higher demands in terms of information processing because of their higher resolution. A system which uses both a colour video camera and a laser range finder^[46] has been used to guide an Autonomous Land Vehicle (ALV) along outdoor roadways^[47]. The system uses the colour camera to detect road edges and the laser range finder to detect objects within the road edges. Image processing is carried out by a powerful host computer and two dedicated digital image processors. Range measurements are processed by a programmable systolic array (the so-called 'warp machine')^[48]. Although this system is able to operate in real time, (the warp machine has an array of 10 cells, each with a processor operating at 10 million floating point operations per second), the sheer size and cost of the hardware makes it impractical in commercial industrial applications.

An obstacle avoidance system using stereo CCD video cameras has been described in a multi-level architecture for vision based navigation^[49]. This system employs a powerful multiprocessor computer work station and fast image processors to compare the stereo disparity from the CCD camera images with that of a previously computed stereo disparity map of the workspace floor. Although this obstacle avoidance system

operates in real time, the large multiprocessor work station is not carried on board the mobile robot and the predetermined stereo disparity map of the ground floor is only suitable for laboratory environments. For example, the system would fail if a new pattern was introduced on the floor due to shadows, or spilt liquid, etc.

An alternative obstacle detection system has been described by Takeno and Hachiyama^[50], which proposes a new technology for processing stereo images called the 'Laminated Difference Method'. However, this system does not avoid obstacles, it only detects them and under controlled test conditions the system required four seconds to process one pair of images. This performance is too slow for use on industrial Automated Guided Vehicles.

Stereo Obstacle detection systems require precise relative positioning of the cameras in order to accurately calculate the position of features in the stereo image pair. An obstacle avoidance system which uses a single, less critically positioned camera has been described by Takeuchi, Enemoto and Nagai of Japan^[51]. In this system a monochrome CCD camera is mounted approximately 1 metre from the ground on top of a mobile robot and focused on the floor ahead of the vehicle at an angle of 30 degrees from vertical. The obstacle detection system works on the principal that when the scene in front of the mobile robot is illuminated (by two powerful lamps), changes in grey level occur in the CCD image due to the boundaries between the plain floor and potential obstacles. The CCD image is processed to determine the positions of such grey level changes and a "fuzzy" controller is implemented to execute collision free motion^[52]. This system will operate successfully in controlled light conditions on matt, uniformly coloured and textured surfaces. However, since the image processing system takes no account of the true three dimensional nature of the robot environment, it cannot distinguish between true obstacles and flat features on the floor such as pieces of paper, changes in colour, or spilt liquids. Also, the system is easily deceived by reflections from surrounding objects and glare from overhead lights.

2.3.3 The Need for a New Obstacle Avoidance System

A cost-effective approach to the obstacle avoidance problem is to design a modular obstacle avoidance sub-system auxiliary to existing AGVs which does not require modification to existing guidance networks. Enhanced performance of the overall system would be achieved by enabling AGVs to negotiate unexpected obstacles.

AGV users who have invested heavily in line guided navigation systems are unlikely to be persuaded to reinvest in free ranging systems to solve the problem of obstacle avoidance. However, the prospect of improving the efficiency of an existing system by installing a low cost modular obstacle avoidance unit is attractive. Existing conventionally guided AGV systems may not have the “intelligence” to avoid obstacles, but they are reliable if it is accepted that they will fail due to unexpected obstructions. A low cost, modular obstacle avoidance system would not therefore degrade the operation of an existing system; but it would enhance it by allowing AGVs to avoid such objects in the guide path. A completely new, free-ranging system has a high risk of for “teething” problems and may prove less reliable during normal, obstacle free navigation.

The review of obstacle avoidance systems presented in this chapter has not revealed a low cost and reliable system which is suitable for integrating into the control hierarchy of existing AGV navigation systems.

For these reasons, the work presented in this thesis builds on that carried out by Lockwood, Mehrdadi and Chandler^[53], and is aimed at the design of a low cost, modular system which can be retrofitted to existing conventional AGVs.

The single camera system described in the review^[51,52] has provided a valuable preface to the study of obstacle avoidance and using it as a starting point, this research is based on the following hypotheses:

- ❑ The geometry of the optical system can be redesigned to enable effective discrimination between true three dimensional objects and two dimensional disturbances on the floor.
- ❑ Illumination coding techniques can be developed to simplify the image processing task and enable reliable obstacle detection.
- ❑ A low cost, self-contained system can be realised by employing single chip microcomputers for image processing and steering control.

3 DESIGN OF THE LOW COST OBSTACLE DETECTION SYSTEM

3.1 Summary

Light patterns have been used in applications such as metrology, Computer Aided Engineering (CAE) and Computer Aided Design (CAD) to increase the information content in optical systems. However, so called structured light is normally used in static image analysis such as off-line inspection and 3-D surface measurement.

This chapter reviews relevant research works based on projected light patterns and introduces the concept of extending such systems for mobile use. Sections 3.3, 3.4 and chapters 4,5 and 6 discuss the design of a novel obstacle detection system which is low cost, simple to configure, self-contained and capable of operating in real-time.

3.2 The Application of Structured Light for Measurement and Detection

Lighting with known geometrical properties that are used to obtain information in illuminated scenes is referred to as 'structured' light^[54]. A 3-D machine perception system which uses a standard slide projector and binary coded slide mask has been described^[55]. The projector illuminates objects with a coded pattern (rather like a 'chess board') and uses a CCD camera and image processing system to determine the range of uniquely coded groups of light points. The surface of objects can be modelled from these range data^[56]. Two important features of this system are:

- The system has potential for use in mobile applications because

it requires only a single 'snap shot' image to completely analyse a scene. This overcomes a problem called 'smudging' caused by successive frame integration which can occur in mobile systems that need multiple images^[55].

- The hardware is low-cost since a standard slide projector and single camera are used (ie. range measurement can be achieved with a single camera as opposed to triangulation with a stereo pair).

However, a major disadvantage of the 3-D machine perception system is the number of computations required. As the authors point out, real-time operation could only be achieved if the computations were speeded up by a factor of at least 300. This makes the current system unsuitable for automated guided vehicles.

A 3-D measurement system has been designed using a similar projector but with a uniform dot-grid mask rather than a binary code^[57]. This system uses a CCD camera which moves laterally on a sliding carriage. Images are acquired with the camera in two positions and range measurements are derived from the relationship of the projected dots in each image (rather like triangulating with stereo cameras). This system has the disadvantages that it uses moving parts which will eventually need service, and the image acquisition and processing procedures are too slow for mobile applications. For example, if the moving camera was mounted on a vehicle which was itself moving, the relationship between a pair of successive images would be extremely complicated unless the precise relative motion of the vehicle was taken into account (the 'smudging' problem described above).

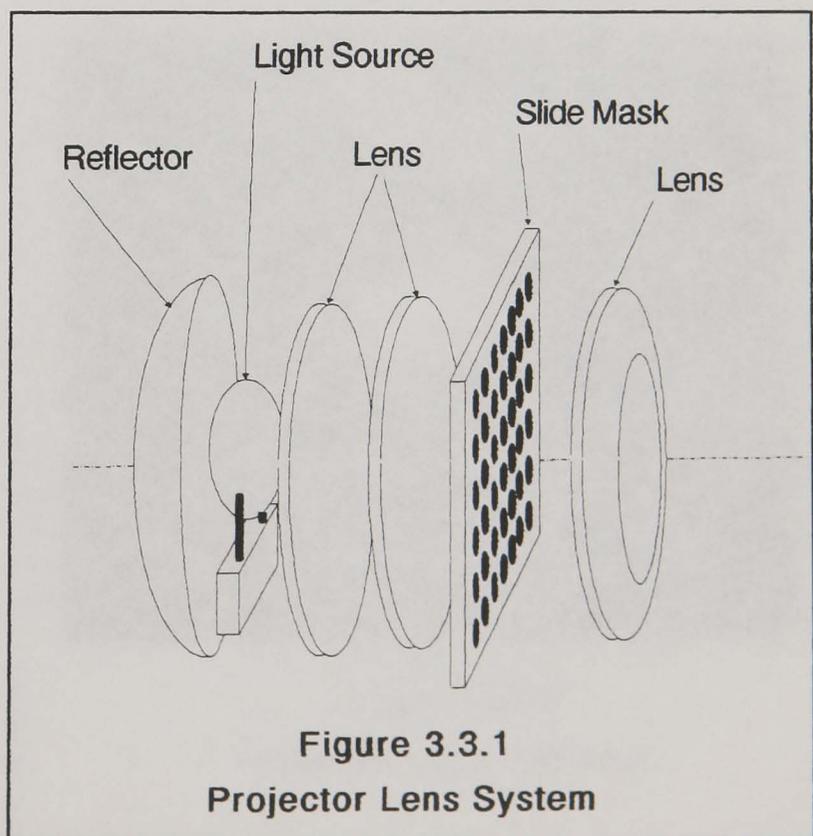
Alternative light sources can be used to generate structured light. A system using coherent laser light has been designed which acquires range and surface information from two photographs of the same object with different laser light patterns^[58]. Surface information is extracted by projecting a vertical grid of equidistant lines onto a subject and analysing the image distortion. The system has the disadvantages that multiple

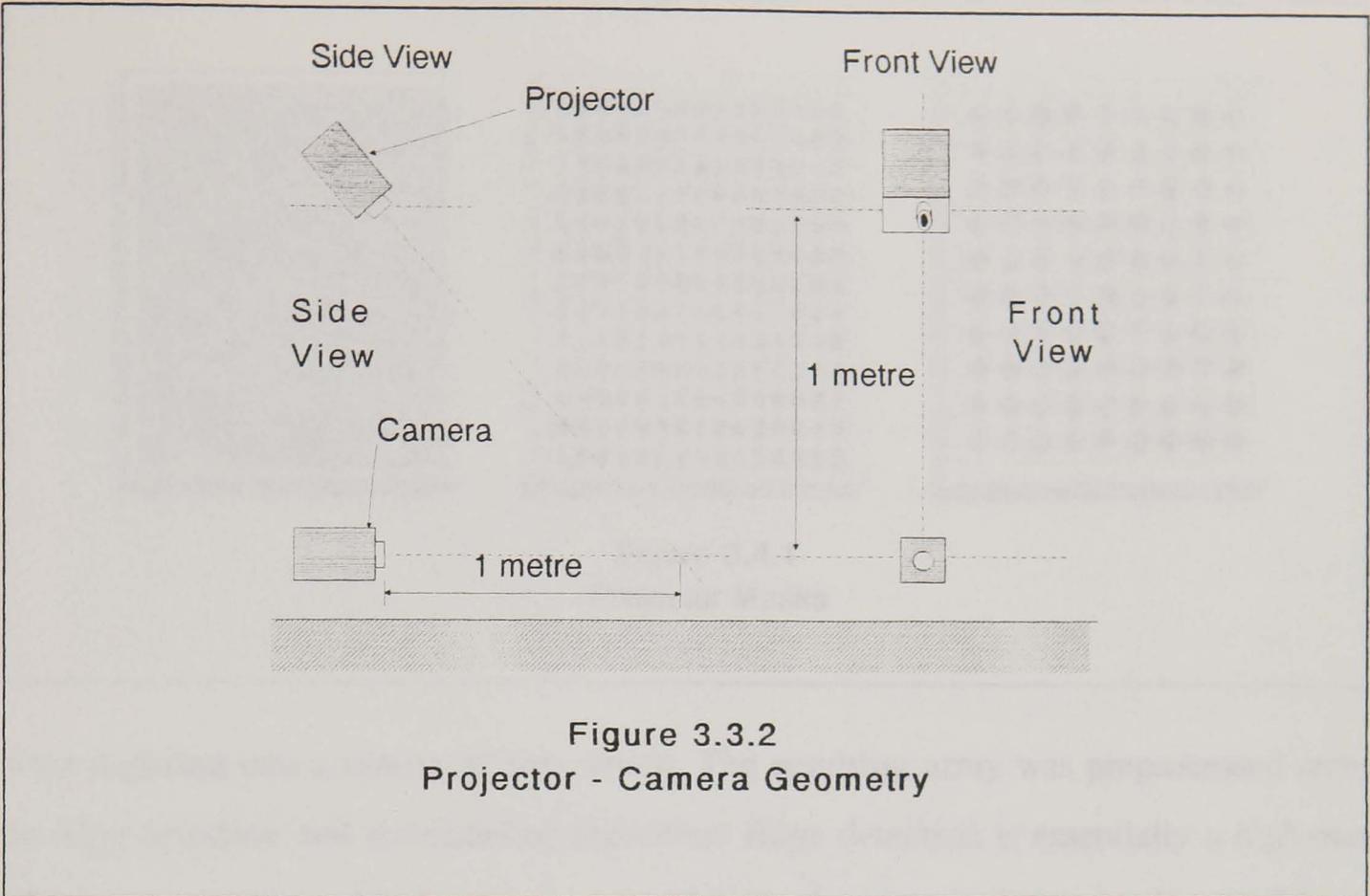
images are required and image processing is carried out off line. Moreover, in monochrome laser light systems, surfaces with a narrow colour band will only reflect certain colours of light^[59]. This problem does not occur when 'white' light, produced for example by tungsten-halogen light sources is used because its spectrum contains components of many colours. Detectable levels of white light are therefore reflected from a wide range of surfaces.

The following design work draws on the research carried out for the machine perception system described earlier^[55,56]. A novel light pattern has been developed which allows the image processing task to be simplified in order to increase the speed of operation. The light generation and projection system is based on a white light source and adopts a single 'snap-shot' approach suitable for mobile systems.

3.3 Method of Light Generation and Projection

A standard slide projector is used to generate white light illumination. This allows experiments to be easily carried out using projection masks housed in a standard 35mm photographic slide format. Figure 3.3.1 shows a diagram of the lens system. The geometry of the light projector and CCD camera (described in the next chapter) are illustrated in figure 3.3.2. The aim of the system is to project a light pattern onto the floor ahead of the automated guided vehicle, and detect the distortion of the light pattern caused by objects emerging

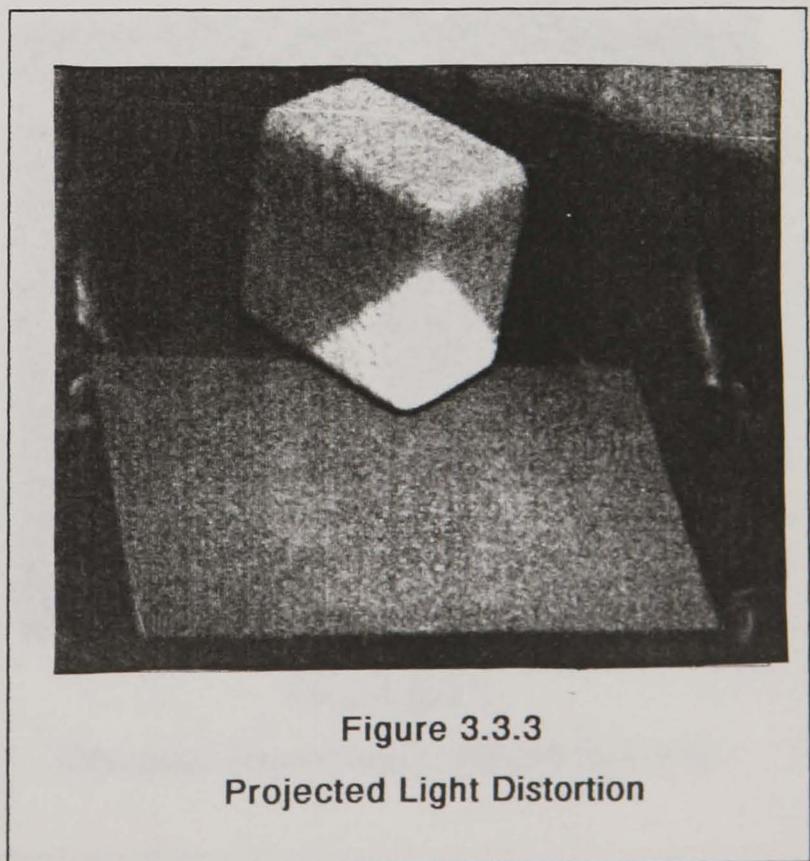


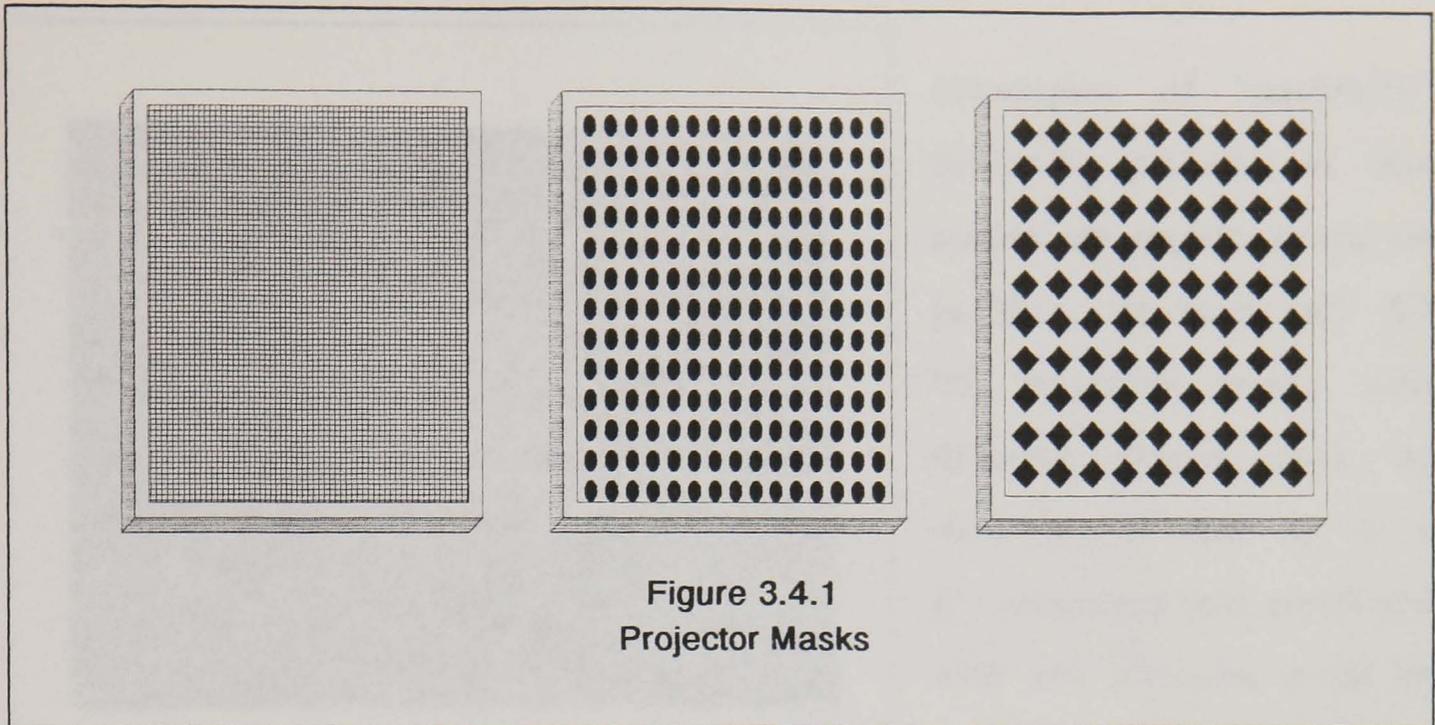


into the projection area (figure 3.3.3). The type of light pattern and the amount of information required to reliably detect obstacles determines the speed of operation.

3.4 Design for a Novel Light Coding System

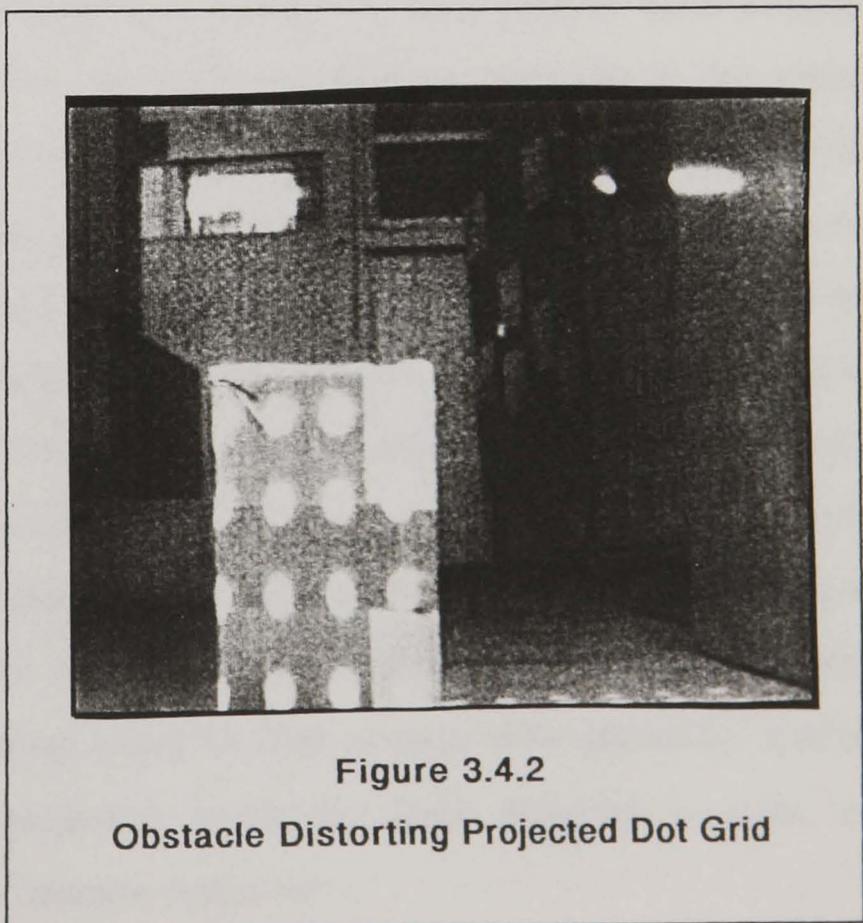
Various projection masks were used in experiments, including those illustrated in figure 3.4.1. The presence of the pattern, for example the dot grid shown in figure 3.4.2 indicates the position of an obstacle. In order to detect the pattern by computer, images





were digitised into a matrix of grey levels. The resulting array was preprocessed using an edge detection and thresholding algorithm. Edge detection is essentially a high-pass filtering procedure which accentuates abrupt changes in contrast in an image. Thresholding is a selection procedure used to determine which edges are accepted for image analysis and which are ignored^[60,61]. These processes help to eliminate the effects of disparate contrast caused by variable ambient lighting conditions and obstacle surfaces. The result of this computational stage produced the toroidal shapes visualised in figure 3.4.3. The presence and position of these shapes indicates the size and position of an obstacle.

The most effective masks are those which project patterns that are unlikely to occur naturally



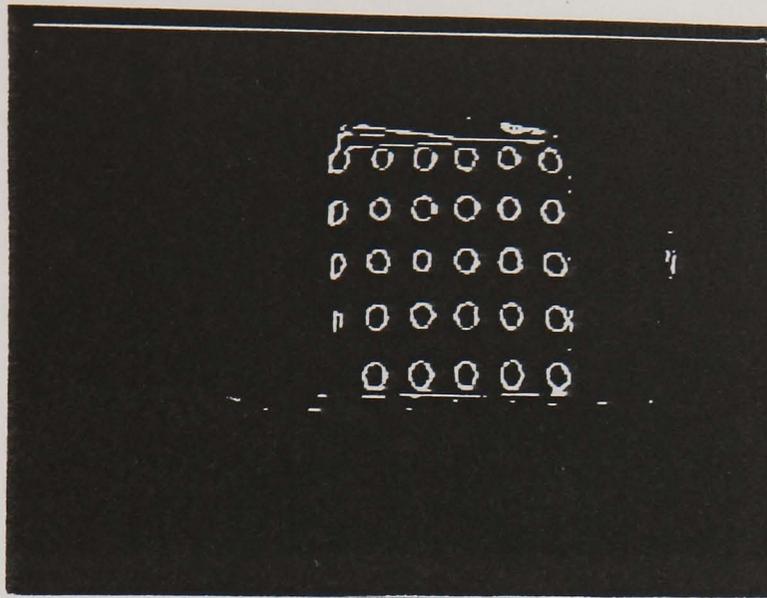


Figure 3.4.3
Distorted Dot Grid After Edge
Detection and Thresholding

(examples of 'naturally' occurring patterns in this context are graphics or text on packing case sides etc). All the projection masks with discrete shapes such as diamonds or dots set in a predetermined grid performed well and obstacles could be reliably detected. However the tasks of two-dimensional edge detection and thresholding are too time consuming to be

carried out by a low-cost embedded computer. The design was therefore simplified to reduce the processing demands whilst maintaining its reliability.

When objects enter the projection area, they disturb the light pattern. Consequently, this distortion appears to 'grow' from the floor and progress vertically in the image (figure 3.4.4). This effect is enhanced by virtue of the projector/camera geometric relationship as shown in the results presented in later chapters. Vertical bar patterns can be used to enable the image processing task to be reduced from two dimensions to one, providing that objects are stood on the floor (figure 3.4.5). In order to detect obstacles, the system needs to process only a narrow horizontal strip of the image which corresponds to the position where objects begin to distort the light pattern (figure 3.4.6). However, uniform bar patterns may become confused with patterns occurring on objects which are not obstacles to be avoided. For example uniform markings on distant walls or packing cases, or iron railings with uniformly spaced vertical supports etc. A coded projection mask has been designed to assist in overcoming this possibility of false obstacle detection^[53].

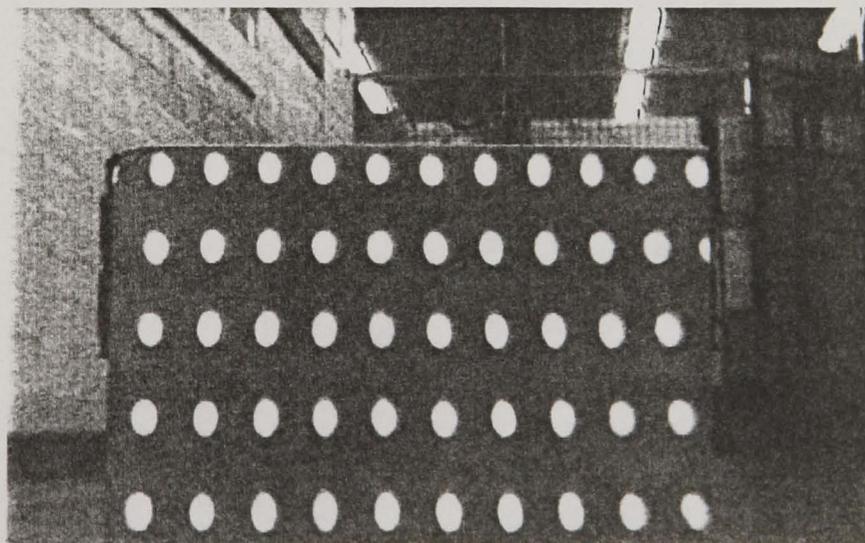
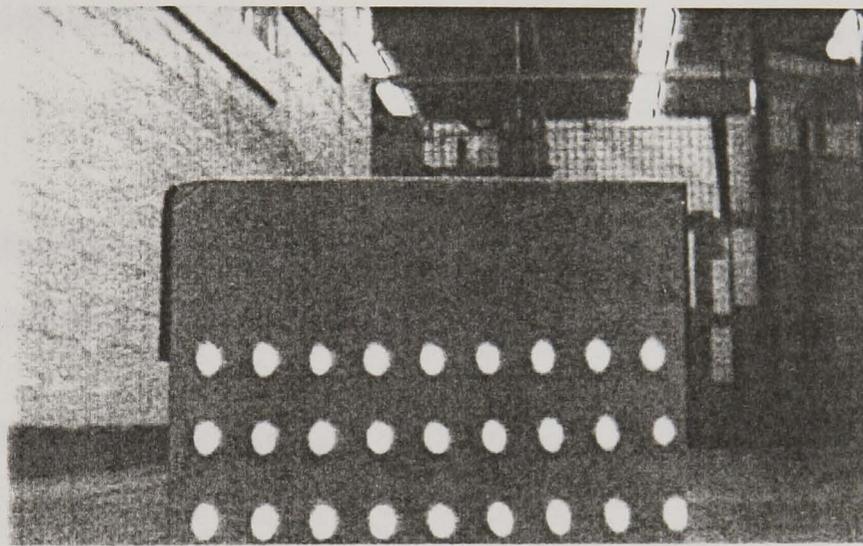
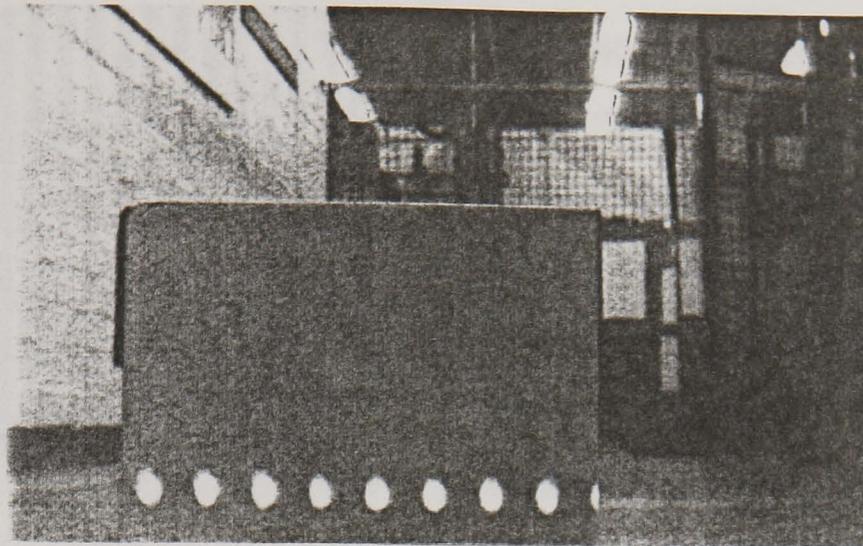


Figure 3.4.4
Projected Light Pattern Tends to 'Grow'
from the Ground

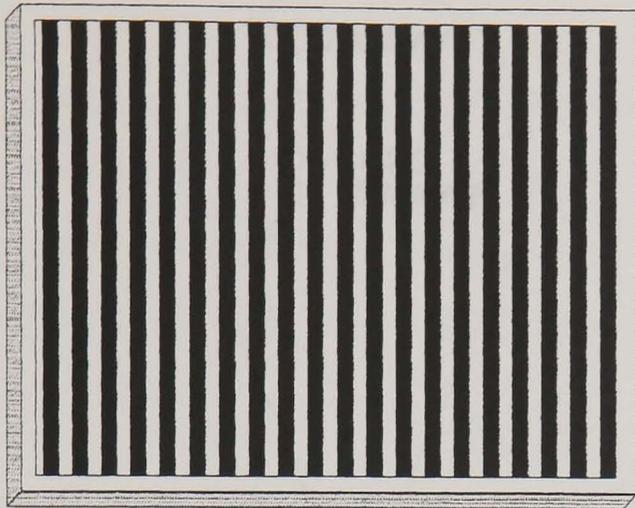


Figure 3.4.5
Uniform Vertical Bar Pattern

In general, codes with a large 'information' content will result in the most reliable obstacle detection. Such a code could be realised in the form of a projection mask consisting of several differently spaced vertical bars. However, the major disadvantage of this approach, is that only large obstacles, disturbing the whole projected pattern could be reliably detected. Since the system must also be able to detect 'thin'

obstacles, several discrete codes across the image must be used and a compromise between code size and video system resolution must be found.

Several factors affect the design of a compromise light code including the

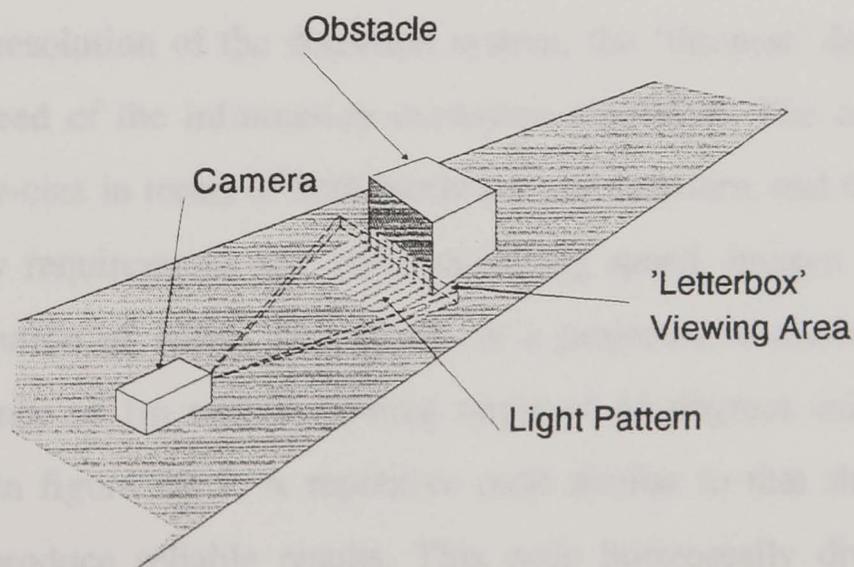
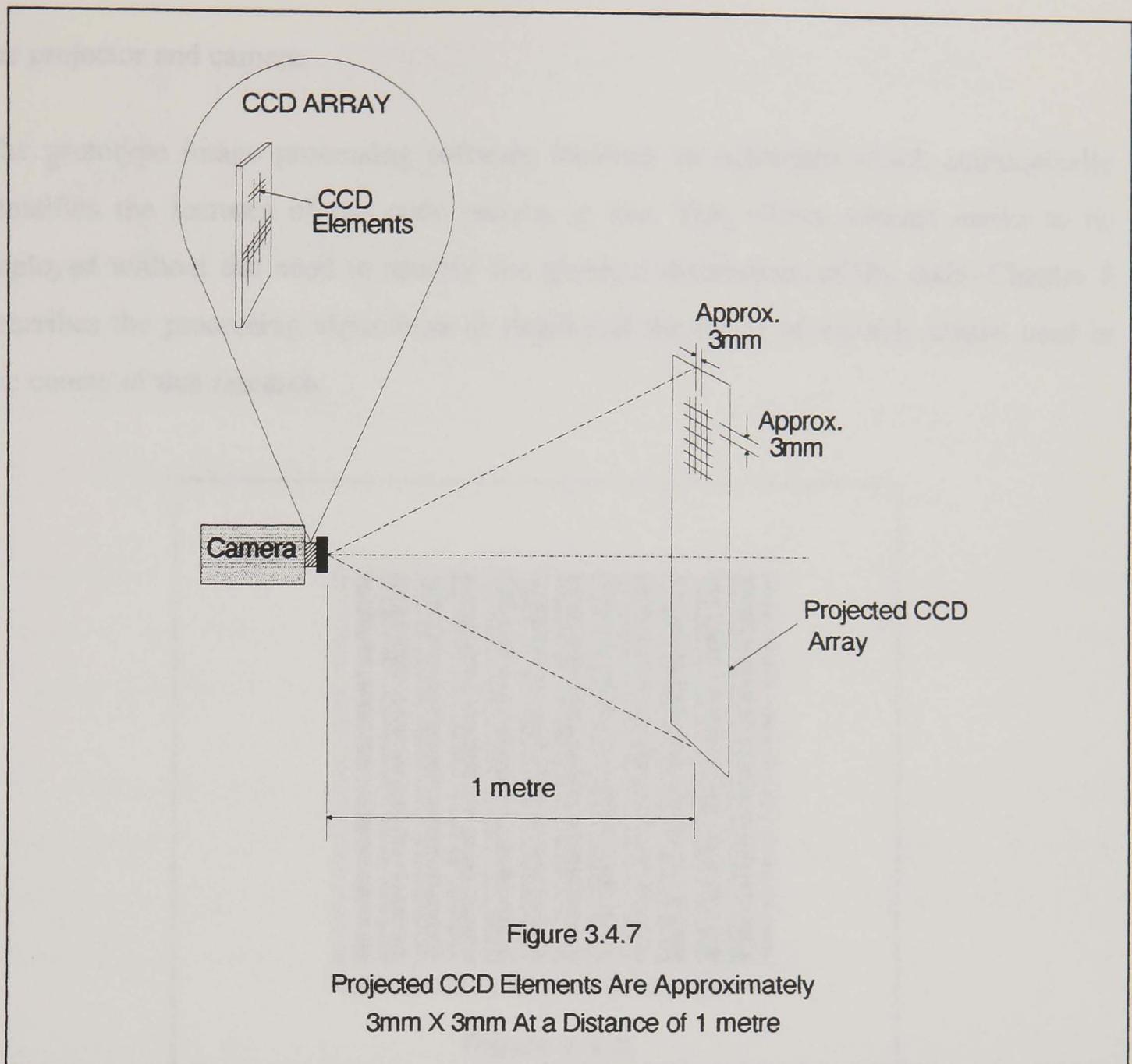


Figure 3.4.6
'Letterbox' Viewing Area



aformentioned resolution of the detection system, the 'thinnest' detectable object, and the required speed of the information extraction algorithm. The central theme of this design is its low-cost in terms of both hardware and software, and therefore to maintain modest memory requirements and high processing speed, images are digitised with a horizontal resolution of 1:256. This results in a projected resolution of approximately 3mm at a distance of 1m with a viewing angle of 45 degrees using a 12mm camera lens as shown in figure 3.4.7. A repetitive code similar to that shown in figure 3.4.8 was found to produce reliable results. This code horizontally divides the projection area into discrete regions. The detection of any complete code indicates the presence of an obstacle and its position in the image reveals the position of the obstacle in front of

the projector and camera.

The prototype image processing software includes an algorithm which automatically identifies the features of the code pattern in use. This allows various masks to be deployed without the need to specify the physical dimensions of the code. Chapter 5 describes the processing algorithms in detail and the range of suitable masks used in the course of this research.

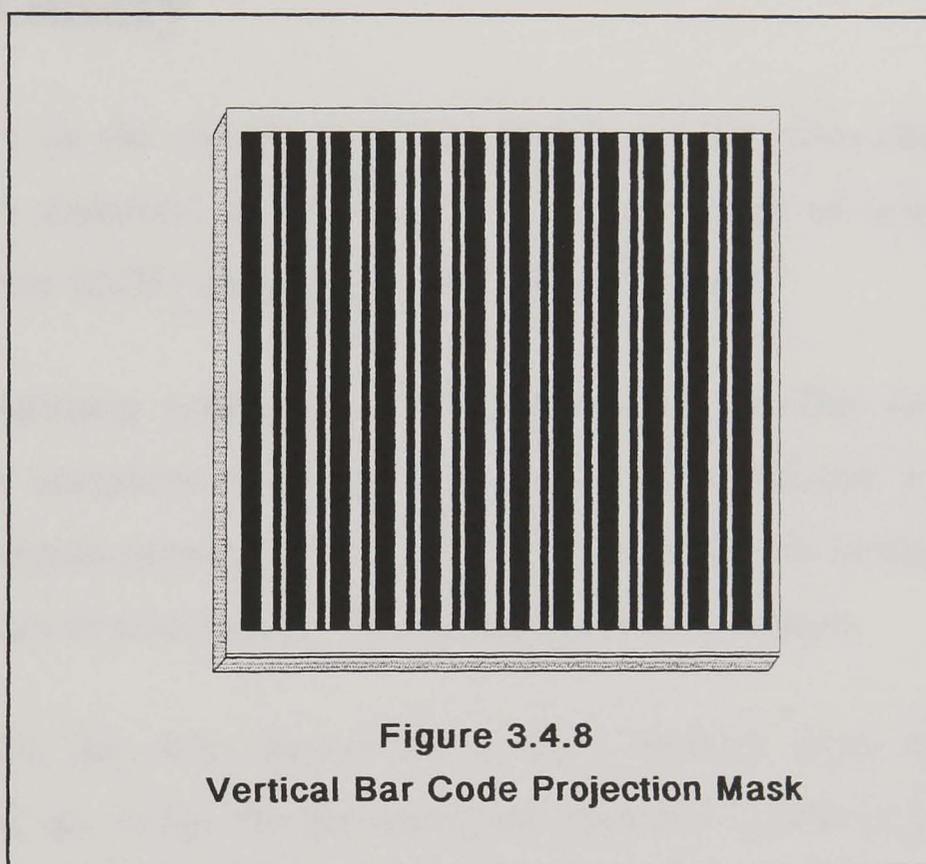


Figure 3.4.8
Vertical Bar Code Projection Mask

4 HARDWARE FOR THE OBSTACLE DETECTION AND EMBEDDED COMPUTER SYSTEM

4.1 Summary

The hardware for the obstacle avoidance system and the video camera used to detect obstacles are described in this chapter. The advantages of using robust Charged Coupled Device (CCD) image sensors are also highlighted.

The video digitising system is described in section 4.3. This unit takes a standard monochrome composite video signal as input and transforms it via a high-speed analogue to digital converter into a 256 X 256 array of grey levels. This array is in a form which can be processed by the embedded computer system.

In section 4.4, the main features of the Intel MCS-51 series microcontrollers are discussed and the design for the embedded computer system is presented. A shared memory access scheme is described which enables the microcontroller to gain fast access to the digitised video image array.

Finally in section 4.5, the complete embedded software development system is discussed with particular reference to the methods used to design and debug Intel 8051 assembler codes.

4.2 The CCD Video Camera as a Sensing Element

The falling cost of CCD arrays together with their improving quality makes them eminently suitable for use in machine vision systems. Also, the robustness of modern CCDs allows their use in systems that may be subject to noise, vibration and other harsh environmental conditions. A low-cost monochrome CCD video camera is used as the detection element of the obstacle avoidance system.

A particular feature of the 1/2" CCD array used in this design is its sensitivity, which enables the camera to operate in light levels down to 0.5 Lux. Conversely, a built in auto-iris adjusts the camera aperture according to the average light intensity falling on the CCD array to prevent saturation in bright ambient light conditions.

The array consists of 370 X 350 light sensitive elements. Since the overall vision system resolution is limited by the Video Frame Store rather than the camera, this CCD camera fulfils the system requirements.

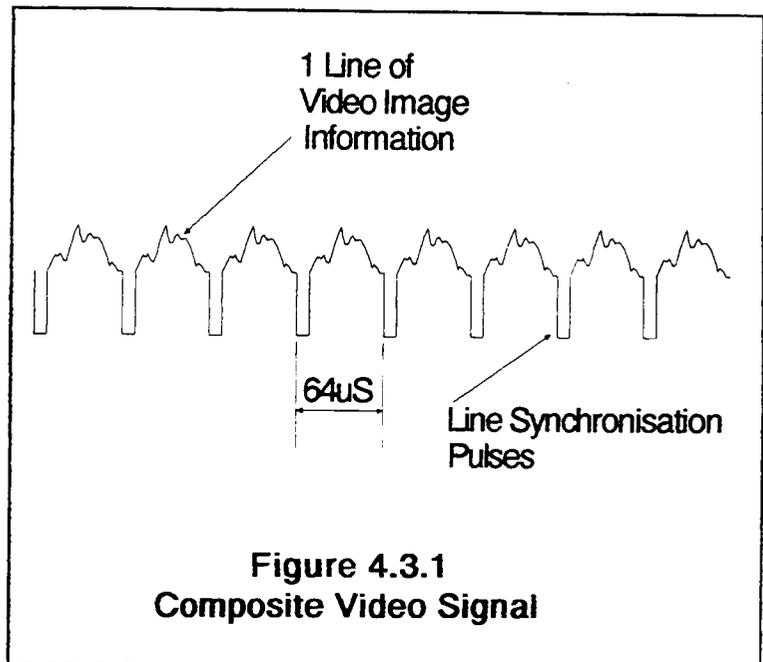
For objects to be avoided without collision, the projected light pattern must produce an image at least as wide as the automated vehicle when it is focused on the floor. A viewing angle of 45 degrees is required for the camera to detect the full width of such an image at a distance of approximately one metre. This is achieved by using a 12mm wide-angle camera lens.

4.3 Description of the Video Digitising System

A central feature of digital image processing systems is that they convert standard composite video signals generated by cameras of the type described in section 4.2 into a form which can be processed by a computer. This is normally achieved by digitising

the video signal and storing it in a memory array. Each picture element (or pixel) has a numeric value representing the light intensity, or grey level, of the corresponding point in the video image. Figure 4.3.1 shows the form of a composite video signal. As its name suggests, it is an amalgamation of video information and timing waveforms. As can be seen from the figure, each video line (corresponding to lines on a video monitor or television) takes 64 micro-seconds to update. Standard video frames consist of 625 lines (in the UK), and therefore the complete video image is updated in 50 milliseconds. However, since this update rate can be detected by the human eye and becomes irritating after a short

viewing time, (the television or video screen ‘flickers’), a system of ‘interlacing’ is employed to alleviate the effect. Rather than transmitting video signals as line 1 through to 625 consecutively, interlacing operates by transmitting odd lines in one screen update and even lines in the next. This effectively reduces the flicker effect and makes television and video screens less irritating to watch.



If the full resolution of 625 video lines are not required, the video interlacing need not be used. For example if a video processing system has a vertical resolution of 256 lines, it is unimportant whether odd or even lines are used and therefore complete screen updates can take place in 25 milliseconds.

With reference to figure 4.3.1, each video line signal lasts 64 microseconds. For a horizontal resolution of say 256 pixels in a digitised image array, the video line signals must be sampled at 250 nanosecond intervals (for real-time operation). As already

mentioned this would result in a video memory array being completely updated in either 25 or 50 milliseconds depending on whether interlacing was used or not. High speed analogue to digital conversion, (with a sampling rate in the order of 8-10 megahertz) is required to achieve such real time video digitisation. Some video digitising systems overcome this need for high speed conversion by taking one sample from each video line per screen update. However, for a digitised image resolution of 256 X 256 pixels, this requires 256 screen updates. A system of this type will therefore take 6.4 seconds to completely digitise a video frame. This is an unacceptable performance for most robotic systems.

The monochrome Video Frame Store described here^[62] operates in real-time with a resolution of 256 X 256 picture elements. Each pixel has a grey level value in the range 0-255. Interlacing is not used and therefore complete video images are digitised in 25 milliseconds.

Figure 4.3.2 shows the block diagram of the video frame store. An 8-bit analogue to digital converter was used in the system for the following reasons:

- ❑ The obstacle avoidance system is based on a low-cost 8-bit embedded microcontroller. Extra hardware and software overheads would be necessary for a word length greater than 8 bits and the operating speed of the system would be reduced.
- ❑ The cost of greater resolution analogue to digital converters that operate at speeds fast enough to digitise video signals in real-time is high.
- ❑ The limitations of 8-bit grey level and spatial resolution can be effectively overcome using digital filters implemented in software (see chapter 5).

With reference to the video frame store block diagram (figure 4.3.2), the synchronisation signals are separated from the video information and the resulting video signal is amplified and converted into 8 bit digital words. The control section of

the frame store writes these digitised samples to the correct addresses in the 64K video memory array via the memory access buffers shown in the diagram. (These are discussed in section 4.4).

In the prototype video frame store, a digital to analogue converter and associated control circuits are included to enable digitised images to be displayed on a standard composite video monitor. The digitised video data written to the memory array is constantly reread and converted back to an analogue signal. This signal is scaled and clamped to the correct voltage levels and synchronisation waveforms are mixed with it to reconstitute a composite video signal. The integrity of the video memory can be checked using this facility since a read or write failure will be reflected in the reconstituted video display. Also, the results of intermediate stages of video processing may be viewed as an aid to development. This section of the video frame store would be omitted from the finished product.

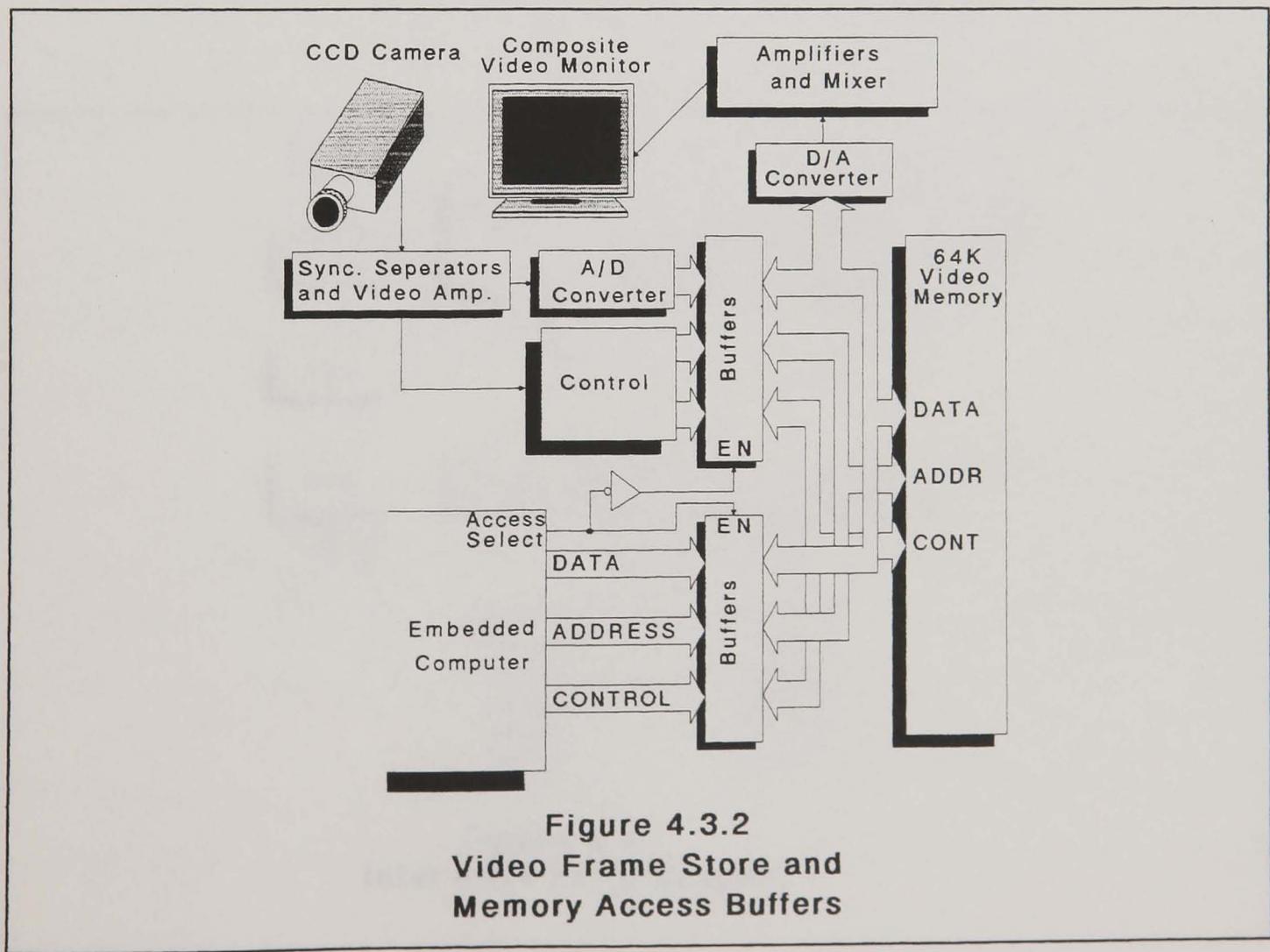
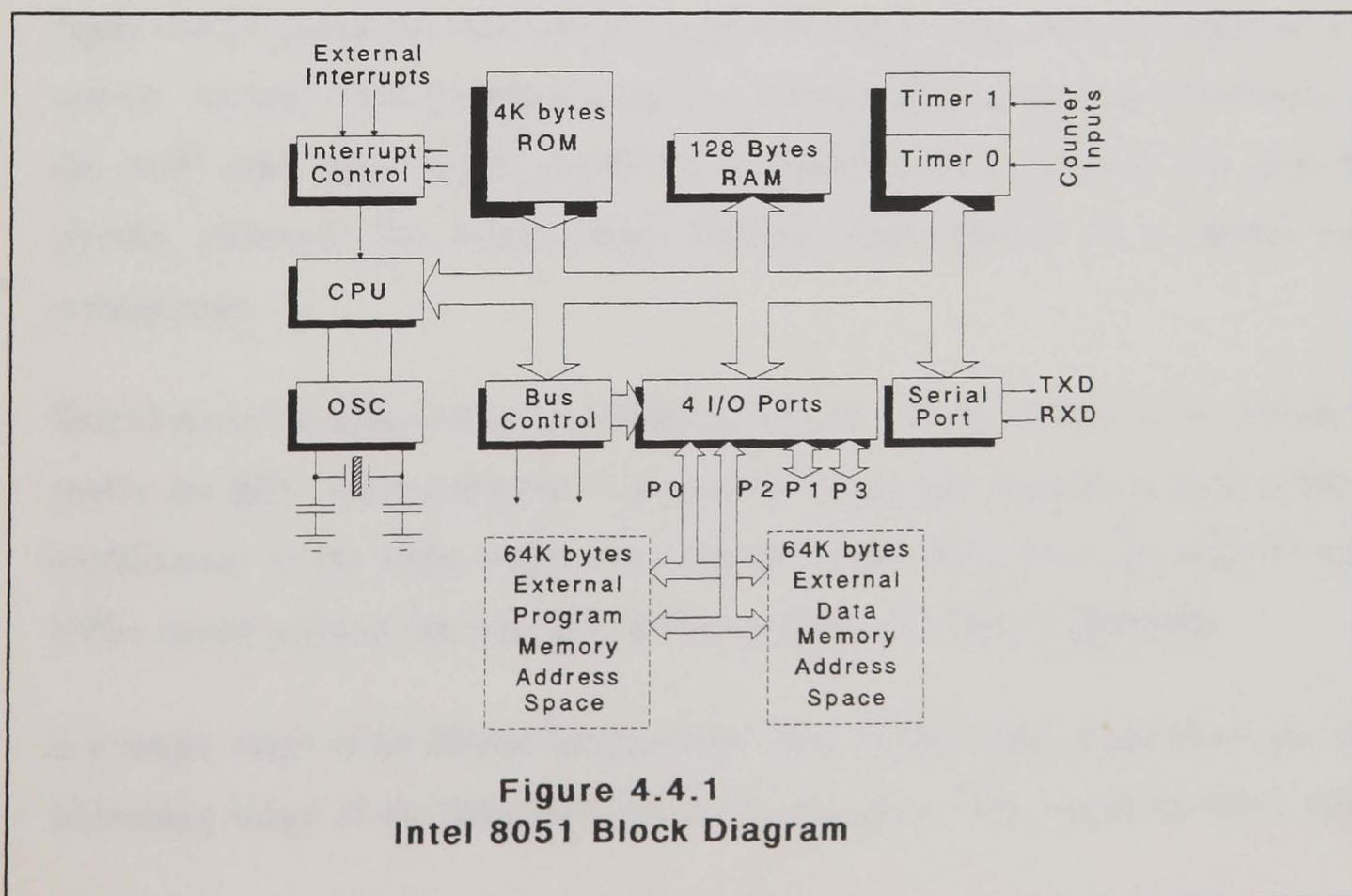


Figure 4.3.2
Video Frame Store and
Memory Access Buffers

4.4 Introduction to the Intel MCS-51 Series Microcontroller

The MCS-51 series Intel microcontrollers consist of a family of 8 bit single-chip computers which are ideal for embedded applications. Figure 4.4.1 shows the block diagram of the original member of the family, the 8051. The main features of this integrated circuit are:

- ❑ 8 bit Central Processing Unit optimised for control applications.
- ❑ Boolean processing (ie. single bit) capabilities.
- ❑ 32 bidirectional and individually addressable I/O lines.
- ❑ 128 bytes of on-chip data RAM.
- ❑ Two fully programmable 16 bit timer / counters.
- ❑ Full duplex Universal Asynchronous Receiver Transmitter.
- ❑ 5 source interrupt structure with 2 priority levels.



- ❑ On chip clock oscillator.
- ❑ 4K bytes on-chip program memory (one time only programmable ROM).
- ❑ 64K bytes program memory address space.
- ❑ 64K bytes data memory address space.

The second member of the family is the Intel 8031. This chip has all the features of the 8051 except for the 4K bytes on-chip ROM. Instead, the 8031 fetches all instructions from external program memory.

Other members of the family include 80CXX CMOS versions of the chip featuring low power consumption and 83CXX versions which incorporate facilities including a watch-dog timer and power down mode of operation.

In this work a single 8031 microcontroller is used for both obstacle detection and obstacle avoidance control. Figure 4.4.2.a shows the block diagram of the embedded computer system incorporating the Intel 8031 and associated interface circuitry and figure 4.4.2.b shows the data-memory map of the 8031 along with its allocation in this system. An Intel 8255 Peripheral Interface Adapter (PIA) is used for interfacing with the AGV main drive motor controllers discussed in later chapters. The Intel 8031 directly addresses the video image memory array directly in a shared access arrangement.

Shared access is achieved by incorporating memory access buffers in the circuits that enable the 8031 microcontroller to access the video data memory at high speed. No modification to the video frame store circuits is necessary since the memory access buffer circuit replaces the video RAM chips and uses the same connections.

If a single block of 64 Kbytes memory was used for the video frame store, the entire addressing range of the Intel 8031 would be occupied. This would not leave address

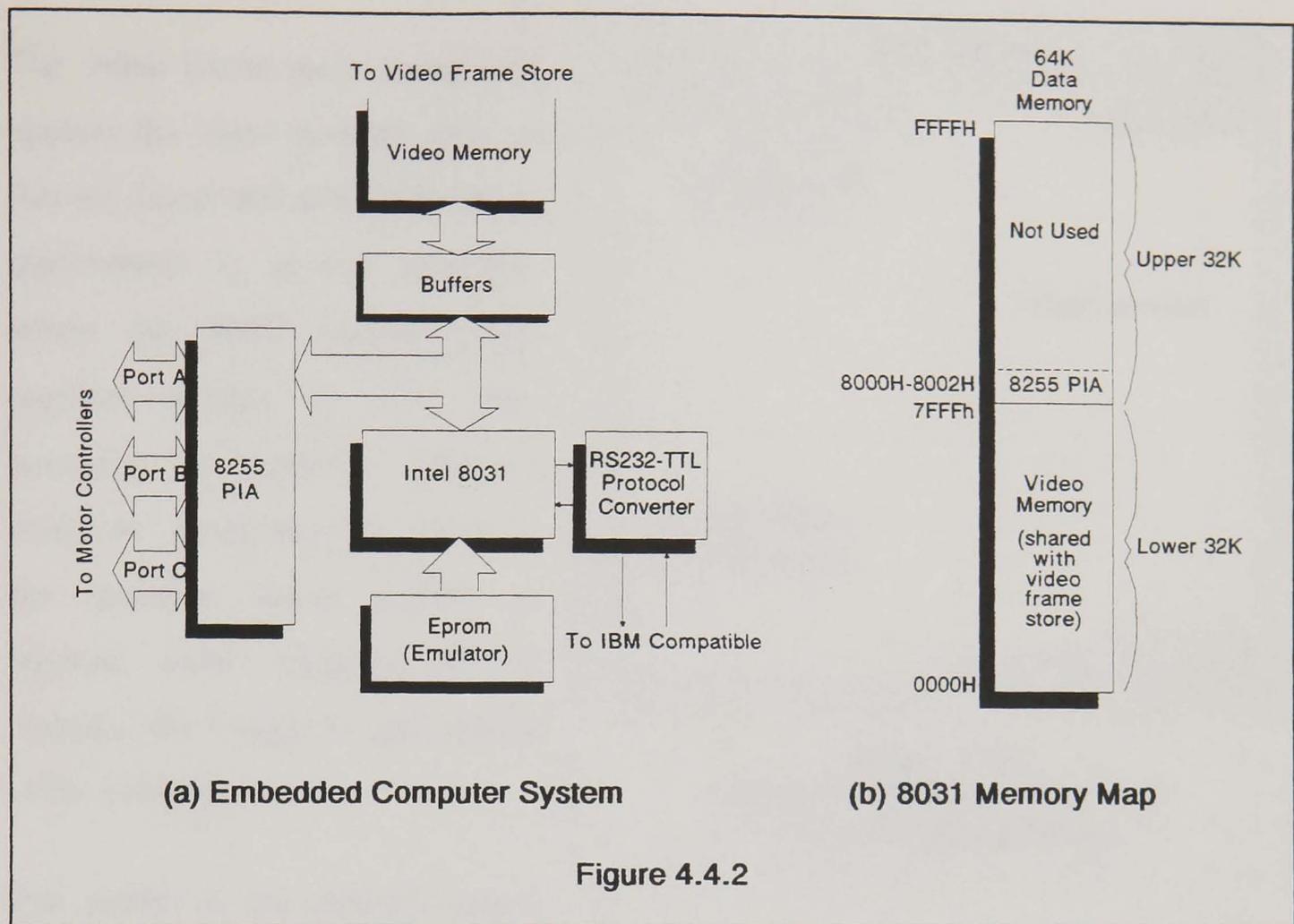
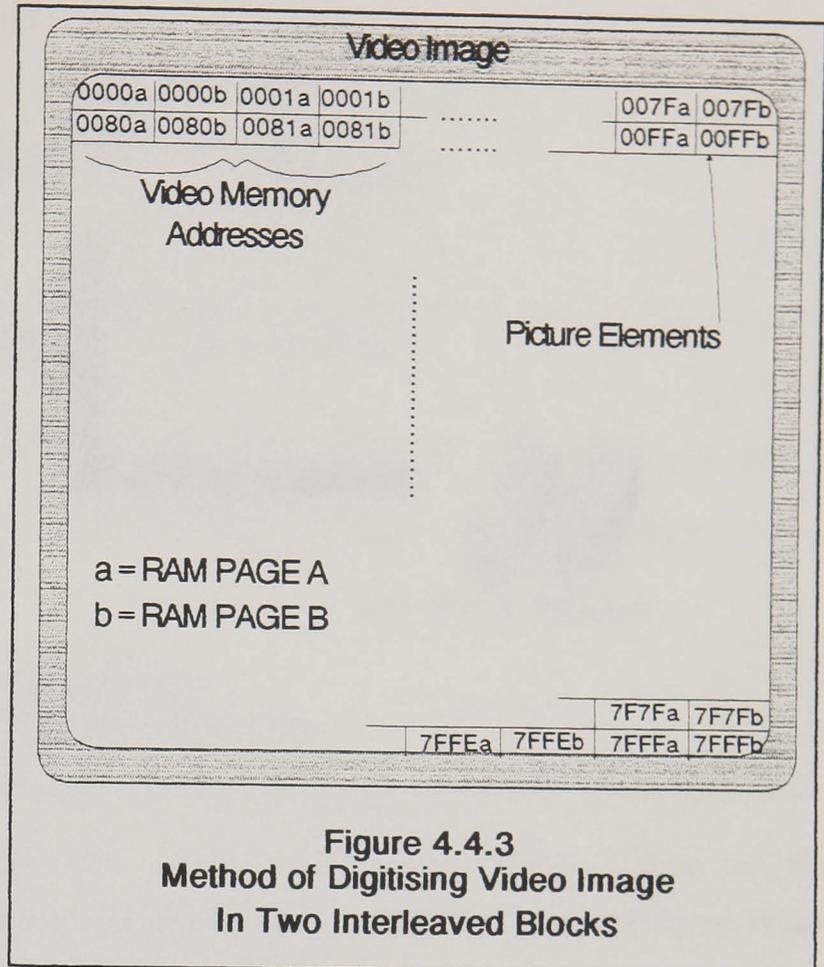


Figure 4.4.2

space for other devices such as the 8255 PIA and other possible system expansions. Furthermore, the speed constraints on the system are critical since digitising a video line into 256 pixels in real-time requires a write operation to the video memory approximately every 256 nanoseconds. These problems are overcome by using two interleaved 32 Kbyte 'pages' of memory rather than a single 64 Kbyte block. The organisation of these memory pages leaves 32 Kbytes Intel 8031 address space available and also relieves the system timing requirements. The two 32 Kbyte memory blocks are configured as shown in figure 4.4.3.

The two memory pages appear in the lower half of the 8031 data memory address map. Access to each 32K block is controlled via an additional control signal derived from one of the microcontroller input/output port pins. Each 32K memory is accessed once per two video-analogue to digital conversions effectively doubling the required write access time to around 500 nanoseconds.

The video frame store continually updates the video memory array so that the latest possible CCD image information is always available. When the 8031 microcontroller requires access to the video memory to perform obstacle detection processing, it switches the memory access buffers to suspend video updating (ie. it 'freezes' the image) to gain access to the memory.

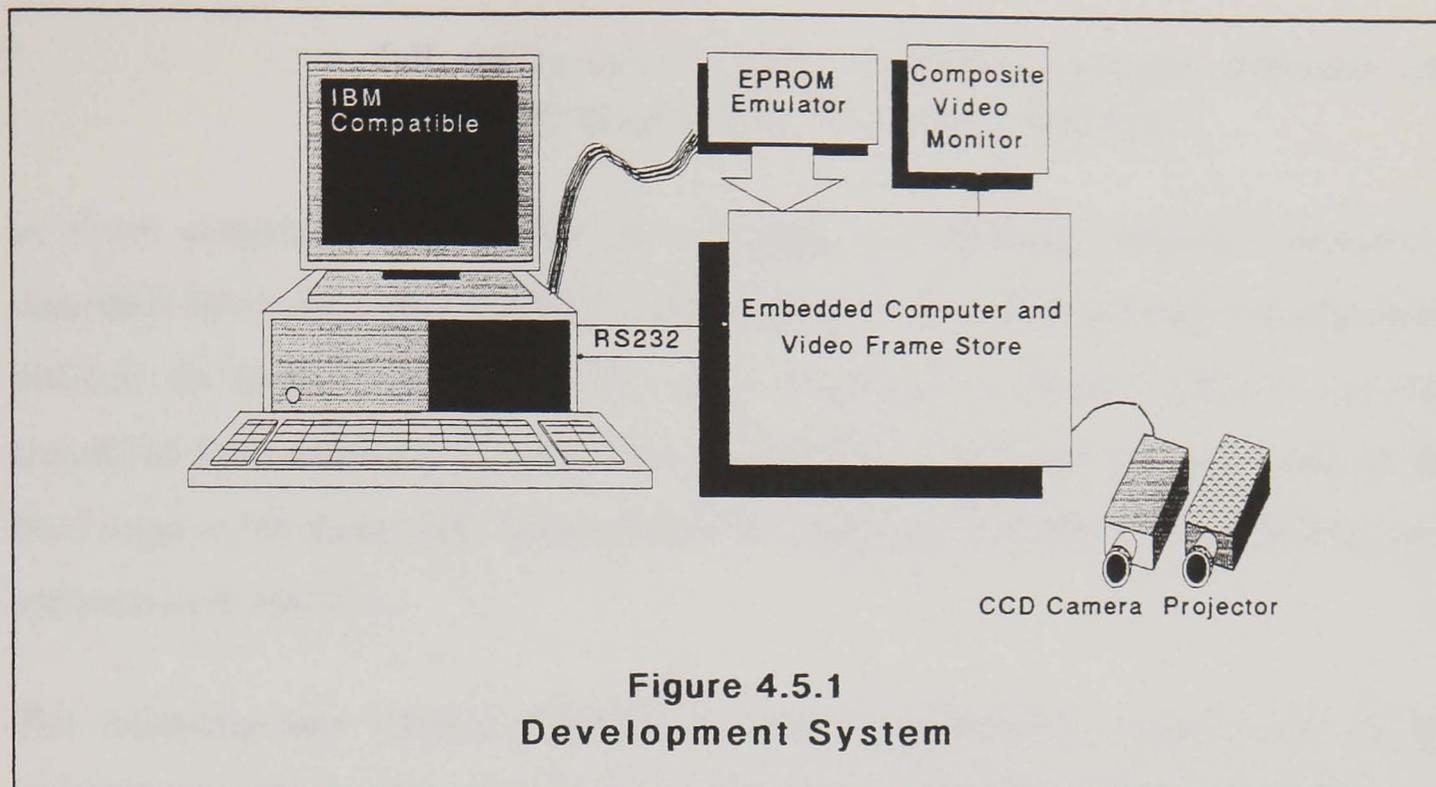


Full details of the memory access buffers and embedded computer circuits are included in appendix 1.

4.5 The Embedded Computer Development System

Figure 4.5.1 shows the schematic diagram of the embedded computer development system. The program development cycle consists of the following stages:

- i) Task evaluation and specification, (ie. what is required of the program and how will it be achieved).
- ii) Write program source code in 8051 assembler language mnemonics. The source code consists of text files that can be generated using any text editor.
- iii) Assemble source code files to produce 8051 machine code object files. This stage converts assembler mnemonics to Intel 8051 machine operation codes.
- iv) Link object files to produce a single contiguous machine code file. Most larger assembler programs are developed in a modular fashion. This reduces



development time since only the source code file being edited needs assembling, (rather than the whole program). Also, small sections of large tasks are more manageable and errors more easily isolated.

v) Transfer machine code file to EPROM Emulator in the embedded system. (The code then appears as program memory to the embedded computer). In general, the programs used in embedded computer systems can be referred to as 'firmware'. This is because they are stored in non-volatile Read Only Memory (ROM) chips on the embedded system circuit board. This is in contrast to 'software' which generally describes computer programs which are loaded into volatile memory to be executed. The task of reprogramming and erasing an Erasable ROM (EPROM) during development is time consuming and therefore an EPROM emulator is used. This is essentially a volatile memory which can be quickly loaded with a machine code file, but which appears to the embedded computer as ROM firmware.

vi) Reset embedded system and test software. The software testing stage can be particularly difficult in embedded systems, since often none of the debugging tools and displays available in higher level programming environments are available. The Intel 8031 on-chip Universal Asynchronous Receiver Transmitter has therefore been used for serially communicating with an IBM PC compatible computer. This results in the additional development stage:

Transfer data and variables via serial communications link to IBM compatible computer for debugging purposes. Hence the

full power of the IBM compatible computer keyboard and display can be used to aid software development.

In some complicated algorithms (for example the obstacle avoidance procedures described later) the task of coding software directly into 8051 assembler is extremely difficult. In these cases models were first developed in Turbo PASCAL and then simplified for conversion to Intel 8051 source code. Again full use was made of the final stage in the above development cycle to interface the PASCAL and machine code software as it evolved.

The following two chapters describe in detail the algorithms implemented on the embedded computer to process digitised video information and to detect obstacles.

5 DIGITAL SIGNAL PROCESSING

5.1 Summary

Coded patterns occur in the CCD video image due to the reflection of projected light patterns from objects on the floor ahead of the AGV. This chapter describes the techniques used to recover this code information from digitised video data.

Figure 5.1.1 shows the block diagram for the obstacle detection system. With reference to the figure, the obstacle detection system operates on digitised video data and is divided into three sections:

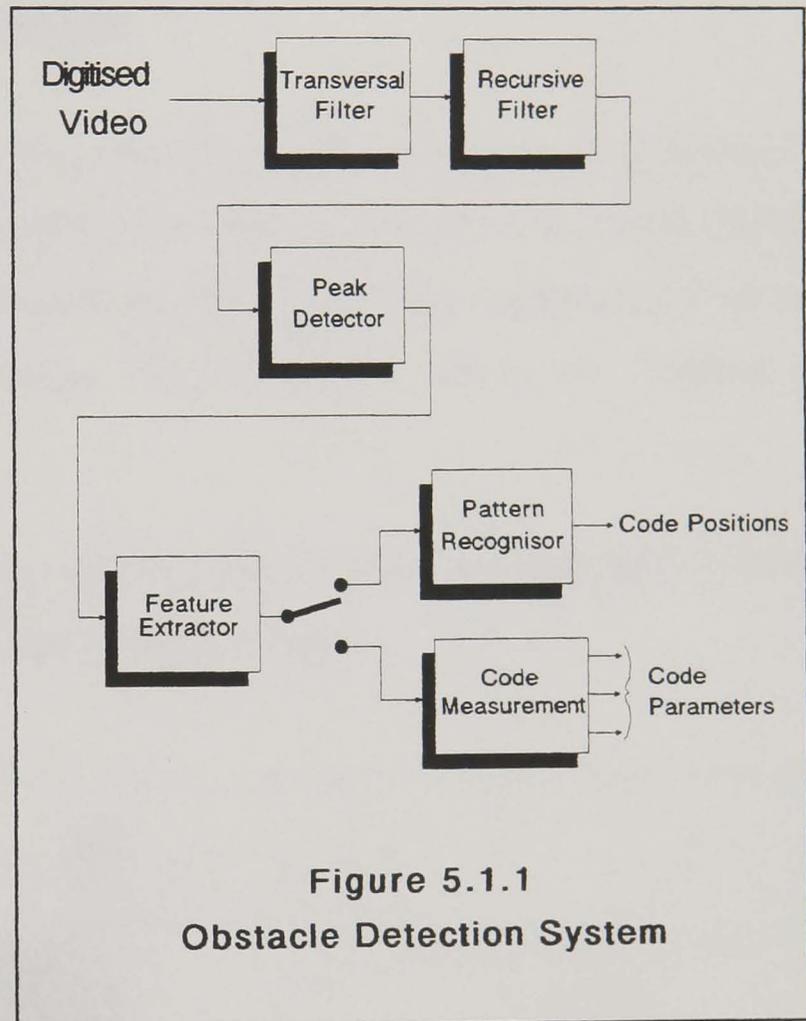


Figure 5.1.1
Obstacle Detection System

- ❑ A preprocessing stage which employs two digital filters that are described in section 5.2.
- ❑ Peak detection and feature extraction stages which isolate potential code parameters (detailed in section 5.3).
- ❑ Code measurement and recognition stages which are discussed fully in chapter 6

The digital filters described in section 5.2 perform a vital role in maximising the operating speed of the obstacle detection system. They are used as a preprocessing

stage to 'clean up' the video signal and act as a coarse 'sieve' for the data. So called 'direct methods' (see section 5.3) are then applied to extract potential code features from the preprocessed video data. Finally, valid codes are detected using a 'decision theoretic', pattern recognition technique described in chapter 6.

5.2 Digital Filter Design

Since the low cost video frame store and associated hardware are relatively limited in terms of resolution and grey level accuracy, the system is subject to a certain amount of quantisation error. This manifests itself as wide band noise superimposed on the digitised video signal. The digital filters described in this section are designed to reduce this effect.

Figure 5.2.1 shows a video-still together with a typically noisy graphical representation of a single horizontal line scanned across the lower image⁽¹⁾.

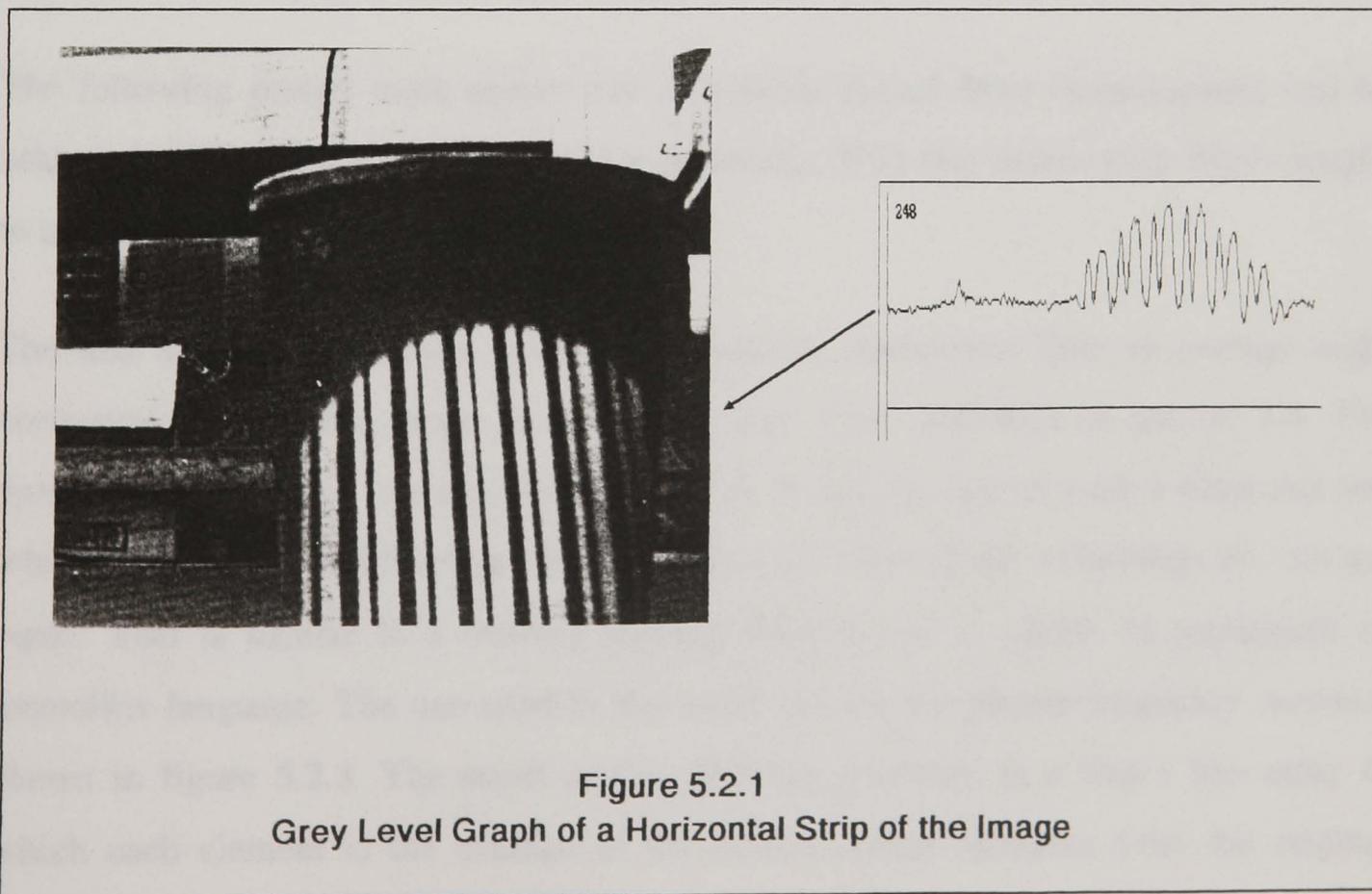


Figure 5.2.1
Grey Level Graph of a Horizontal Strip of the Image

(1) This graph along with others similar throughout this chapter were derived by transferring data from the embedded system to the IBM PC compatible computer via a serial communications link and using a specially written PASCAL program to present the data.

Digital filters were chosen in preference to analogue filters in this work, since after digitising, video data are in a highly suitable form for processing using discrete digital methods.

Dedicated digital signal processors were considered for the task of digital filtering. Although the operating speed of such devices is high, a comparison between dedicated signal processors and microcomputers showed the former to be relatively expensive with a low degree of flexibility. On the other hand, Signal processing using micro-computers is cost effective, flexible and requires a simple hardware design^[63]. Hence, with the special design considerations described next, the required digital filters were implemented in software on the Intel 8031 microcontroller.

The design of tightly specified finite impulse response filters for microprocessors is a complex task which is exacerbated by the restriction of using assembler language. This is due to the need for numerical accuracy. Insufficient accuracy in both the storage of numbers and calculations can compound the quantisation errors in the system and in some cases render the filters unstable^[64].

The following design work shows that acceptable digital filter characteristics can be achieved using exactly specified integer arithmetic. This fact makes such filters simple to implement with high execution speeds.

The first stage of processing uses a non-recursive transversal filter to average eight horizontal lines of the image in the 'letter box' view described in section 3.4. The operation of this filter is shown in figure 5.2.2. A special case of such a filter and one which does not require floating point arithmetic is when all the weightings $a_0...a_m$ are equal. This is similar to a moving average filter^[64] and is simple to implement in assembler language. The one used in this work has the magnitude frequency response shown in figure 5.2.3. The result of this filtering operation is a single line array in which each element is the average of the corresponding elements from the original

horizontal lines. The effect of this operation is to enhance the influence of persistent vertical patterns in the image array whilst reducing the effect of spurious noise or 'snow'. The choice of the number of lines to average depends on both the minimum height of the object being detected and the required algorithm execution speed. Whilst a large number of lines results in greater enhancement of vertical patterns, if the object in the

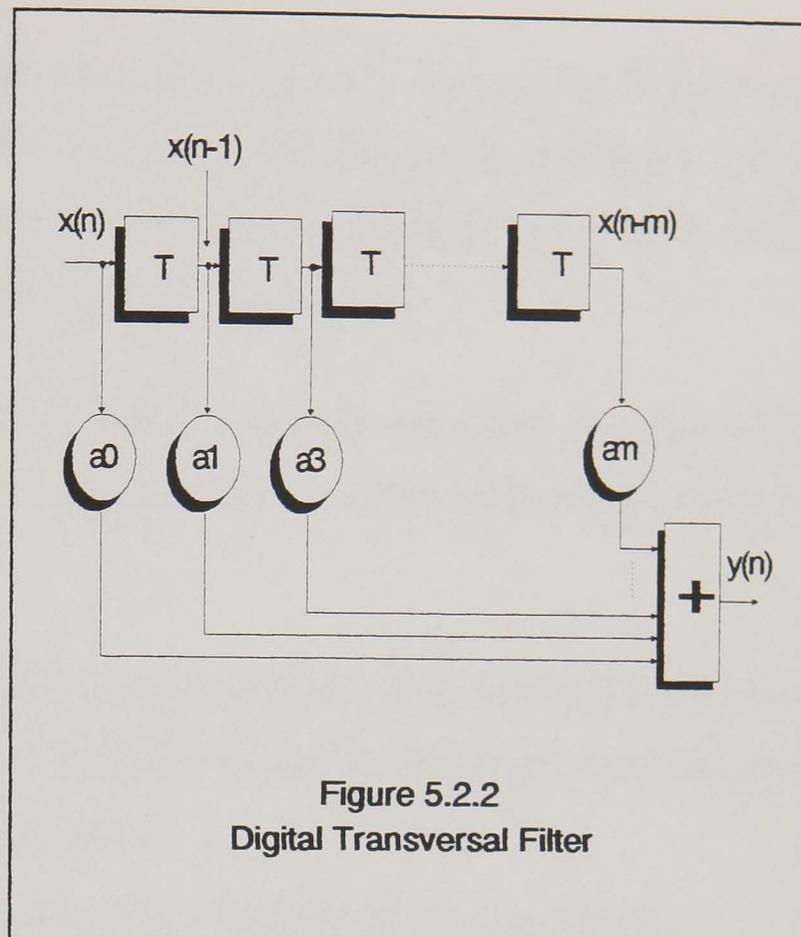
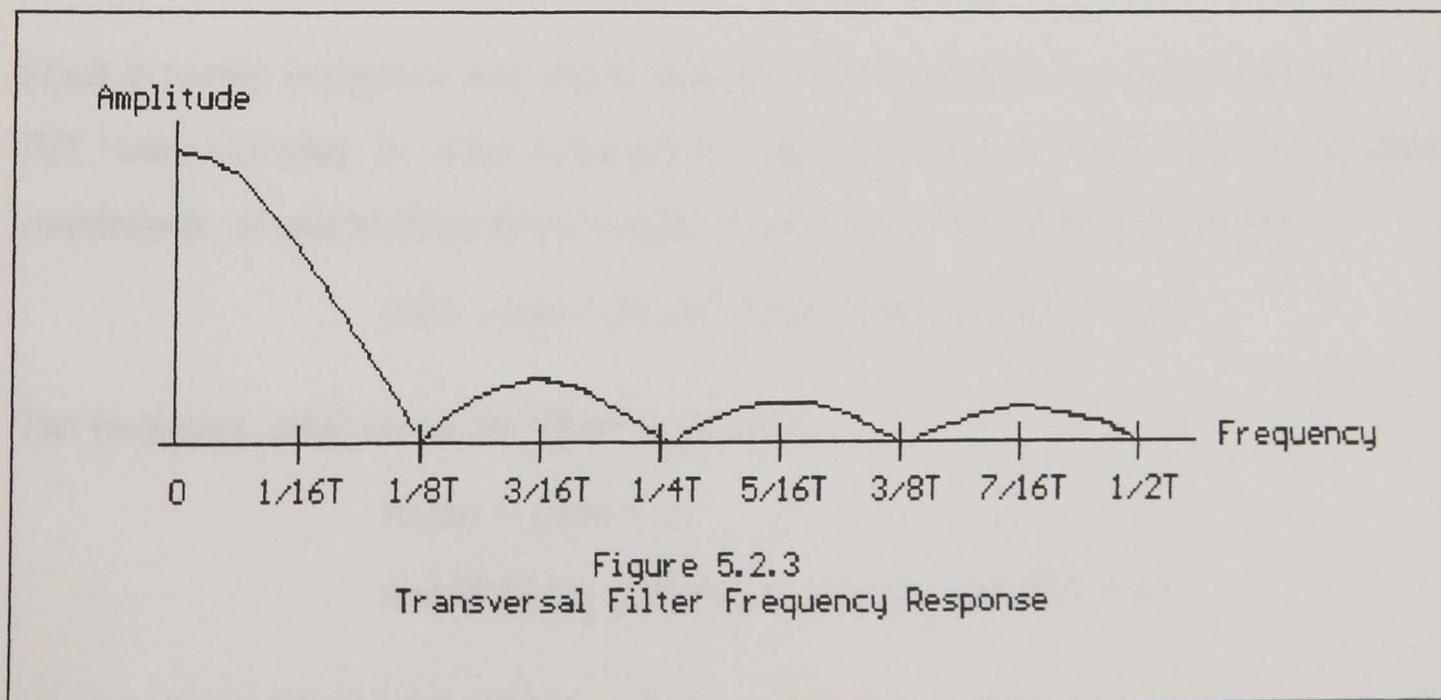


image is not tall enough to produce persistent vertical patterns, the process will fail. Conversely, if too few lines are averaged, the process has a reduced immunity to noise.

In order to maximise the execution speed of the digital transversal filter, only 'powers of two' horizontal lines were considered (ie. 2, 4, 8, 16 etc.). These values enable division calculations to be carried out efficiently using machine code arithmetic shift



right operations. Experiments showed that eight horizontal lines of the video image provides reliable obstacle detection combined with high execution speed. In the prototype design, this corresponds to a physical horizontal strip approximately 20mm when projected onto an object one metre in front of the camera.

The resultant array of 256 averaged elements is further processed to remove high frequency components in the horizontal direction. This is achieved by using a recursive digital filter.

An effective method of designing digital filters is to model their analogue counterparts using the bilinear transform method. This is the so called 'frequency transformation' method and is described in the following work:

Consider the fraction $F(z) = (z-1)/(z+1)$ where $z = e(sT)$

This is 'bilinear' in that both numerator and denominator are linear in the variable z . In order to show the value of the bilinear transform method for converting analogue filters to their digital counterparts, the spectrum of $F(z)$ must be determined as follows:

$$F(j\omega) = \frac{e(j\omega T)-1}{e(j\omega T)+1} = \frac{e(j\omega T/2)\{e(j\omega T/2) - e(j\omega T/2)\}}{e(j\omega T/2)\{e(j\omega T/2) + e(j\omega T/2)\}}$$

$$= j \tan \omega T/2$$

$F(j\omega)$ is purely imaginary and varies between 0 and infinity as ω varies between 0 and Π/T radians/second. In order to convert the analogue filter of figure 5.2.4 to its digital counterpart, all occurrences of the Laplace operator 'S' are replaced with $F(z)$:

$$H(s) = 1/(s + \alpha) \text{ and therefore } H'(z) = 1/[F(z) + \alpha]$$

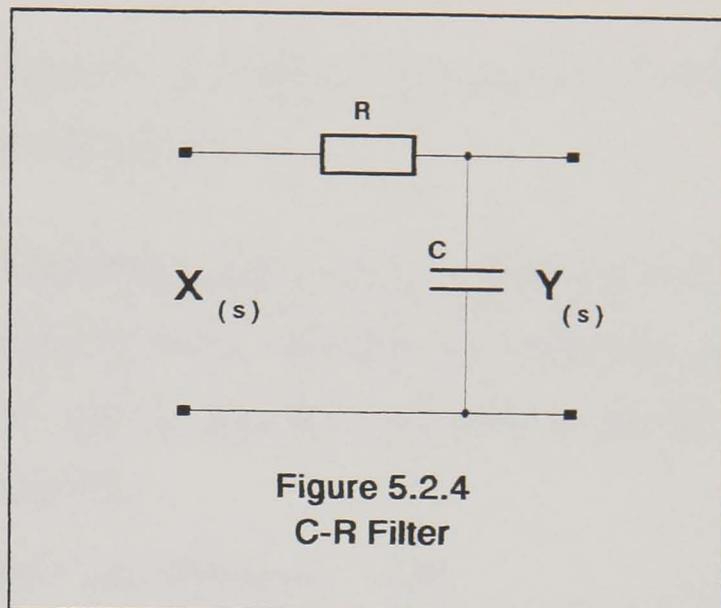
The frequency response of the filters is given by:

$$H(j\omega) = 1/(j\omega + \alpha)$$

$$\text{and } H'(j\omega) = 1/(F(j\omega) + \alpha) = 1/(j \tan \omega T/2 + \alpha)$$

The magnitude response of the digital filter is shown in figure 5.2.5.

When the required time constant of this low pass digital filter is specified, it can be converted into a recurrence formula as follows:



$$H'(z) = 1/[F(z) + \alpha] = 1/[(z-1)/(z+1) + \alpha] \text{ (where } \alpha = 1/\tau)$$

$$\text{therefore } Y(z)/X(z) = K (z + 1)/(z + A)$$

$$\text{where } K = 1/(1 + \alpha) \text{ and } A = (\alpha-1)/(\alpha+1)$$

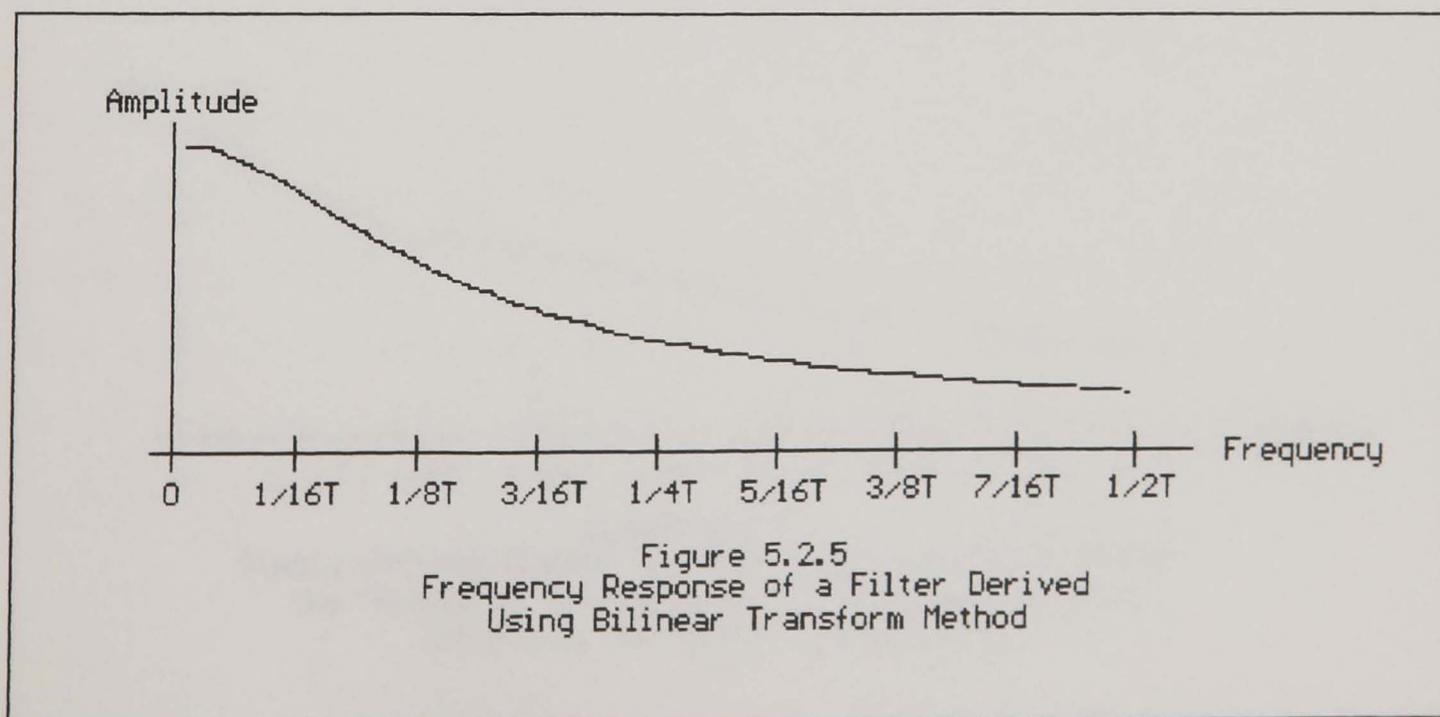
$$\text{so } Y(z) (z + A) = X(z) (z+1)$$

and the recurrence formula is:

$$K (Y_n + A Y_{n-1}) = X_n + X_{n-1}$$

$$\text{therefore } Y_n = X_n + X_{n-1}/K + A Y_{n-1}$$

An inspection of this result reveals that whilst the frequency response is of a suitable



shape, in general the filter coefficients 'A' and 'K' will require an accuracy of around four decimal places to give a satisfactory performance^[60].

A more direct approach can be taken when digitising analogue filters which results in a slightly degraded, but nevertheless acceptable, frequency response and which has the major advantage that the filter coefficients can be expressed precisely as integers. Considering again the analogue filter of figure 5.2.4

$$Y(s)/X(s) = 1/(1+SCR) = 1/(1+S\tau) \text{ since } \tau = CR$$

Writing this in the form of a difference equation (assuming a first order approximation for S):

$$Y(n) + \tau/T(Y(n)-Y(n-1)) = X(n)$$

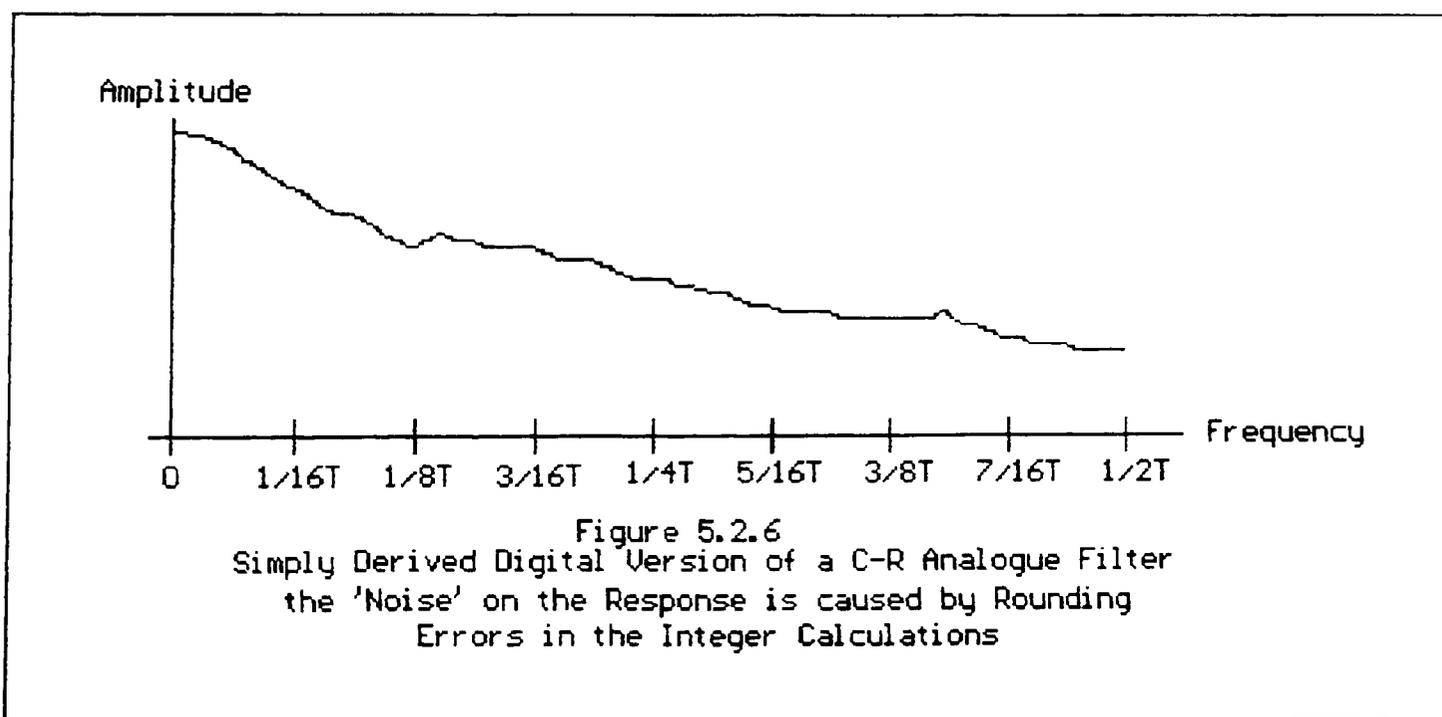
$$Y(n) = [X(n) + Y(n-1) \tau/T] / [1+\tau/T]$$

where T = sampling period

τ = Time constant

For integer implementation with a time constant of 3T, the difference equation is:

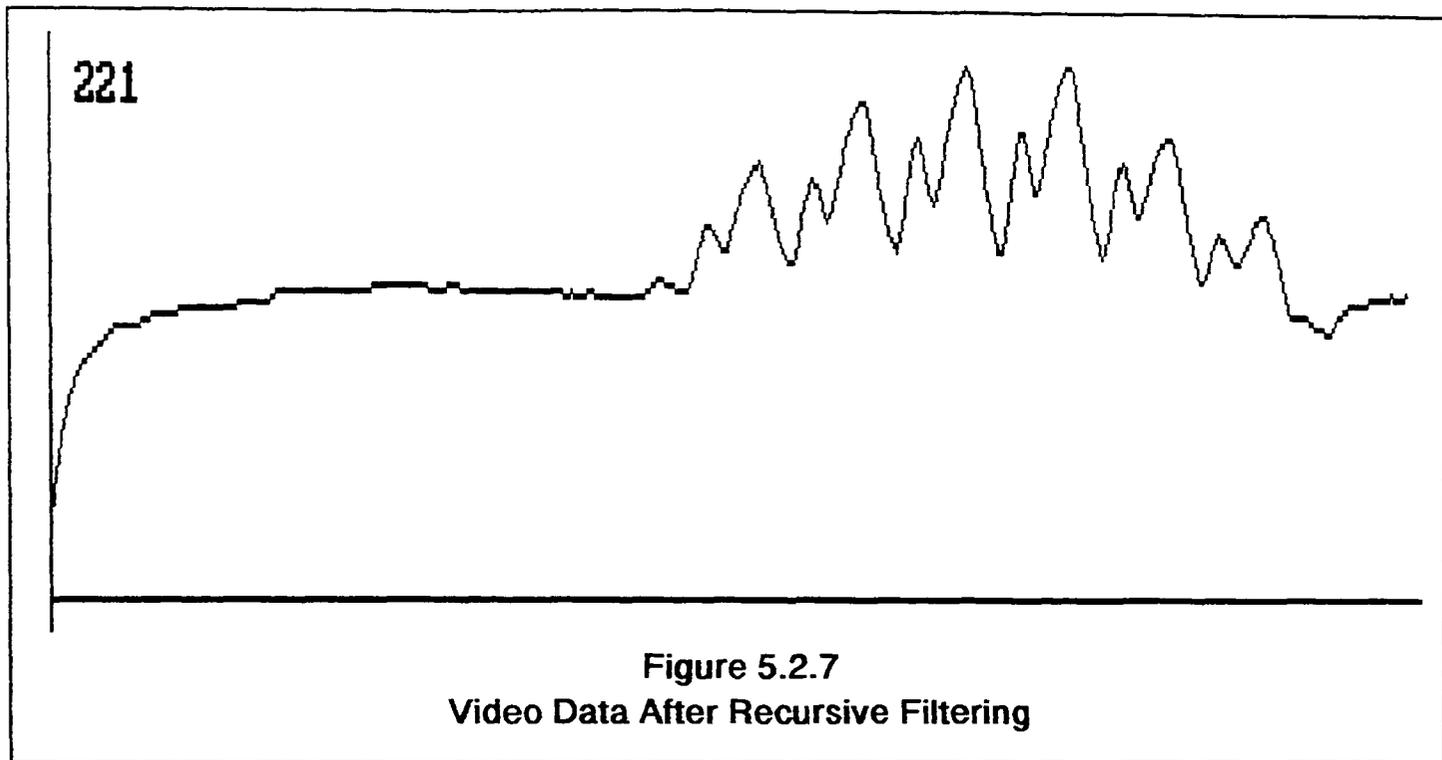
$$Y(n) = [X(n) + 3Y(n-1)]/4 \text{ (assuming T to be unity)}$$



For this time constant, the filter coefficients are shown to be exactly 3 in the numerator and 4 in the denominator. The magnitude frequency response of this filter is shown in figure 5.2.6. A comparison between figure 5.2.5 the filter characteristic derived through applying well known bilinear transform methods, and figure 5.2.6 using the simpler approach reveals that the latter's frequency response is only slightly degraded, but that the filter is much simpler and faster to implement. Furthermore, if a time constant is chosen which results in the denominator of the recurrence equation being a power of two, the algorithm can be efficiently encoded using arithmetic 'shift-rights' to perform the division calculation quickly.

Whilst the low pass filtering stages are essential for removing high frequency noise from the digitised image array to simplify later processing, care has to be taken not to filter out important information. The nature of the code pattern being sought from the array,(ideally high contrast light and dark bars) means that it has high frequency components in the abrupt changes between light and dark. If the cut off frequency of the low pass filter is excessively low, vital information may be lost. A compromise is therefore found by selecting a filter time constant to give the frequency response shown in figure 5.2.6. The final result of the filtering stages on the array from figure 5.2.1 is shown as the grey level graph in figure 5.2.7.

The recursive filtering stage affects the range of bar codes which can be used as projection masks due to the cut off frequency characteristics described in the previous paragraph. If the code period is short (ie. its frequency is high), true video data will be attenuated along with the quantisation noise which the low-pass filter is designed to remove. Conversely, when the code period is long, the 'thinnest' detectable object is limited. A compromise is reached in the prototype design with a code period of 16 'horizontal pixels', resulting in a thinnest detectable object of approximately 50mm.



5.3 Direct Methods for Code Feature Extraction

Direct methods (as opposed to frequency domain methods) are widely used in pattern recognition, particularly in the fields of speech recognition, image analysis and medical science^[65].

Frequency domain methods include Fourier analysis and matched filtering techniques that isolate frequency components of signals in order to match certain characteristic patterns. There are two main reasons why these methods are not adopted in this work:

- ❑ Frequency domain algorithms such as the Fast Fourier Transform generally require complex floating point arithmetic which is complicated to implement using assembler language.
- ❑ As already discussed in section 5.2, the video image of the binary code may be contaminated with noise of a similar frequency. It is not always possible to isolate useful information from the digitised signal using frequency domain methods alone.

Direct methods operate on the time series of signals directly rather than transforming them into the frequency domain. Two principle techniques of pattern recognition using direct methods are:

- ❑ The decision theoretic approach based on using numerically valued features for distinguishing a pattern class from all others.
- ❑ Syntactic and structured methods which use the models and techniques of formal language theory to analyse explicit or implicit characteristics of sub-patterns which form larger patterns^[66].

Syntactic and structured methods are suited to recognising 'families' of patterns in applications such as electro-cardiogram analysis and speech recognition. However, in this application, the decision theoretic approach is most suitable since only one pattern must be recognised. Features are extracted from the filtered data (figure 5.2.7) and transformed into 'feature space' where they are tested against predetermined code parameters. Positive test results indicate the presence of an obstacle to be avoided.

Care must be taken in selecting the parameters which identify codes. In the digitised video signal the absolute magnitude of the signal cannot be used because this varies widely depending on the nature of the object reflecting the light pattern and the ambient lighting conditions. However, code patterns which appear in the image always have the same shape which is illustrated in figure 5.3.1. This general shape is obtained from the reflected light codes regardless of the absolute video signal magnitude. With reference to figure 5.3.1, the features which do not depend on the magnitude of the signal are the presence of maxima and minima of grey levels associated with the code and the spatial relationship between them (in this case the horizontal distance between them 'nT'). Figure 5.3.2 highlights these relationships.

The value of the digital filtering stages that act as a coarse 'sieve' for the video data can now clearly be appreciated. The signal has been effectively 'cleaned up' by the filters, reducing the number of maxima and minima that need to be detected and processed (compare figure 5.2.7 with figure 5.2.1).

The algorithm used to detect maxima and minima operates on groups of samples in the

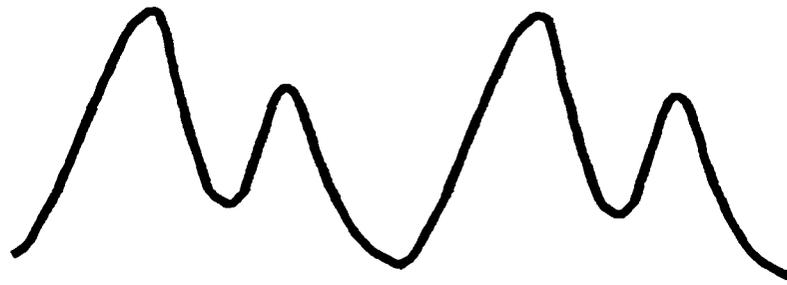


Figure 5.3.1
Typical Filtered Code Pattern Shape

digitised array to isolate local peaks and troughs. This operation may be viewed as a direct method of high pass filtering since it has the powerful effect of removing steady state signal levels (analogous to DC offset) leaving only the differentials. With reference to figure 5.3.3., the 'peak' detector algorithm works as follows:

```

For i = 2 to 253
  if x[i] < x[i-2] and x[i] < x[i+2] then maxmin[i] = minima
  else if x[i] > x[i-2] and x[i] > x[i+2] then maxmin[i] = maxima
  else maxmin[i] = 0
next i

```

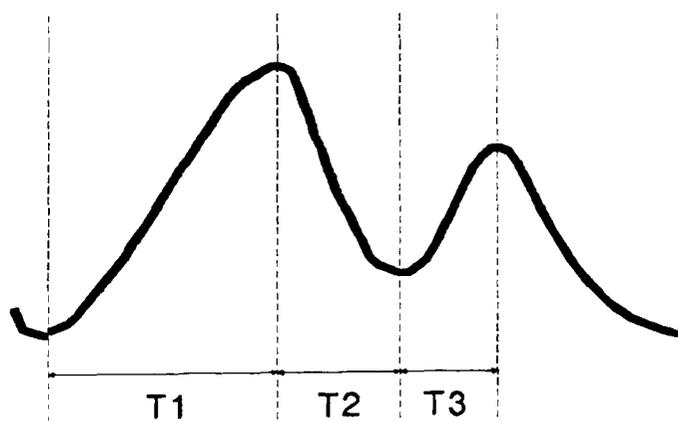


Figure 5.3.2
Relationship Between Code Features

The resultant array, $\text{maxmin}[i]$ consists of markers indicating maxima, minima or neither with the index i corresponding to the spatial position of the turning points in the

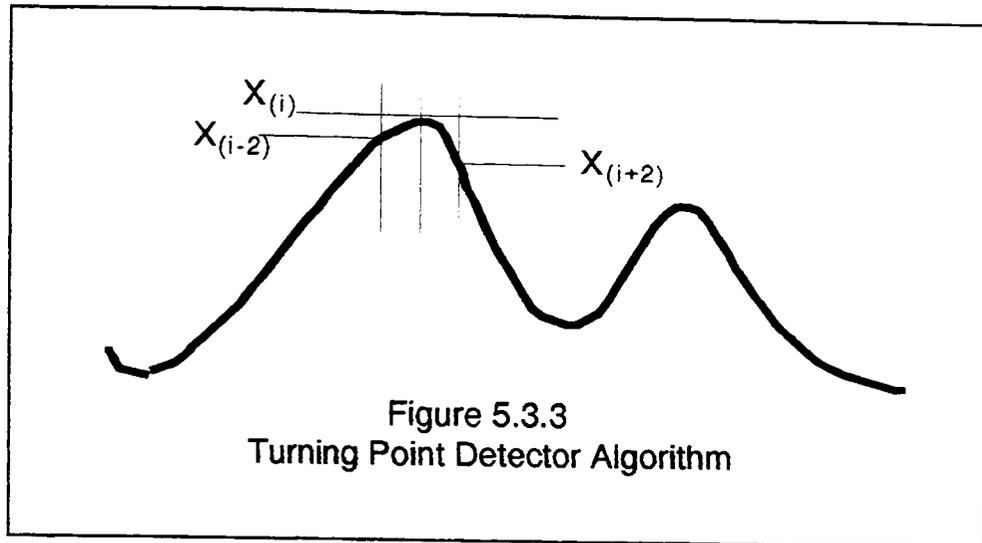


Figure 5.3.3
Turning Point Detector Algorithm

filtered data array x . Figure 5.3.4 shows this in graphical form, the filtered array is shown on the upper graph, with the corresponding position of maxima and minima shown beneath it.

The remaining task of isolating and recognising valid codes is described in chapter 6. This task involves transforming the maxima-minima array into feature space, and testing it for membership of a predetermined pattern class.

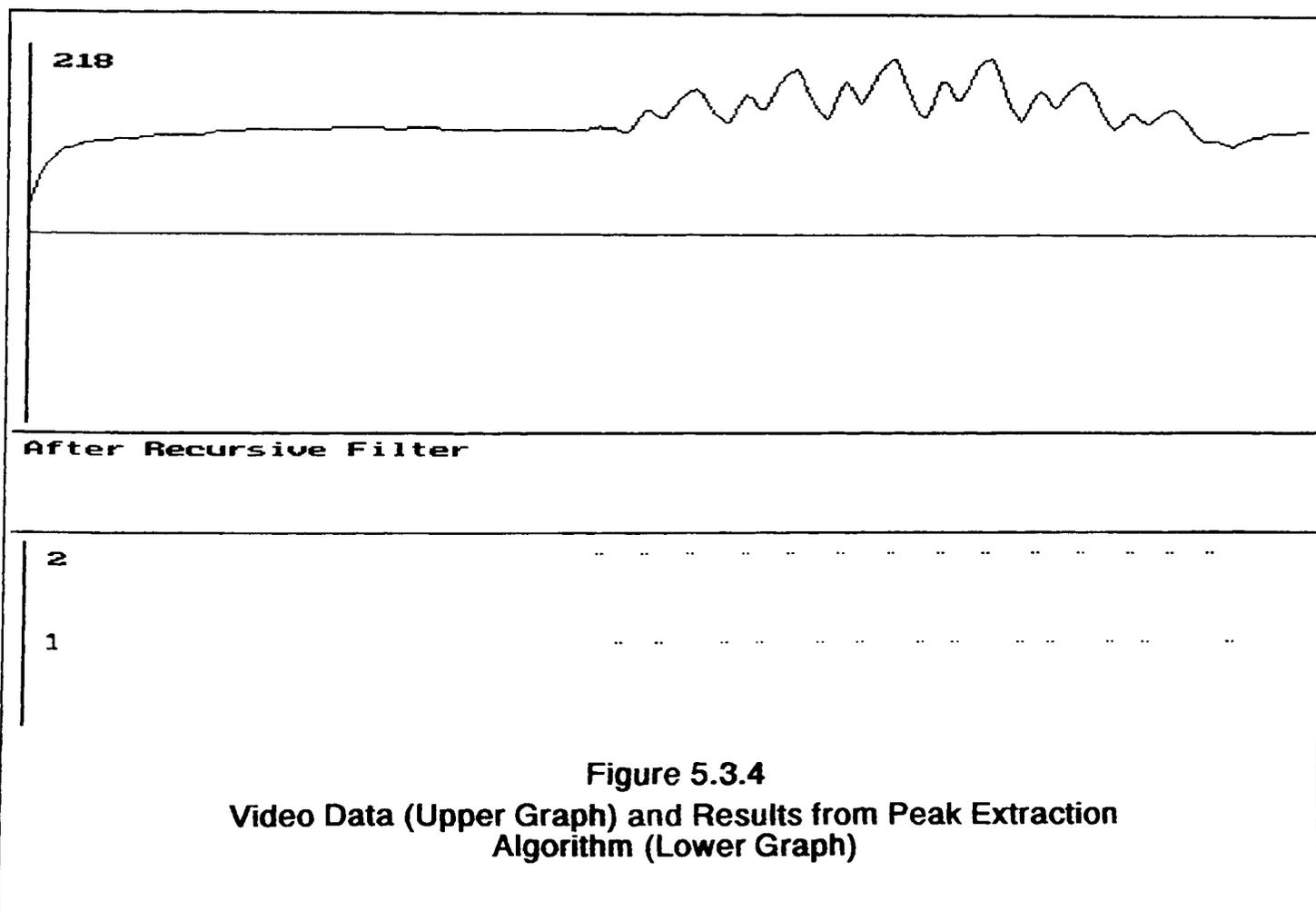


Figure 5.3.4
Video Data (Upper Graph) and Results from Peak Extraction
Algorithm (Lower Graph)

6 REFLECTED LIGHT CODE RECOGNITION

6.1 Summary

This chapter describes the final processes that form the obstacle detection system. With reference to the block diagram in figure 5.1.1 these are the code measurement and pattern recognition stages.

A key factor contributing to the design presented in this research, is the ease with which the obstacle detection system can be configured. This has been achieved by the design of an automatic code measurement procedure (described in section 6.2) which alleviates the need for precise camera and projector positioning.

Section 6.3 describes the code recognition algorithm. This is based on the so called 'decision theoretic' approach of numerically quantifying pattern features and checking them against a predetermined template. Extra security is built into the system by incorporating a majority polling scheme to increase the surety of valid light code detection and reduce the sensitivity of the system to quickly moving obstacles.

6.2 Code Calibration Method

When a coded pattern is projected onto the floor ahead of the automated guided vehicle, the dimensions of the code detected by the CCD camera depend on the following criteria:

- The physical dimensions of the projection mask.
- The height and angle of the projector (and the lens system used).
- The relationship between the camera and projector.

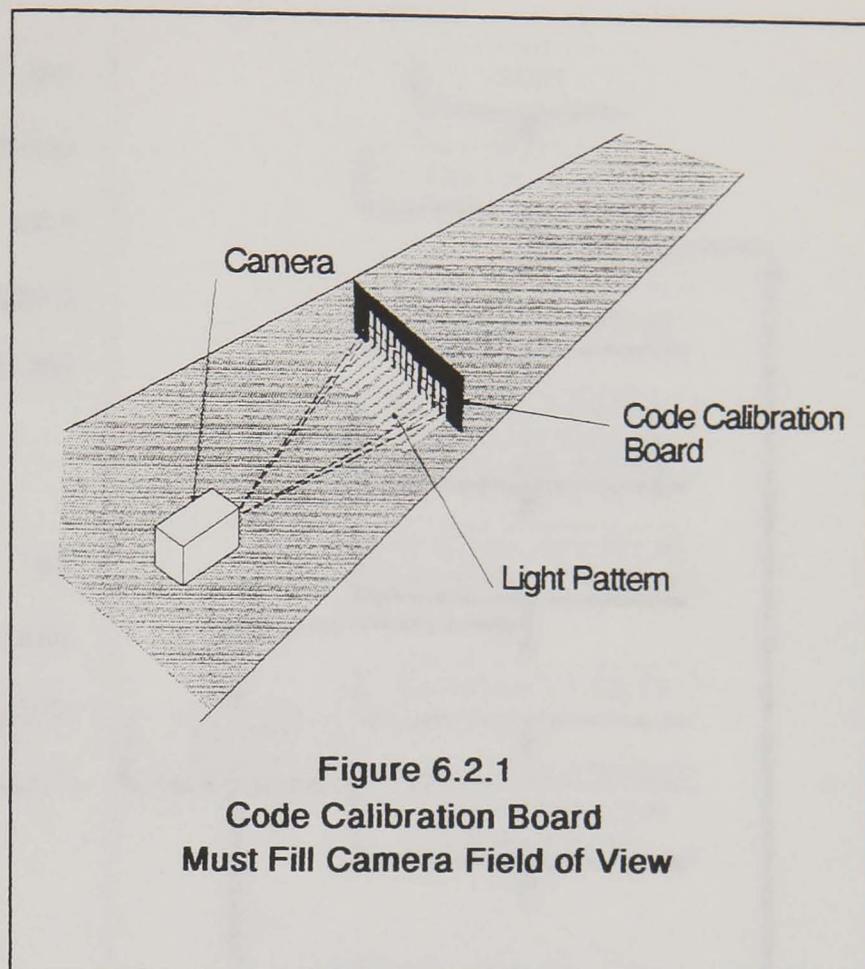
- The camera lens system.

These criteria directly affect the code features T1, T2 and T3 in figure 5.3.2. The task of calculating these features based on the geometry of the system is difficult since it requires precise knowledge of the position of the projector and camera. One of the chief design features of this work is that the system is simple to configure. This is made possible by implementing a self calibration procedure in the obstacle detection software which enables the system to determine the code parameters automatically. This feature has also simplified experimentation with different code masks.

To operate the code learning procedure, the embedded computer system must be connected to a serial communications terminal or personal computer running a communications terminal emulator. A Turbo PASCAL program has been specifically developed for this task (see appendix 2). By default, the embedded computer uses a communications protocol of 4800 baud, 8 data bits, no parity, 1 stop bit. When the embedded system is reset, a message is transmitted to the terminal offering the code learning procedure as an option should it be required. If 'Q' is transmitted back to the embedded computer (by typing 'Q' at the terminal), the obstacle avoidance system is initiated using default code parameters programmed in EPROM. However, if any other key is pressed at the terminal, the embedded computer prompts the system installer to position a test board in front of the camera and press 'C' to continue.

For the system to measure the code parameters, the plain board placed in front of the camera must fill the horizontal field of view as shown in figure 6.2.1. The algorithm operates by measuring all the visible code parameters and recording their maximum and minimum values denoted by: T1max, T1min; T2max, T2min and T3max, T3min. The use of maximum and minimum values of the code features builds tolerance to slight spatial distortions at the periphery of the camera field of view and also allows for variations in obstacle surface inclination.

The immunity of the measurement procedure to spurious readings is increased by averaging eight complete measurement cycles resulting in aggregate values of the maximum and minimum values of T1, T2 and T3. Eight measurement cycles are averaged for the practical reasons outlined in section 5.2. The procedure of averaging eight numerical values can be easily and efficiently



implemented within the constraints of integer arithmetic using simple addition and three binary shift-right operations. Figure 6.2.2 shows the flow chart of the automatic code calibration algorithm. A video screen is captured, filtered and processed as described in chapter 5. The resultant array of maxima and minima (maxmin introduced in section 5.3) is searched for groups of four points in the sequence: maxima_1 , minima_2 , maxima_3 , minima_4 , (see figure 6.2.3). T1, T2 and T3 are calculated from:

$$T1 = \text{minima}_2 - \text{maxima}_1$$

$$T2 = \text{maxima}_3 - \text{minima}_2$$

$$T3 = \text{minima}_4 - \text{maxima}_3$$

From these values, the features (T1min, T1max), (T2min, T2max) and (T3min, T3max) are updated. When eight passes have been made, the results are averaged to determine final minimum and maximum values. These values are used to form the feature template described in the next section. The calibration procedure is flexible in that the test board can be any surface which is wide enough to fill the camera field of view.

The identified code parameters are then transmitted to the serial communications terminal and displayed. These can be programmed into the embedded system EPROM to complete the installation.

The next section describes the procedure designed to detect code patterns and provide control signals to the obstacle avoidance control software.

6.3 Light Code Recognition

A decision theoretic approach has been adopted for recognising codes in the projected light pattern. This technique involves identifying key features of the pattern as described in chapter 5, transforming them into 'feature space' and testing them against the template derived in the last section. If a valid code is

detected, it is due to an obstacle entering the light code projection area in front of the AGV. The distortion of the light pattern is detected by the camera and obstacle detection software, and the system consequently responds by initiating the obstacle

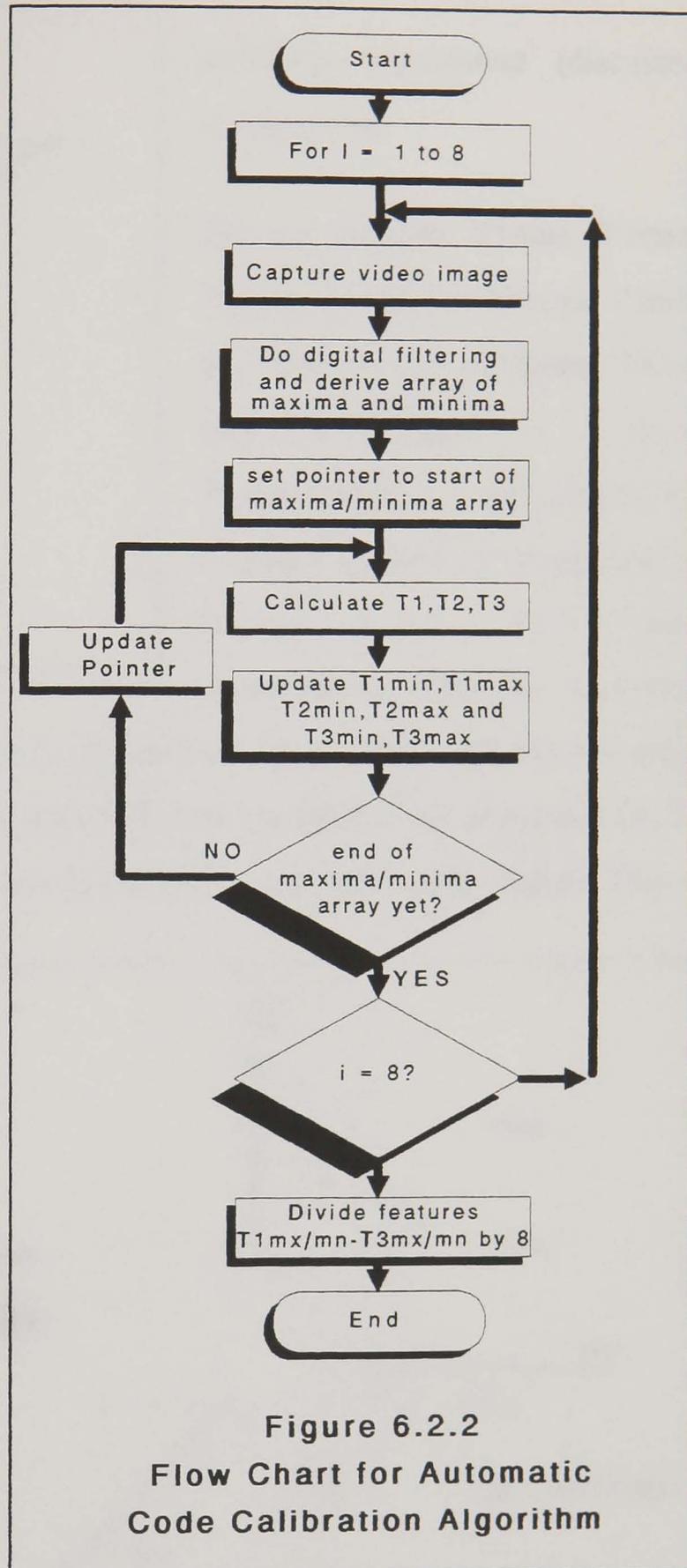
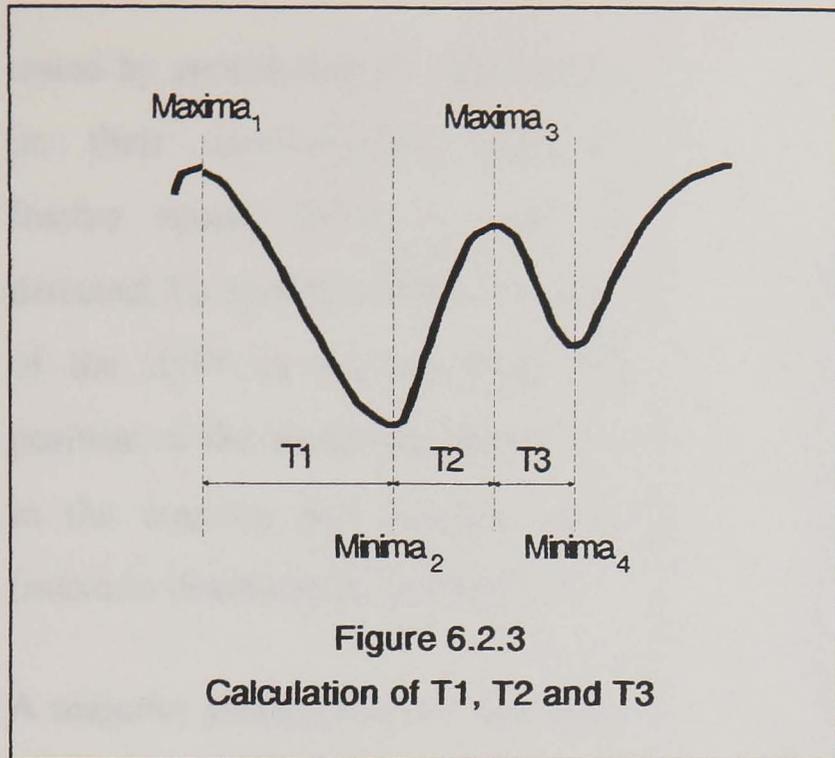


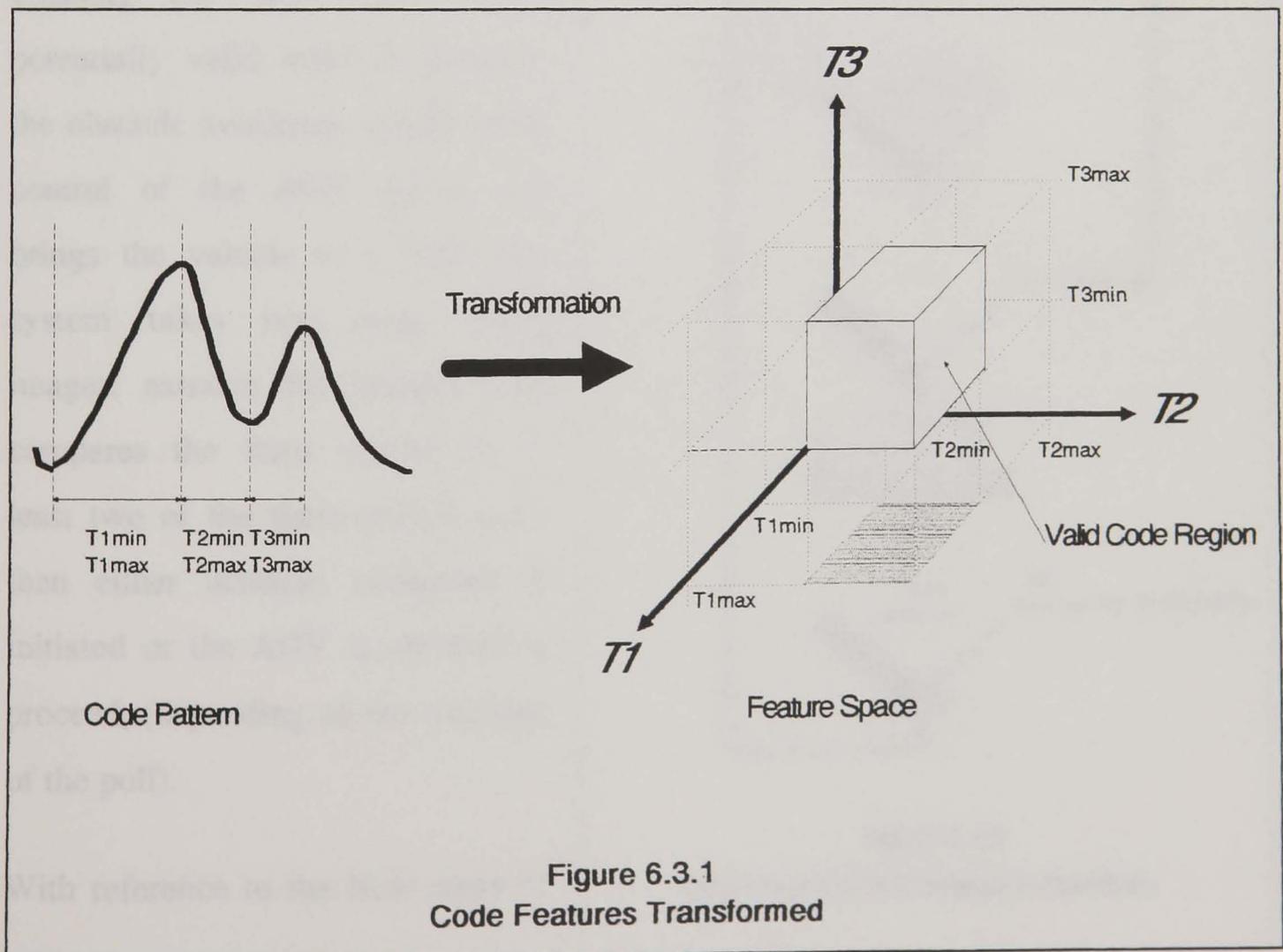
Figure 6.2.2
Flow Chart for Automatic Code Calibration Algorithm



avoidance manoeuvre (discussed in chapter 8).

The six features: T1max, T1min, T2max, T2min and T3max, T3min are used in the template. These may be mapped in a three dimensional representation ('feature space') as illustrated in figure 6.3.1. The code identification algorithm measures

the parameters T1, T2 and T3 in figure 5.3.2 and tests them against the feature space template of figure 6.3.1. A code is only accepted as being valid if the measured T1, T2 and T3 result in a point in feature space lying inside the valid code region. This is



tested by considering T1, T2 and T3 on their corresponding axes in feature space. When a code is detected, its spatial position in front of the AGV is derived from the position of the measured parameters in the maxima and minima array (maxmin described in section 5.3).

A majority polling scheme has been designed to add further security to the code detection system and to reduce its sensitivity to non-persistent obstacles such as people crossing the AGV path. If a potentially valid code is detected, the obstacle avoidance system takes control of the AGV drives and brings the vehicle to a halt. The system takes two more video images, extracts the features, and compares the three results. If at least two of the three results agree then either obstacle avoidance is initiated or the AGV is allowed to proceed, (depending on the outcome of the poll).

With reference to the flow chart of

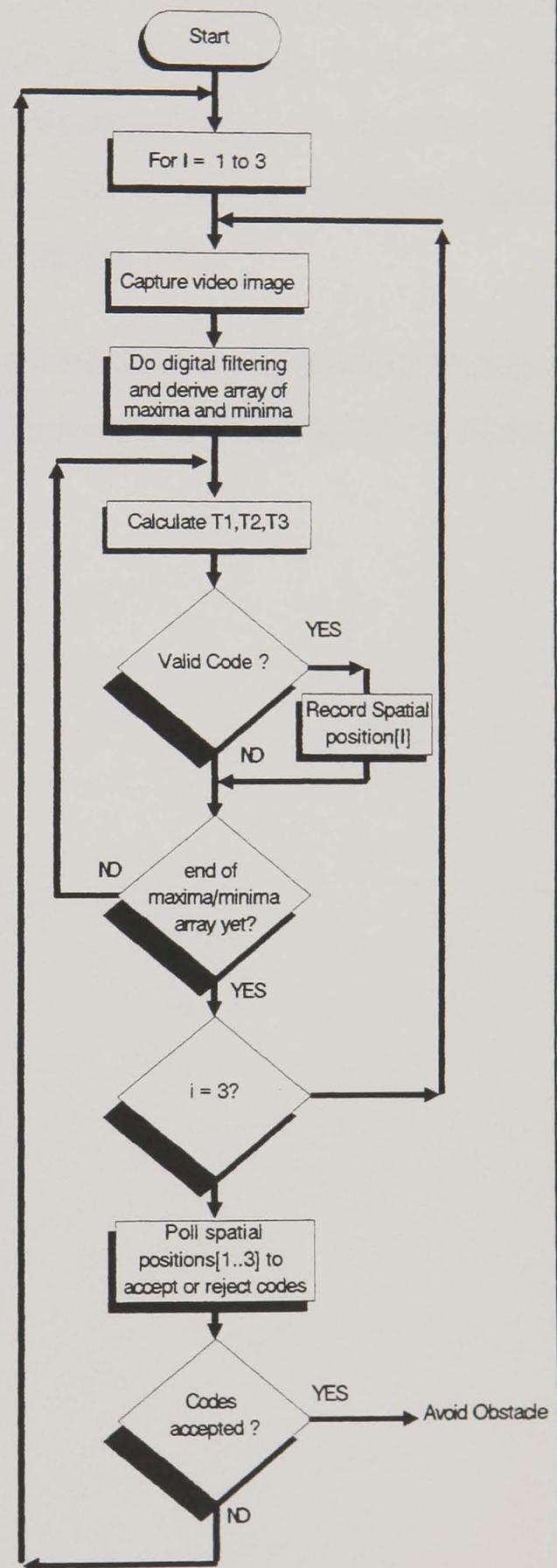


Figure 6.3.2

Flow Chart of Code Detection Algorithm

the complete obstacle detection algorithm in figure 6.3.2, video frames are captured and processed as described in chapter 5. The resultant array representing maxima and minima is processed and groups of values representing T1, T2 and T3 are calculated. These values are then tested against the feature template as shown in figure 6.3.1, and appropriate motion control action is taken. Full software listings for all the obstacle detection and associated programs can be seen in appendix 3.

In the next two chapters the practical implementation of the obstacle detection system on an experimental mobile platform and the design and development of the obstacle avoidance algorithms are described.

7 EXPERIMENTAL VEHICLE DESIGN

7.1 Summary

The next two chapters are devoted to the development of the obstacle avoidance strategy and the practical aspects of evaluating the obstacle avoidance system. In preparation for these topics, this chapter describes the experimental vehicle on which the system is mounted.

Two alternative AGV designs are discussed in section 7.2 with particular reference to their manoeuvrability and control. The design chosen for the experimental vehicle is based on a differential drive arrangement where steering is achieved by controlling the relative velocity of two drive wheels.

An overview of the physical design of the experimental vehicle is given in section 7.3. The completed vehicle is illustrated with the aid of photographs which clearly show how the camera and projector are mounted.

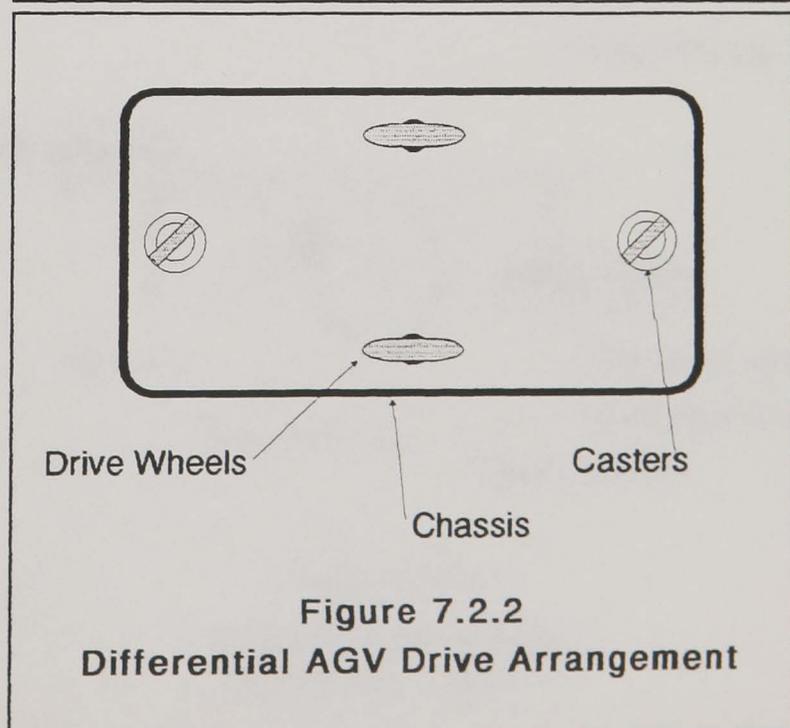
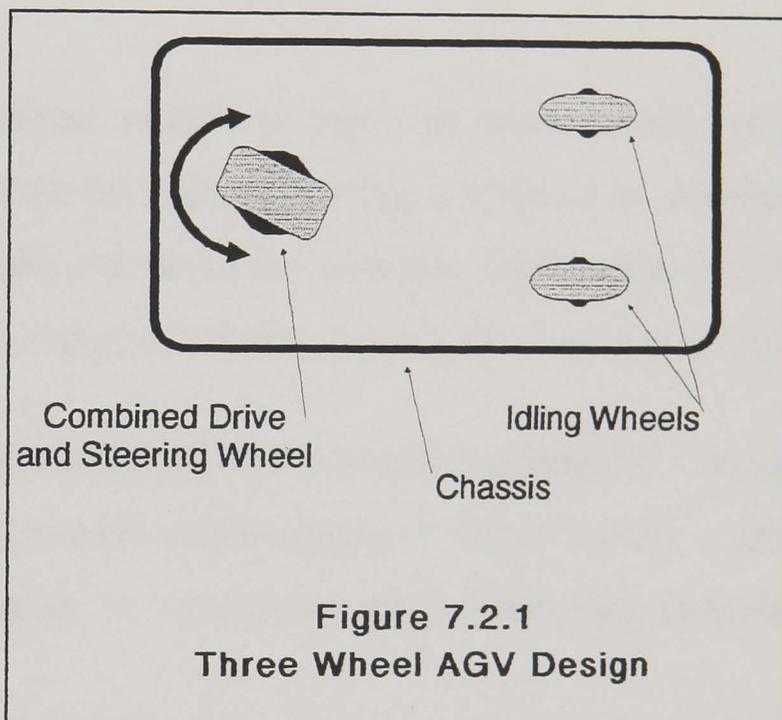
Dedicated single-chip microcontrollers are used to control the experimental vehicle drives. These are described in the final section of this chapter with reference to the interface with the Intel 8031 embedded controller (introduced in chapter 4). The various outputs and control modes available on the motor controllers are discussed together with the method used to select suitable digital control parameters.

7.2 Review of AGV Drive Configurations

Automated Guided Vehicles fall into two basic design categories, classified by the

method used to drive and steer them. The first type is a three wheeled arrangement as shown in figure 7.2.1. In this design, the single front wheel serves as a combined steering and drive wheel whilst the other two rear wheels idle. The three wheeled arrangement is well suited to 'flat back' pallet transporters because the combined drive and steering head can take the form of a compact unit at the front of the vehicle. This leaves a large rear area available for a low-profile pallet fork lift. However, a disadvantage of the design is that it can be difficult to control. This arises in bidirectional systems because the steering geometry is different depending on whether the AGV is travelling forwards or backwards.

The other major AGV design uses two drive wheels situated centrally under the vehicle as shown in figure 7.2.2. Stability is achieved by using idling casters to support the front and rear of the vehicle and steering is achieved by varying the relative velocity of the two drive wheels. This technique is called differential steering and has advantages over the three wheeled design in certain operating conditions. The main advantage is that control of the vehicle is simplified by the fact that the steering geometry is the same for both directions of travel. Also, by driving each wheel at the same speed but in opposite directions, this



type of vehicle can literally 'turn on the spot' in its own length (this is impossible with the three wheeled design).

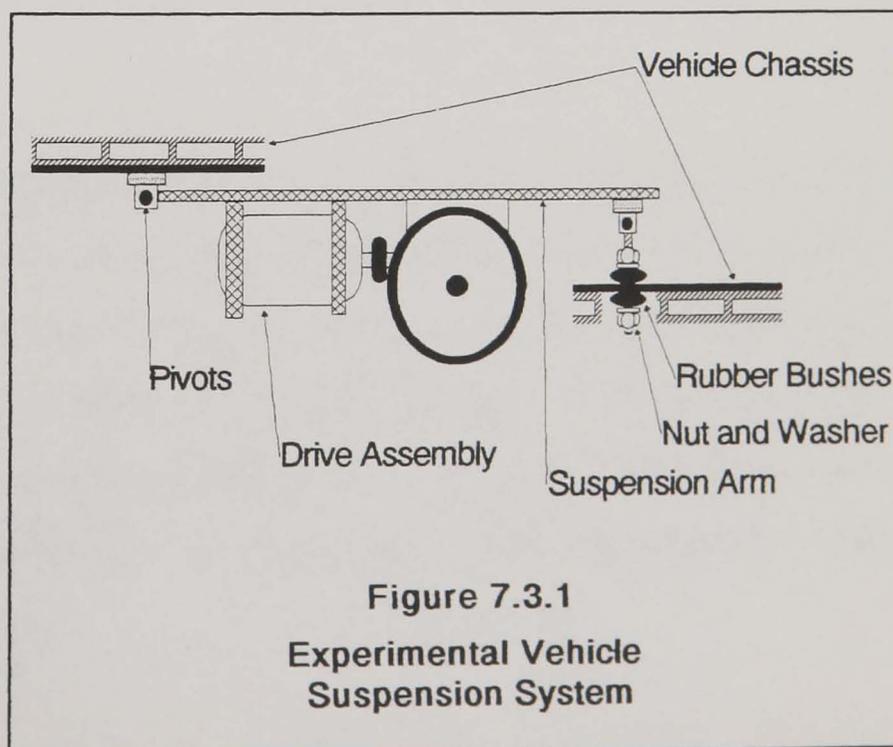
The experimental vehicle uses a differential steering arrangement because the ability to turn in a small area is essential for a laboratory environment where space is at a premium.

7.3 Overview of the Experimental Vehicle Design

The physical design of the experimental vehicle is based on work carried out by Korean researchers^[67]. They investigated the optimal steering control of an automated vehicle with two motorised drive wheels and developed optimum relationships between various dimensions. These include the radius of the drive wheels and their separation.

Due to the space limitations of the laboratory environment, the experimental vehicle is smaller than commercial AGVs with overall measurements of approximately 1 metre long by 0.5 metre wide. The chassis is constructed from lightened angle-iron ('Dexion'). The vehicle is

equipped with a cantilever suspension system as illustrated in figure 7.3.1 to assist in damping vibrations transmitted through the drives. The 90 amp-hour battery is mounted in a tray towards the front of the vehicle whilst the motor drive electronics are mounted on an



aluminium heat sink which fits over the rear of the chassis. An emergency stop switch and ammeter are also mounted on the rear of the vehicle. A thermal circuit-breaker is connected directly in the motor power supply circuit to prevent damage to the electrical gear in the event of an overload.

A special mounting post has been fitted to the prototype vehicle to carry the coded light pattern projector and CCD camera. Additional 'crash bars' are included to prevent accidental damage to the latter. The photographs of figure 7.3.2 illustrate the completed vehicle.

The relationship between the light pattern projector and the CCD camera can be seen from the photographs. The projector is mounted approximately 1 metre above the floor at an angle of approximately 45 degrees and the camera is in the protected position approximately 70mm from the floor. Figure 7.3.3 shows a more detailed view of the camera mounting. The physical relationship between these two items is not critical since the automatic calibration procedure (described in chapter 5), measures the code features of the light pattern after the camera and projector are fixed.

7.4 HCTL - 1100 Microprocessor-Based Motor Controllers

Figure 7.4.1 shows the schematic diagram of the experimental vehicle drives. Two 350 watt DC motors are mounted parallel to the longitudinal axis of the vehicle coupled to 'backlashless' 5:1 worm reduction gear boxes. The drive wheels are mounted directly on the gear box output shafts and are fitted with hard rubber tyres for good grip on the floor. The worm drive shafts are coupled to 500 pulse/rev optical encoders. These have quadrature outputs to allow the direction of rotation to be sensed. Figure 7.4.2 shows the block diagram of one motor drive.

The controller section of the system is realised using Hewlett-Packard type

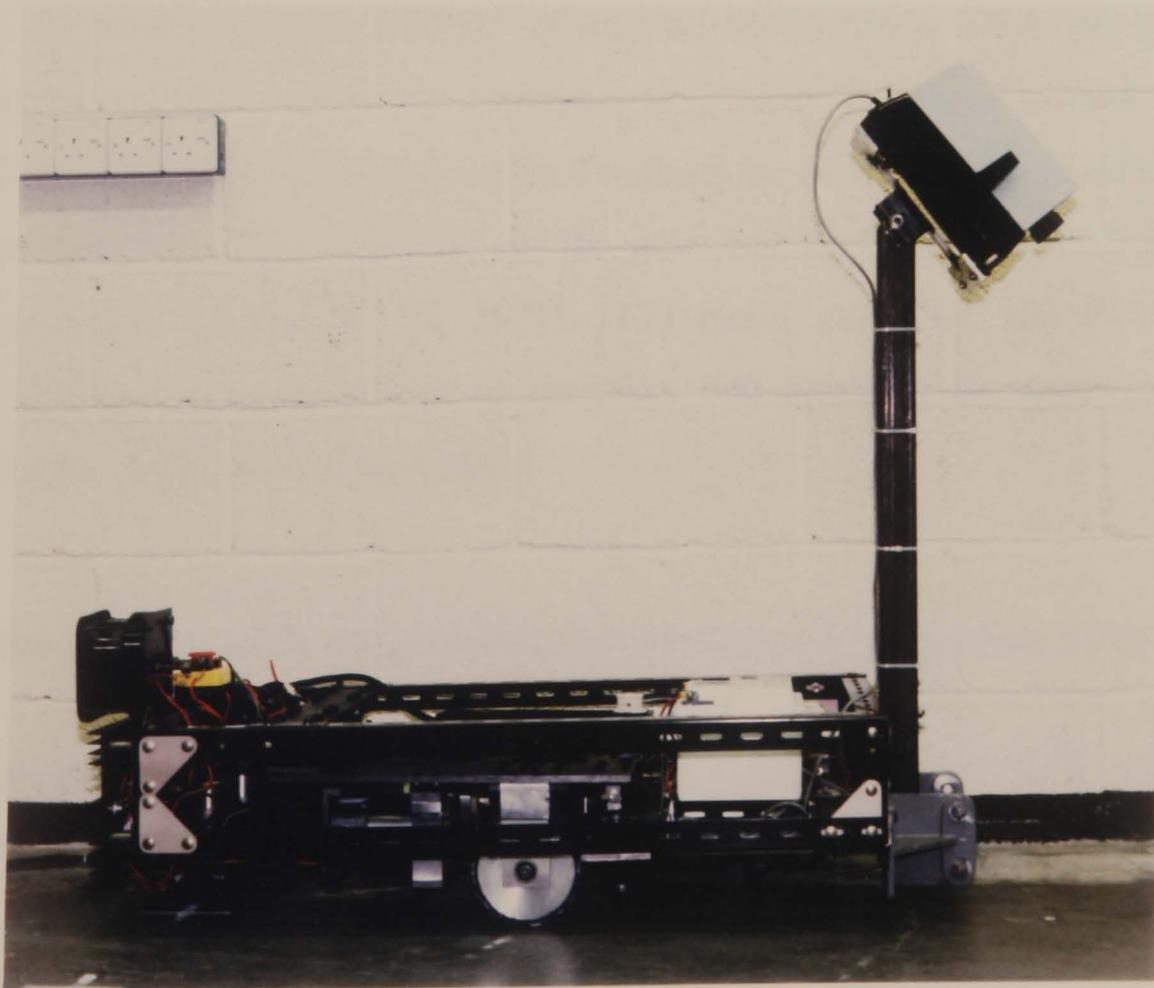
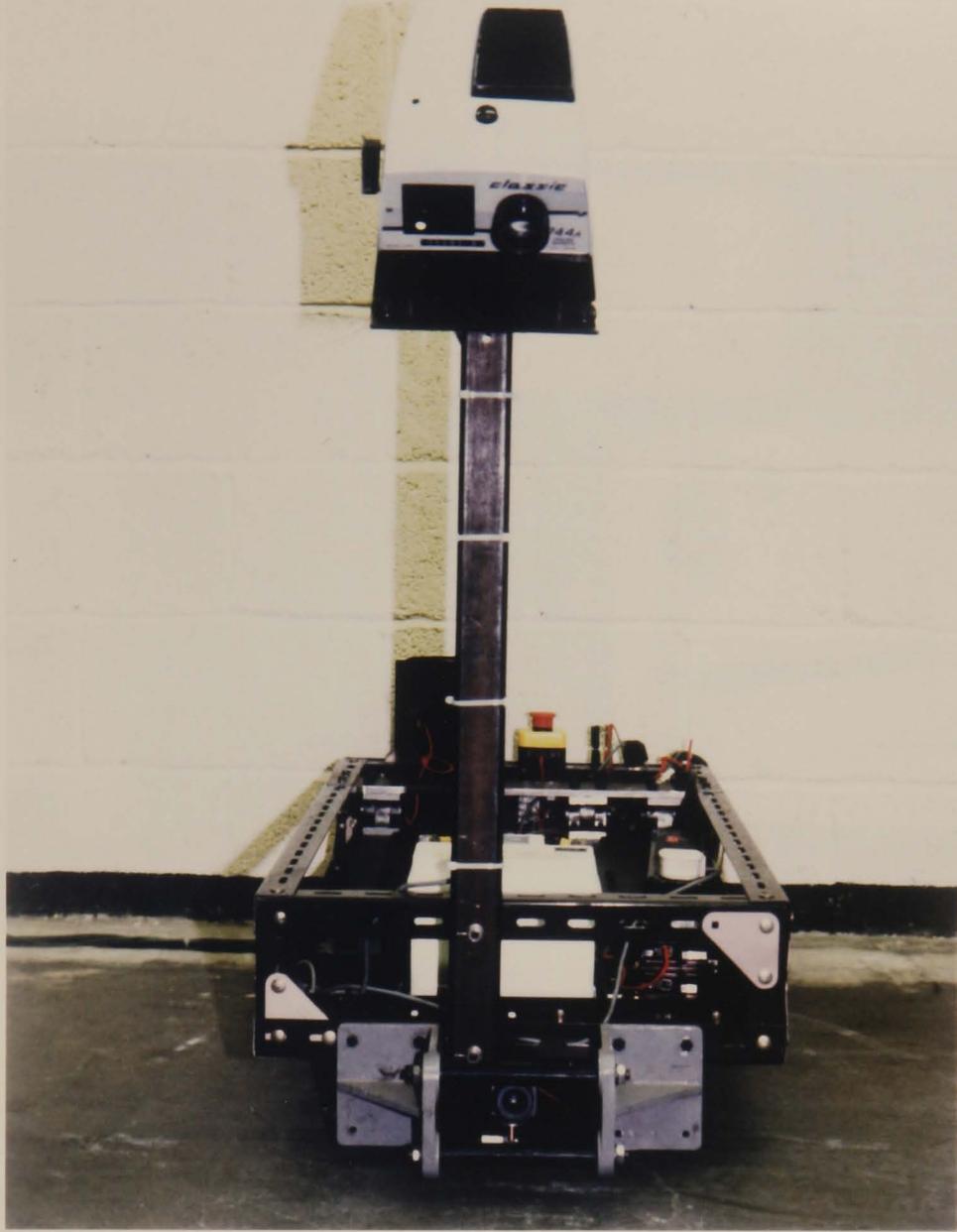


Figure 7.3.2
Experimental Vehicle

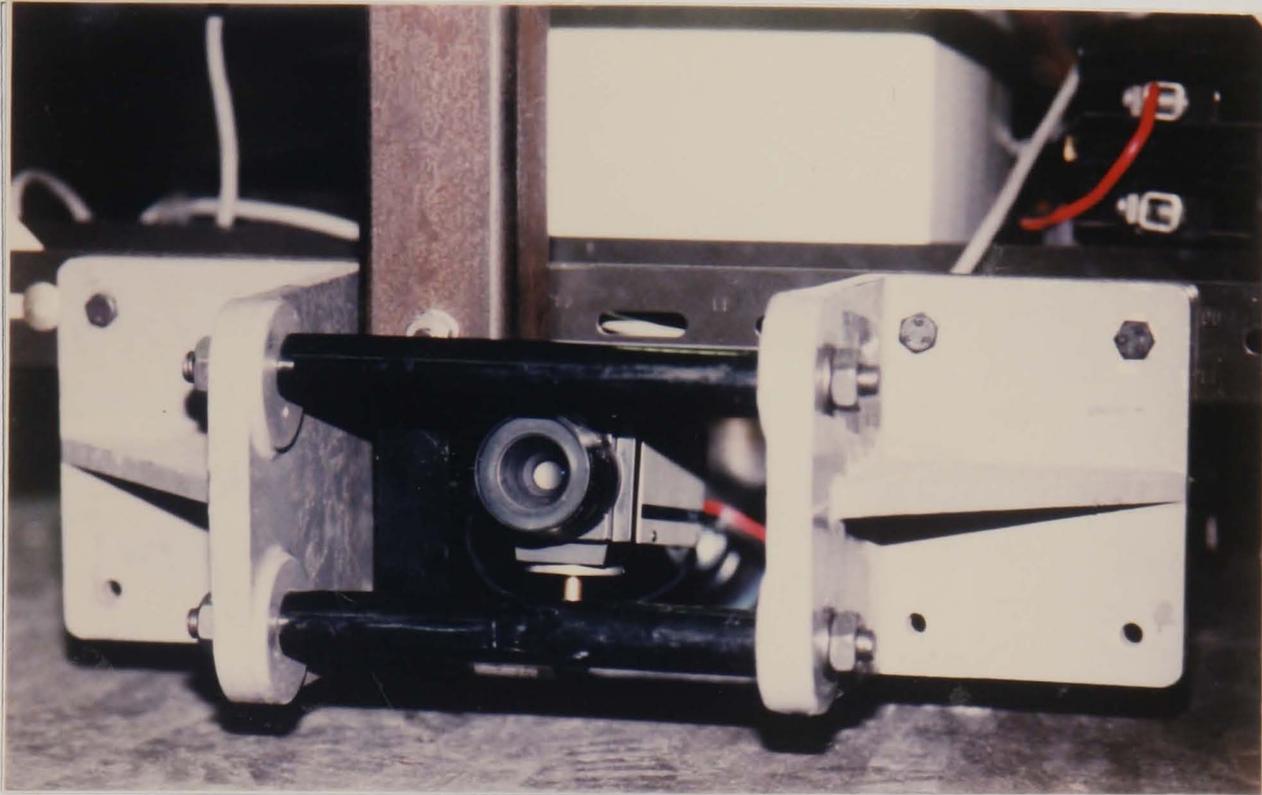


Figure 7.3.3
Camera Mounting Detail

HCTL-1100 general-purpose motion control integrated circuits. These are single-chip microcontrollers that incorporate firmware to perform common control functions required by many drive control systems. Feedback to the controllers is taken directly from the optical encoders mounted on the gear box shafts. Figure 7.4.3 shows the functional block diagram of the HCTL-1100 motor controller and the following sections discuss its various modes of operation. Full details of the specifications and circuit design can be seen in appendix 4.

7.4.1 Interface with Intel 8031 Embedded Microcontroller

The 8255 Peripheral Interface Adapter (PIA) included in the Intel 8031 embedded controller circuit was discussed in chapter 4. This provides 24 bidirectional input-output lines that are used to interface with the HCTL-1100 motor controllers.

The basic operation of the interface is that variables and constants are written to the motor controllers in an initialisation phase which establishes the mode of operation. This includes the mode of control to be used, digital filter constants and the sampling interval. After initialisation, the Intel 8031 controls the motors by writing demand values to the HCTL-1100 motor controllers. Full closed-loop control is carried out by the HCTL-

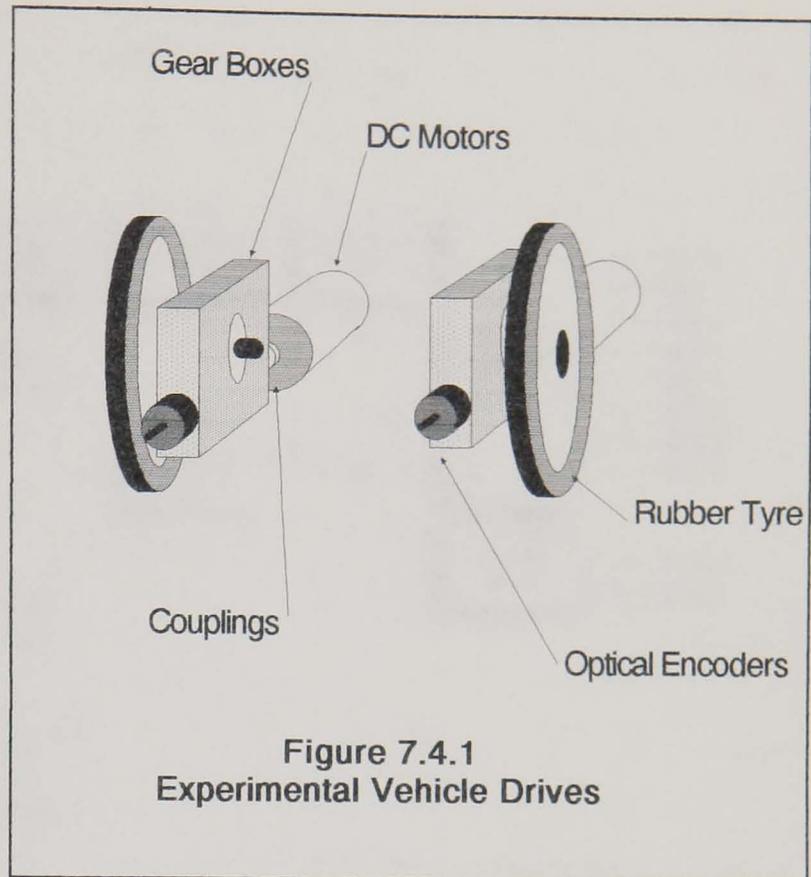


Figure 7.4.1
Experimental Vehicle Drives

1100s independently of the Intel 8031 which can be devoted to the task of detecting obstacles. Data is transferred between the Intel 8031 and the HCTL-1100s in parallel via the 8255 PIA. Communication is asynchronous to alleviate the need for accurate timing requirements which simplifies the interface. The Hewlett-Packard motor controllers appear as banks of registers to the Intel 8031. Each register has a particular function and may be write-only, read-only or bidirectional. A suite of assembler

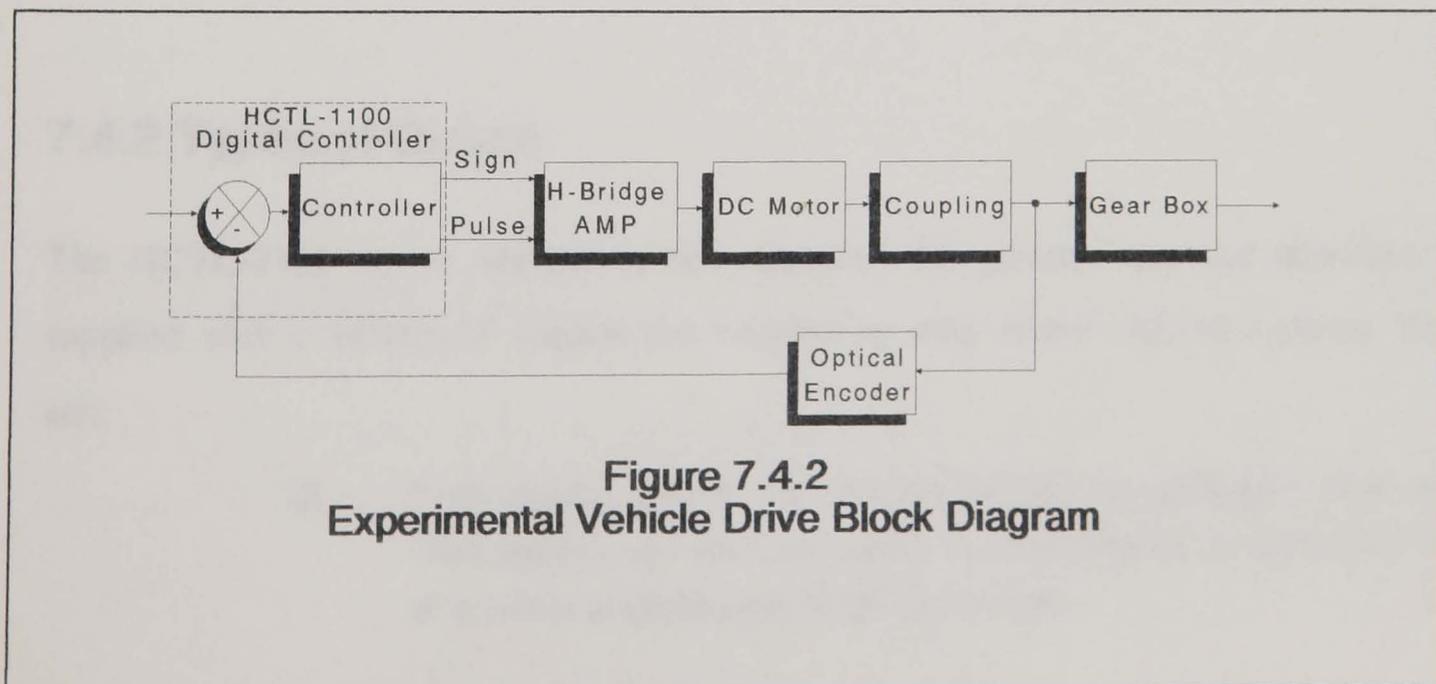
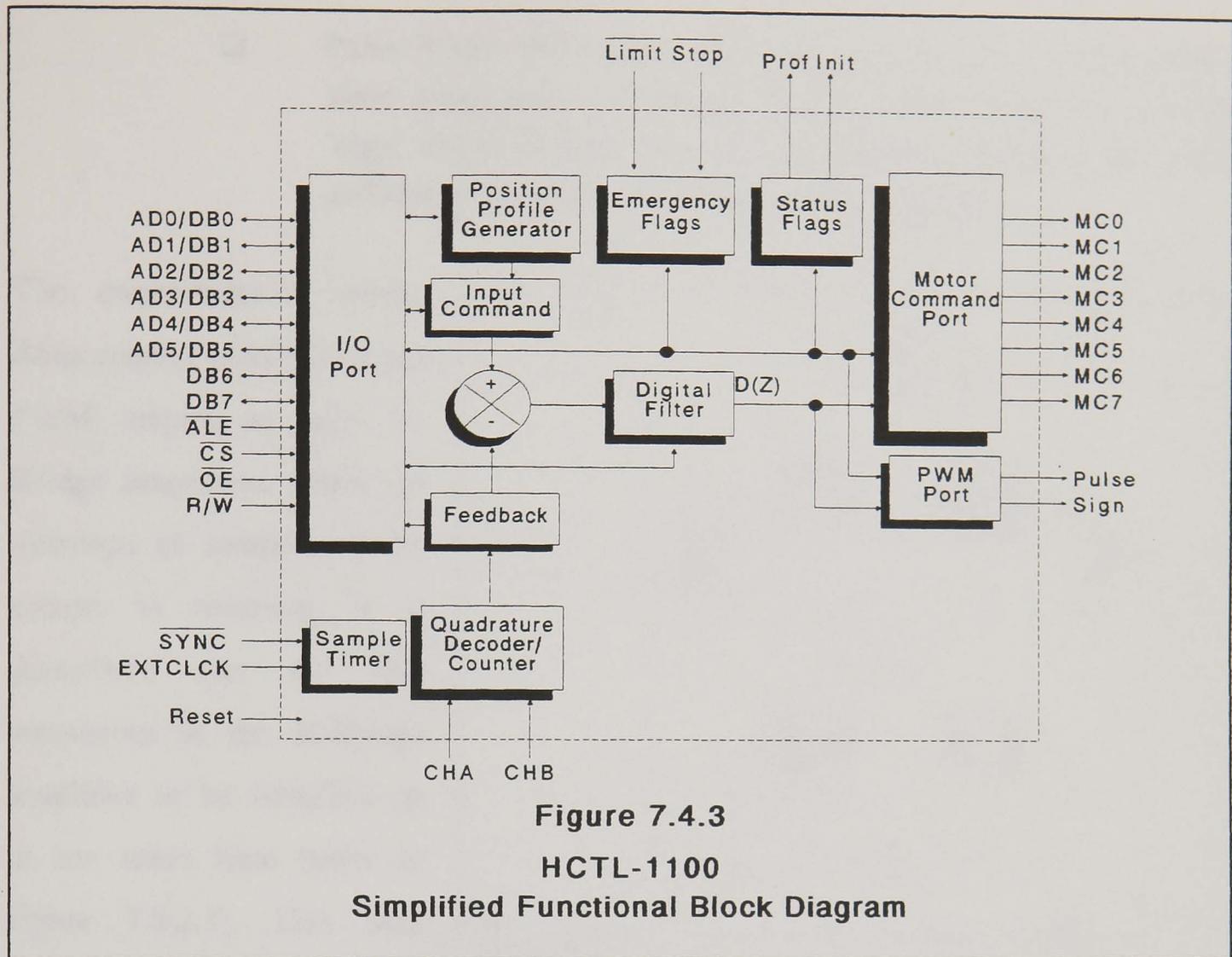


Figure 7.4.2
Experimental Vehicle Drive Block Diagram



routines have been developed to operate the interface between the Intel 8031 and HCTL-1100s, full descriptions and listings of which can be seen in appendix 5. Overviews of the types of output and control modes available using the HCTL-1100 follow.

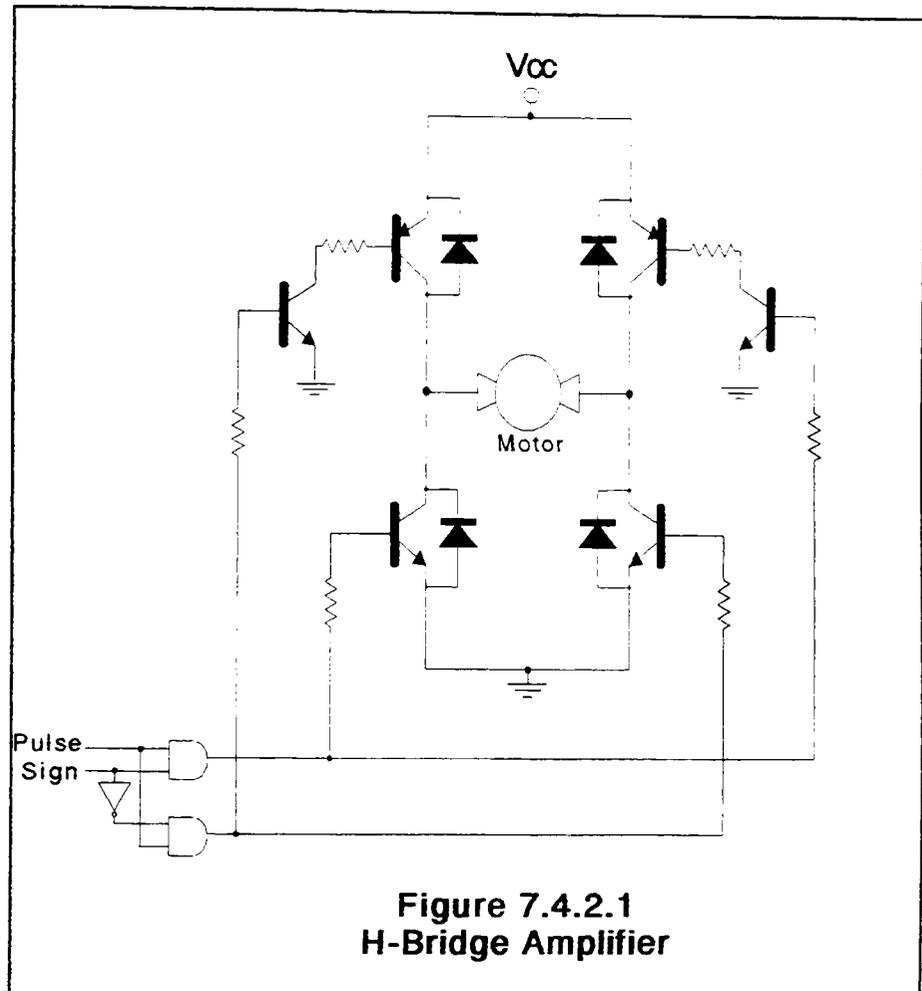
7.4.2 Types of Output

The HCTL-1100 motor controllers are designed for general use and therefore are supplied with a variety of outputs for interfacing with motor control systems. These are:

- 8-bit digital output for driving digital to analogue converters. This output can be configured in an unsigned (unipolar) format or a two's complement (bipolar) format.

- Pulse Width Modulated (PWM) sign and pulse outputs. These allow connection to H-Bridge amplifiers (see figure 7.4.2.1). The 'sign' output is used to reverse the polarity of the motor current and thus reverse the direction of motor rotation.

The experimental vehicle drive control systems use the PWM outputs to drive H-Bridge amplifiers. When the direction of rotation of the motors is reversed, it is possible for all the transistors in the H-Bridge amplifier to be switched on at the same time (refer to figure 7.4.2.1). This may result in a short circuit across the power supply which could damage the circuit. The HCTL-1100s



can be configured to prevent this by missing a pulse at the time when the sign output changes state. This ensures that all the transistors are turned off at the instant of transition. Figure 7.4.2.2 shows the timing diagram illustrating this feature.

7.4.3 Types of Control

The HCTL-1100 motor controllers are pre-programmed to perform a range of control functions. In all cases some part of the digital filter equation shown below is used in the control loop.

$$D(Z) = K(Z-A/256)/(Z+B/256)$$

Where:

K = Digital filter gain

A = Digital filter zero

B = Digital filter pole

This filter is preprogrammed in firmware on the HCTL-1100 motor control chips and is used to provide the following modes of operation:

Proportional Velocity Control. The HCTL-1100 uses the following digital control algorithm to achieve proportional control of the motor speeds:

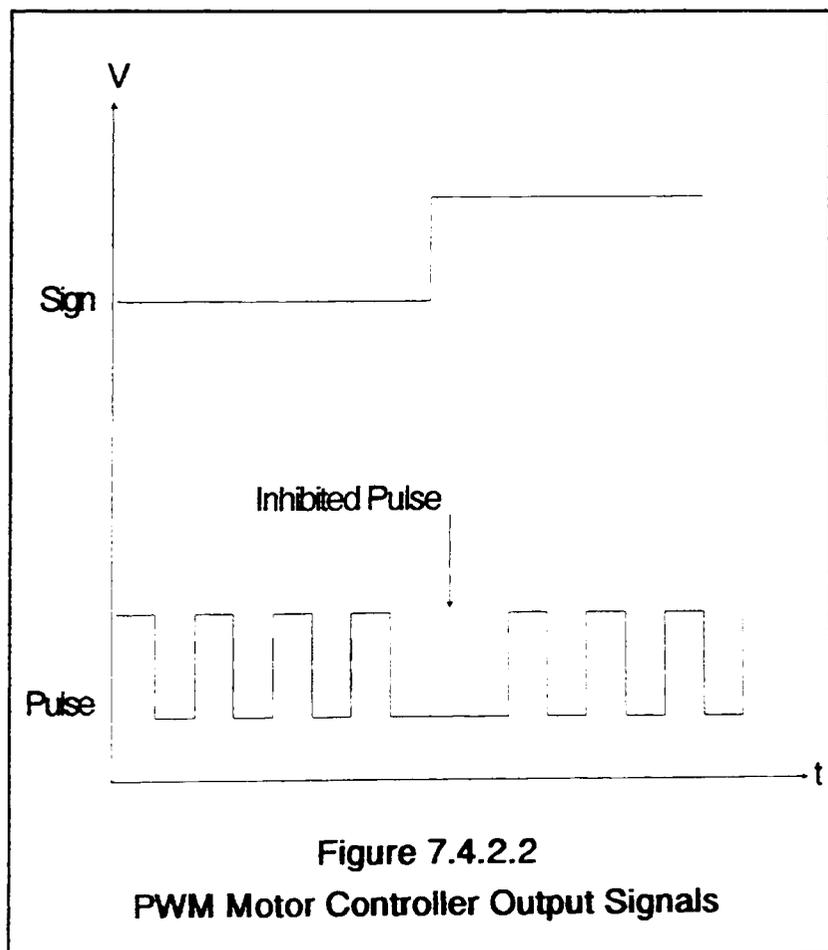
$$MC_n = (K/4)Y_n$$

where:

MC_n = Motor command output at time n

Y_n = (Command velocity - Actual velocity) at time n

When this control option is initialised, the demand speed is supplied to the relevant HCTL-1100 registers (see appendix 4) in the form of a 16-bit two's complement number. The HCTL-1100 interprets this as 12-bits integer and 4-bits fraction, with positive two's complement numbers resulting in rotation in one direction and negative two's complement numbers resulting in rotation in the opposite direction. The value written to the motor

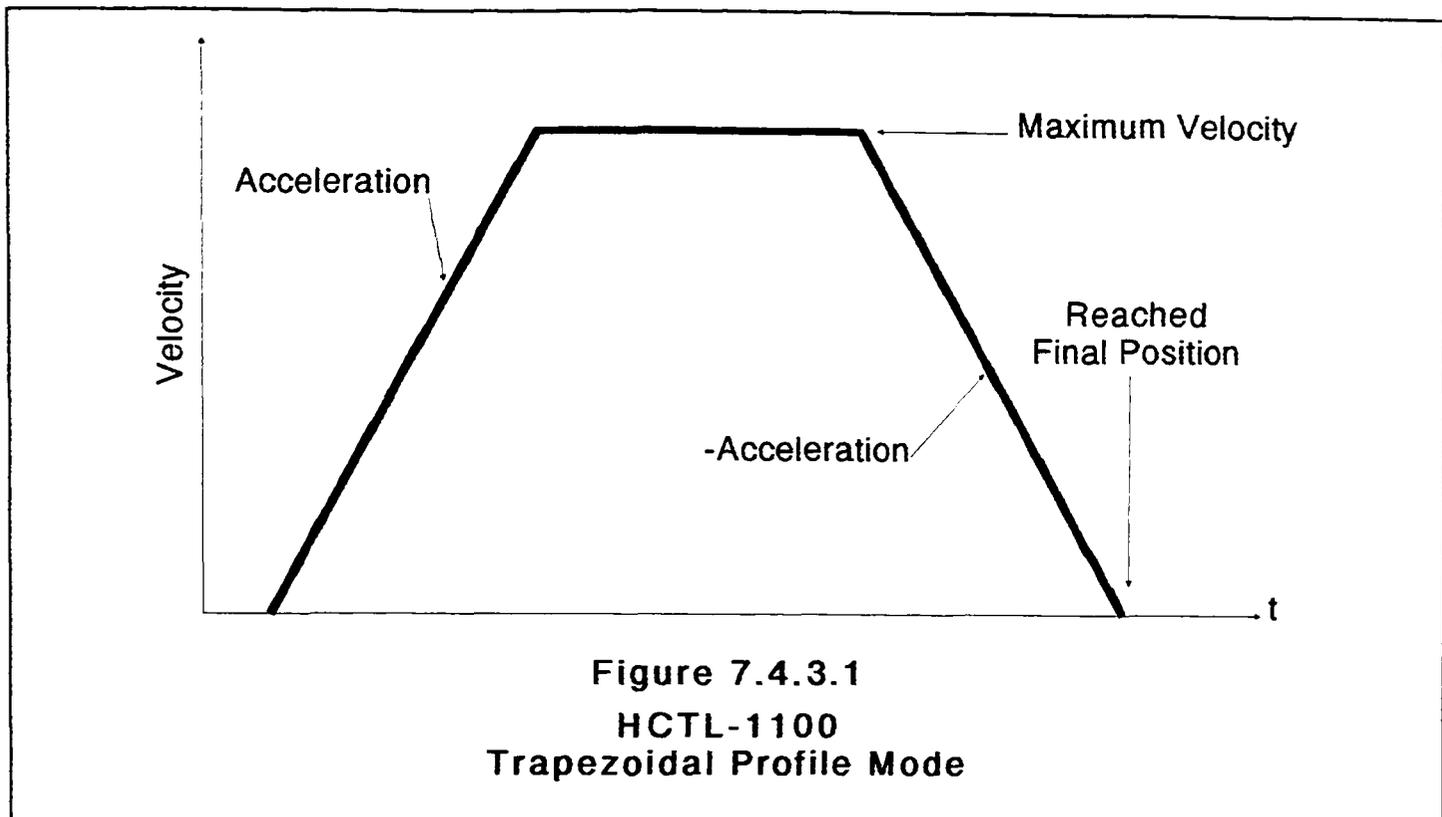


controller physically corresponds to feedback encoder quadrature counts/sample time. Feedback encoder quadrature counts are derived from incremental pulse encoders mounted on the drive gearbox shafts. Each encoder produces two square wave signals with frequency in proportion to the rotational speed of the shaft. The two signals are 90 degrees out of phase with each other (one quadrant) which allows the direction of rotation to be established by detecting the 'leading' signal.

The sampling time of the HCTL-1100 motor controller is derived from the master clock frequency and a divisor stored in the sample timer register (see reference 72). In the prototype design the master clock frequency is 2 MHz and the value written to the sample timer register is 0F (hex). This results in a sampling interval of 128 microseconds which is sufficiently high to have little effect on the stability of the motor drive systems.

Integral Velocity Control. In this mode the HCTL-1100 performs continuous velocity profiling. Velocity is specified as an 8-bit two's complement number and acceleration by a 16-bit value. The acceleration value is interpreted as a scalar with 8-bits integer and 8-bits fraction (for accuracy). The units of velocity and acceleration are expressed in encoder quadrature counts/sample time and quadrature counts/(sample time)² respectively. Whilst this mode of control allows acceleration to be specified and therefore reduces the effects of manufacturing tolerances, it is not ideal for this work because it does not allow moves to be defined in terms of position.

Proportional + Integral Trapezoidal Profiling. For this control mode the HCTL-1100 uses the same algorithm as position control, but deviates from it in that the acceleration, maximum velocity and final positions are supplied to the motor controllers. This mode executes 'trapezoidal' motion profiling as illustrated in figure 7.4.3.1. Acceleration is supplied as a two byte scalar representing encoder quadrature counts/(sample time)² and velocity is expressed as a single byte scalar corresponding to quadrature counts/sample time. As before, position is given as a three byte two's complement number in units of



encoder quadrature counts. The HCTL-1100 determines which direction of rotation is required by the value of the two's complement demand position relative to the actual position.

This latter form of control is employed in the obstacle avoidance system. It enables full control of the acceleration, deceleration and velocity of the mobile vehicle during point-to-point position moves. Hence the effects of physical differences between the motor drives are overcome allowing precise motion control.

7.4.4 HCTL-1100 Digital Motor Controller Tuning

In the experimental vehicle system, excessive overshoot in position moves is generally undesirable since it is potentially dangerous. The digital filter constants: K, A and B (identified at the beginning of section 7.4.3) have been set to critically damp the drive control system.

To a large extent, these constants have been determined by 'trial and error'. Whilst the DC motor dynamic responses are relatively simple to establish, the complete system

including quadrature encoders and digital controller is somewhat difficult to model. Furthermore, flexibility of the motor-gear box couplings and inevitable backlash in the gear boxes introduces a certain degree of system non-linearity. The developed software enables point-to-point move performance tests to be carried out on the experimental vehicle. The software allows the digital filter constants to be changed quickly via the IBM compatible computer-keyboard and serial communications link with the Intel 8031 embedded microcontroller. During tests, the parameters were systematically varied and the dynamic performance of the system was carefully monitored. The final control parameters resulted in an almost critically damped drive system performance. The complete time-domain digital control algorithm applied by the HCTL-1100 motor controllers is therefore:

$$MC_n = X_n - (0.25X_{(n-1)} + 0.894 MC_{(n-1)})$$

These empirically derived constants have been used throughout the obstacle avoidance development work described in the next chapter and have proved to give reliable system performance.

8 DEVELOPMENT OF THE OBSTACLE AVOIDANCE STRATEGY

8.1 Summary

The procedures that enable the experimental automated vehicle to avoid obstacles are described in this chapter. Section 8.2 describes the design of algorithms for steering and advancing the automated vehicle and explains the method used to measure the distance the vehicle deviates from its original path. This work contrasts with that carried out by other researchers in that the automatic vehicle guide path is treated as a vector rather than an orthogonally specified 'map'. Subsections of 8.2 describe how the motion of the vehicle has been reduced to basic 'turn' and 'advance' manoeuvres upon which all higher levels of obstacle avoidance are based.

A computer simulation of the obstacle avoidance algorithms has been developed in Pascal and is discussed in section 8.3. This program models the response of the automated vehicle to unexpected obstructions in the guide path. The program uses high resolution colour graphics to simulate the vehicle, a roadway and any number of obstacles. The latter are positioned interactively using the computer keyboard and a graphic cursor.

The model has been converted to Intel 8051 assembler language for testing on the experimental vehicle. Section 8.4 highlights the differences between the computer simulation and its real implementation.

8.2 Obstacle Avoidance Algorithms

In general, automated vehicles that follow fixed paths are not equipped with sensors to determine their absolute position within a 'world' coordinate system^[68]. They simply follow the path and, if they deviate from it, at best can recognise the fact and halt.

Many obstacle avoidance researchers deal with this problem by specifying the automated vehicle environment in the form of a map, complete with boundaries indicating 'go' and 'no go' regions^[69,70,71]. On-board electronics keep track of the vehicle position in the form of orthogonal coordinates determined from sensory data. Thus, if an obstacle is detected and the automated vehicle deviates from the guide path to avoid it, information is available to enable it to return to the path after the manoeuvre. However, the tasks of specifying and maintaining a 'map' of the AGV operating environment are critical. They require accurate measurement and constant re-evaluation in the face of environmental change. Furthermore, systems which use dead-reckoning sensors to obtain positional information over a large area are normally subject to unacceptable cumulative errors.

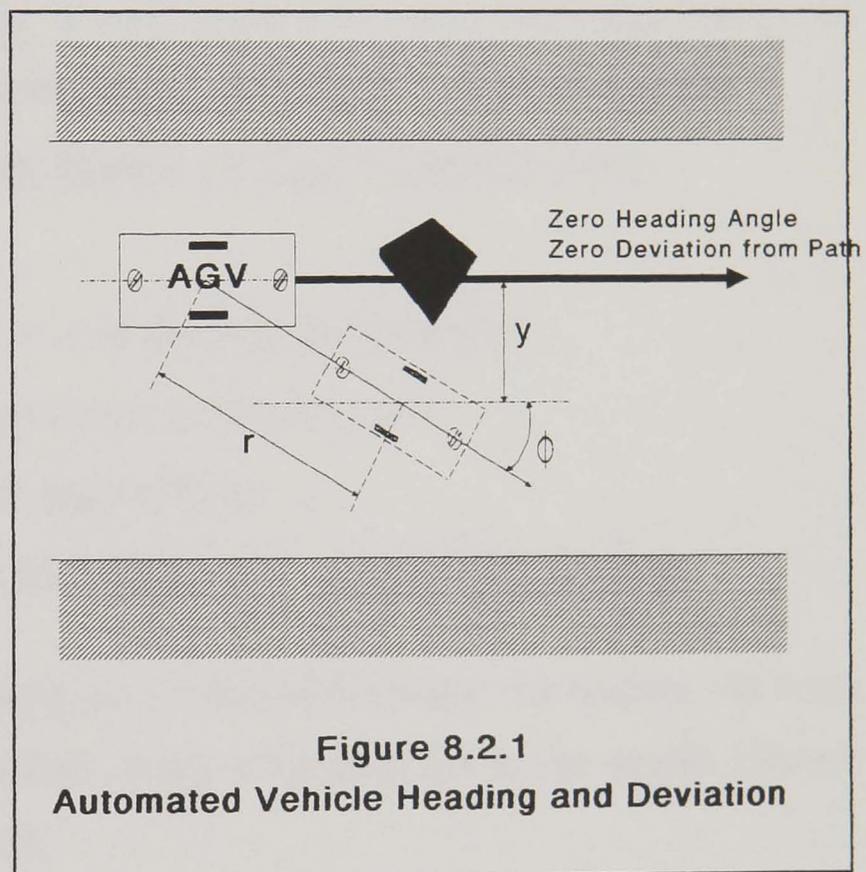
In this research, a method has been devised for AGV control which avoids the labour-intensive and expensive task of detailing a factory in terms of two-dimensional coordinates. A local map is developed when an unexpected obstacle is detected. This is based on the following rules:

- The section of the guide-path upon which the AGV is travelling when the obstacle is detected remains straight for the duration of the obstacle avoidance manoeuvre.
- If an obstacle completely fills the CCD camera field of view, the decision of which direction to take is based on a priori information about the AGV guide path layout. For example, if the guide path is towards the left hand side of aisles then most space for avoiding the obstacle is likely to be available to the right. This would therefore be the most likely direction to result in successful avoidance.

- The maximum distance that the automated vehicle is allowed to deviate from the guide path during an obstacle avoidance manoeuvre is governed by the overall width of the aisles (see section 8.2.3).

When the obstacle detection system senses an obstruction in the vehicle path, two variables representing the current deviation from the path and the current heading are set to zero. As the vehicle leaves the path to avoid the obstacle, its relative deviation and heading are referred to this

initial 'zero vector'. The deviation and heading are denoted by 'y' and 'theta' respectively in figure 8.2.1. The vehicle rejoins the original guide path when the deviation and heading return to their initial zero values. The equation for the deviation y is: $y = r \sin(\theta)$ where r is the distance travelled on a particular heading theta (see figure 8.2.1).



The motion of the automated vehicle is simplified to a pair of 'primary' movements as follows:

- **TURN(DIR):** Turn the automated vehicle 5 degrees in the direction 'DIR'. Five degrees is chosen as the smallest increment of angular motion because it allows fast trigonometrical evaluation using a short look-up table. 'DIR' is a Boolean variable with TRUE representing an angular increment of -5 degrees (a clockwise turn), and FALSE +5 degrees (an anti-clockwise turn).

- **ADVANCE:** This primary manoeuvre advances the automated vehicle in a forward direction. The actual distance that one 'advance' moves the vehicle is set to 50 mm. This represents the increment that the automated vehicle travels in the forward direction before rechecking for obstacles (see section 8.2.2).

In general, a complete obstacle avoidance sequence is constructed from several primary TURNS and ADVANCES, and may involve the avoidance of more than one obstacle. A running total of aggregate headings and deviations is maintained to enable the system to recover the vehicle to the guide path after circumnavigating the obstruction. The following pseudo-code operations explain how this is achieved:

$$\text{NEW_HEADING} = \text{OLD_HEADING} + (5 \text{ degrees} * \text{DIRECTION})$$

where:

DIRECTION = -1 for an anti-clockwise turn

DIRECTION = +1 for a clockwise turn }

$$\text{NEW_DEVIATION} = \text{OLD_DEVIATION} + (\text{ADVANCE_INCREMENT} * \sin(\text{NEW_HEADING}))$$

The complete obstacle avoidance procedure is broken down into subroutines. These are described in the following sub-sections under titles assigned in the actual software source code (see appendices 3 and 6):

8.2.1 'LeftOrRight' Subroutine

This subroutine determines which direction to turn to avoid an obstacle. The detection system provides information for obstacle avoidance in the form of the three Boolean variables: OBSTFROMLEFT, OBSTFROMCENTRE, and OBSTFROMRIGHT. These variables indicate whether an obstacle is emerging from the left, centre or right of the CCD camera field of view and are determined by dividing the video image into three equal regions. The obstacle detection software ascertains where obstacles lie in relation

to the AGV by establishing which region the detected light codes appear. The LeftOrRight subroutine uses the three Boolean variables to determine whether to turn to the left or right to avoid the obstacle. If the obstacle only occurs in the centre of the field of view, or if it fills the field of view, the decision is based on a priori knowledge of the automated vehicle environment. In the prototype, this is arbitrarily to the right. If the obstacle emerges in the left of the field of view then avoidance is attempted to the right. Conversely if an obstacle emerges from the right then the system will attempt to avoid the obstacle to the left.

8.2.2 'TURNAGV' Subroutine

Figure 8.2.2.1 shows the flow chart for the TURNAGV algorithm. All the sub-routines to be discussed return a Boolean variable 'RESULT' which is only FALSE if the automated vehicle can not pass the obstacle. All the subroutines which physically move the AGV execute a check for obstacles. This returns a Boolean variable 'OBSTDETECTED' which is TRUE when an obstacle is detected (regardless of its position in the field of view) and FALSE otherwise.

When the system detects an obstacle, the software determines which way to turn to avoid it using the LeftOrRight routine, and then turns in 5 degree increments until the obstacle no longer interferes with the projected light pattern. This results in the automated vehicle being orientated with a heading that will allow it to clear the obstacle. A further subroutine 'TESTTURN' is included, whose flow chart is shown in figure 8.2.2.2. This checks for:

- Another obstacle emerging which will prevent the vehicle turning to avoid the first one. This occurs, for example, if the AGV is in a narrow gap and while turning to the right to avoid an obstacle on the left, encounters another obstacle on the right before the one from the left is cleared. In this case the vehicle cannot avoid the obstruction and a FALSE result is returned.

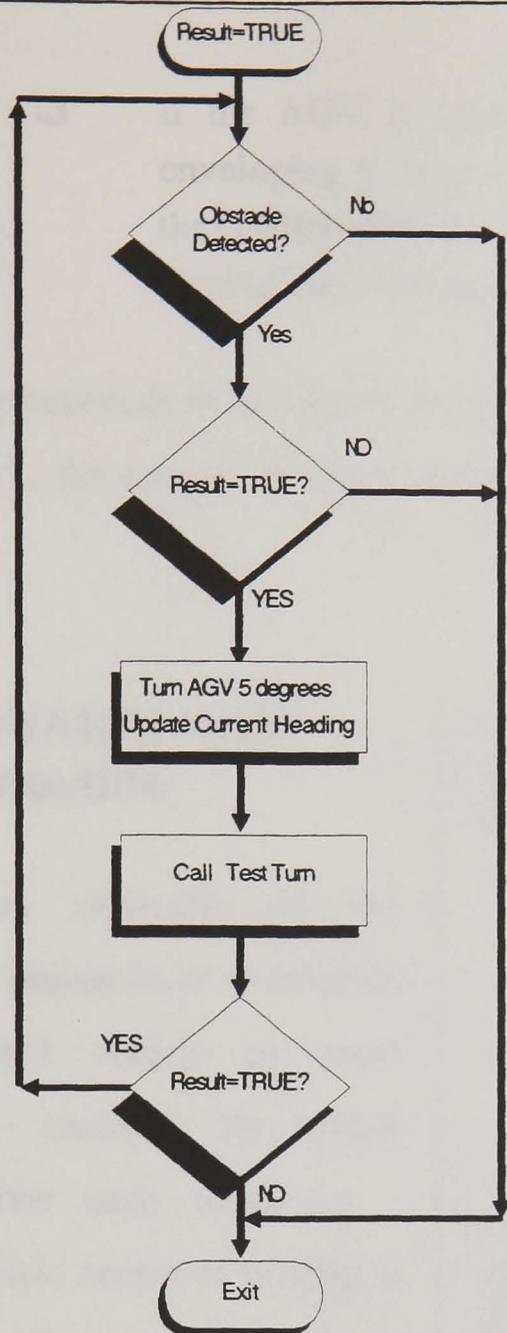
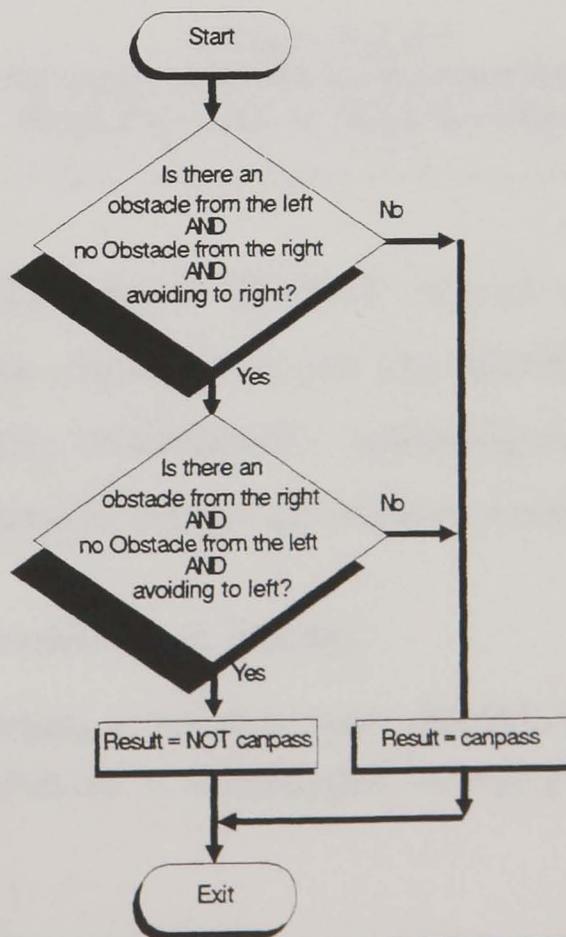


Figure 8.2.2.1
Flow Chart for 'TURN' Algorithm

Figure 8.2.2.2
Flow Chart for 'TEST_TURN' Procedure



- If the AGV is faced with a semi-circular type of obstruction enveloping it then a maximum limit of 90 degrees is placed on the TURNAGV procedure. This prevents the automated vehicle turning back on itself.

If the vehicle succeeds in turning to avoid the obstacle, it must next advance in a series of small steps, far enough to allow recovery to the guide path without colliding with the obstacle.

8.2.3 'ADVANCEAGV' Subroutine

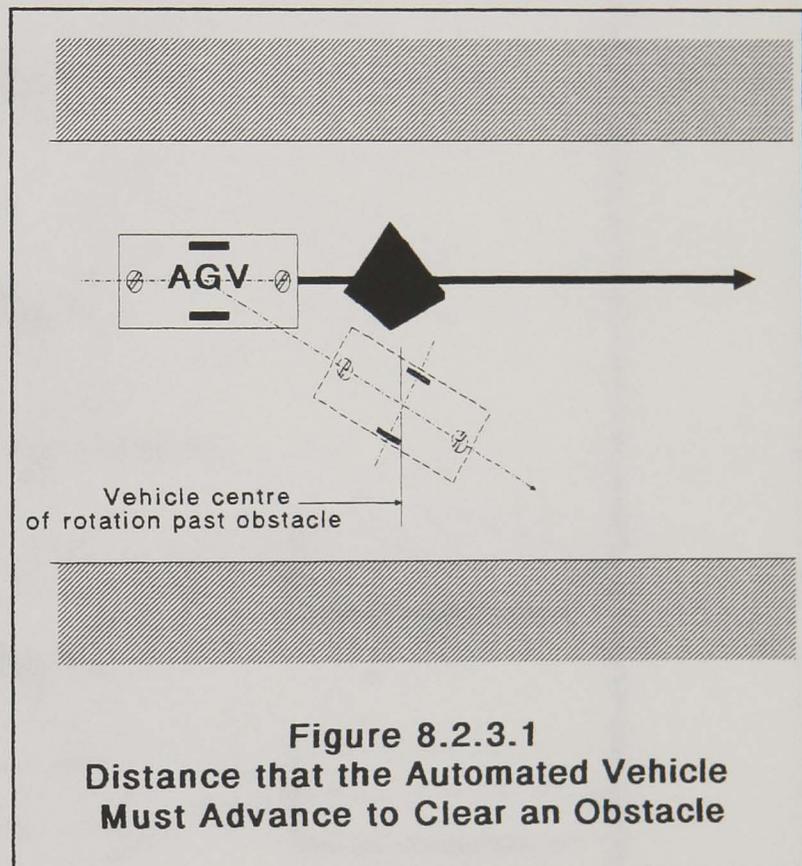
The primary objective of the ADVANCE procedure is to advance the automated vehicle in small increments - checking for further obstacles after each increment - until the vehicle centre of turning is past the obstacle as shown in figure 8.2.3.1.

Figure 8.2.3.2 shows the flow chart for the ADVANCEAGV procedure.

As in the previous subroutine, the Boolean variable 'RESULT' is used to indicate whether the automated vehicle can pass the obstruction or not. The ADVANCEAGV routine uses an additional Boolean variable 'PASSEDYET' which signals that the vehicle has advanced far enough past the obstacle to begin the recovery procedure.

The failure modes of the 'ADVANCE' procedure are as follows:

- The procedure will return a 'failed to pass' (RESULT=FALSE) result if a further obstacle is encountered emerging from the



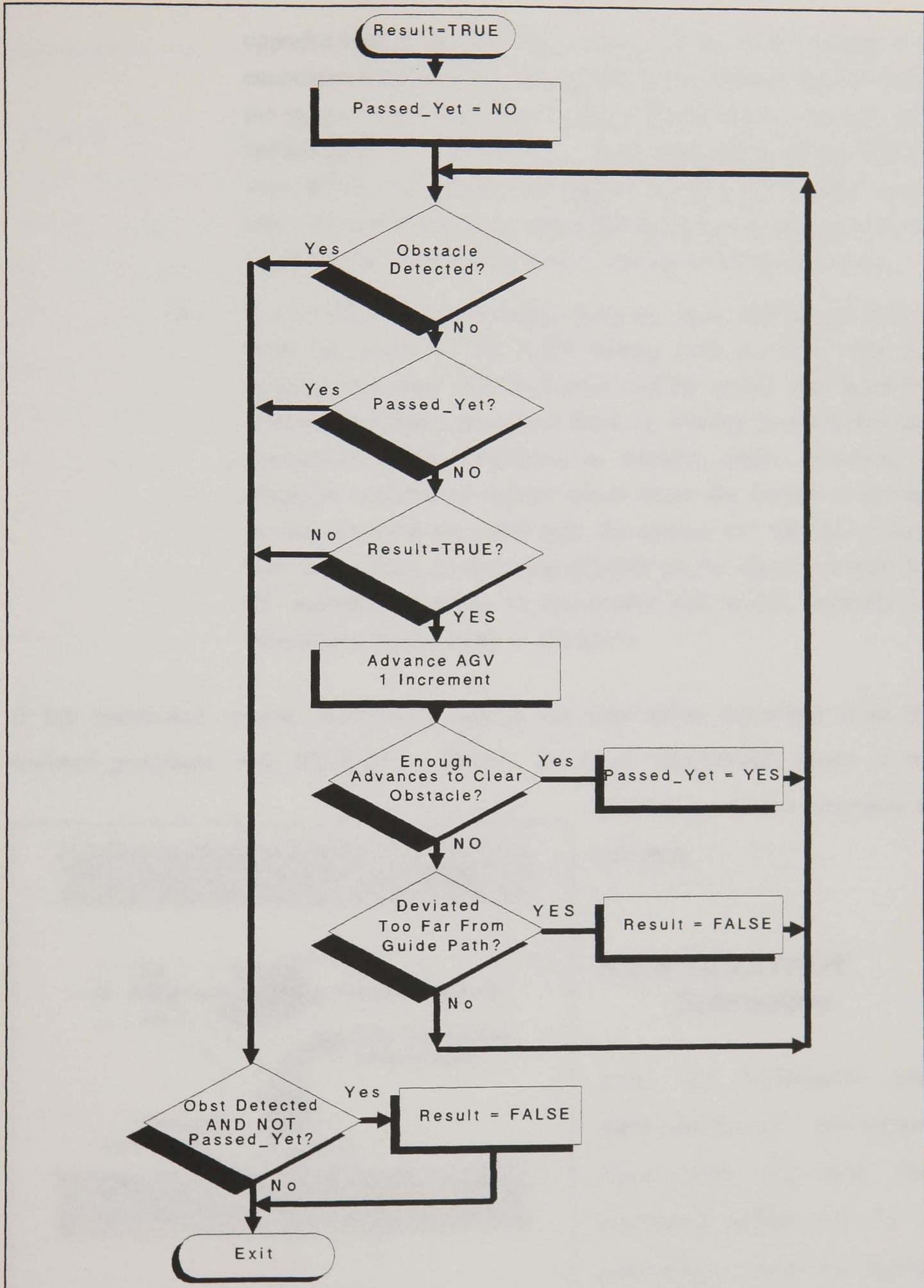
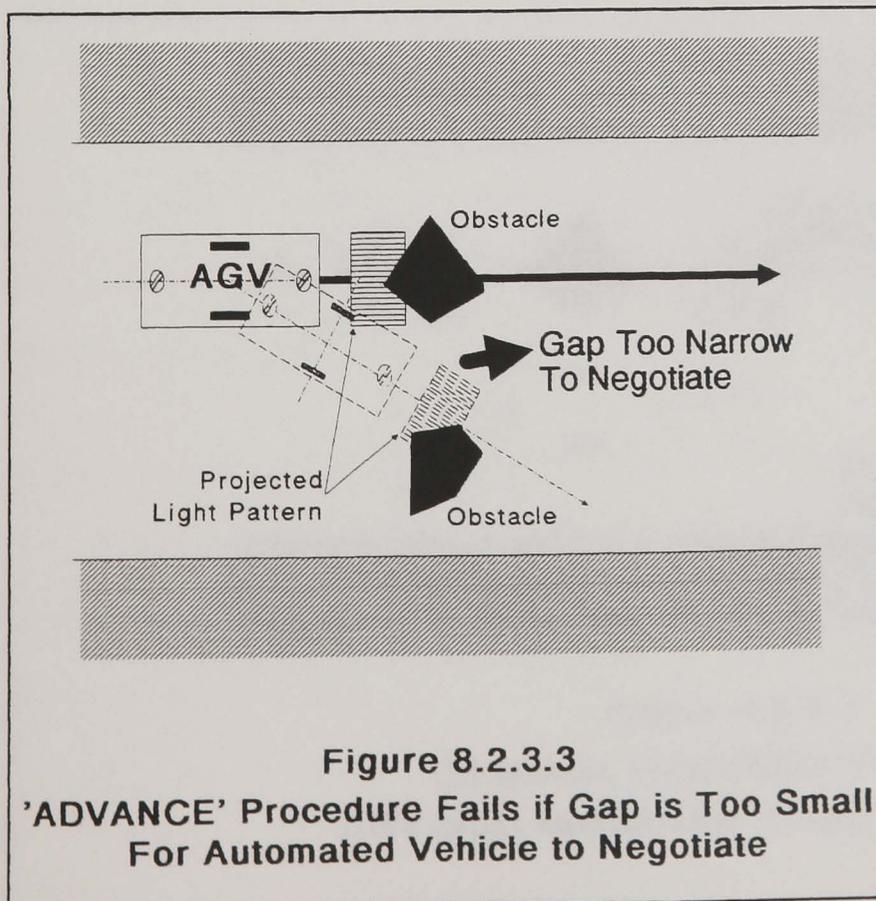


Figure 8.2.3.2
Flow Chart for 'ADVANCE' Procedure

opposite side to the first. For example, if an initial obstacle was encountered in the left region of the CCD camera field of view, the system would attempt to avoid it by turning to the right. If a second obstacle emerges in the right hand region of the field of view before the vehicle had passed the first, the system would halt. This condition arises when the gap between obstacles is too small for the vehicle to manoeuvre as shown in figure 8.2.3.3.

- If a further obstacle emerges from the same side as the first or from the centre of the CCD camera field of view, then the advance procedure will be aborted and the system will begin the obstacle avoidance procedure anew by turning to avoid the new obstruction before beginning to advance again. However, if obstacles continue to emerge which cause the vehicle to deviate excessively from the guide path, the system will halt the vehicle. This upper limit of deviation depends on the space available for the automated vehicle to manoeuvre and would normally be determined by the width of the aisles.

If the automated vehicle successfully passes the obstruction (returning from the advance procedure with $RESULT = TRUE$), the final 'RECOVER' phase of the obstacle avoidance procedure is initiated.



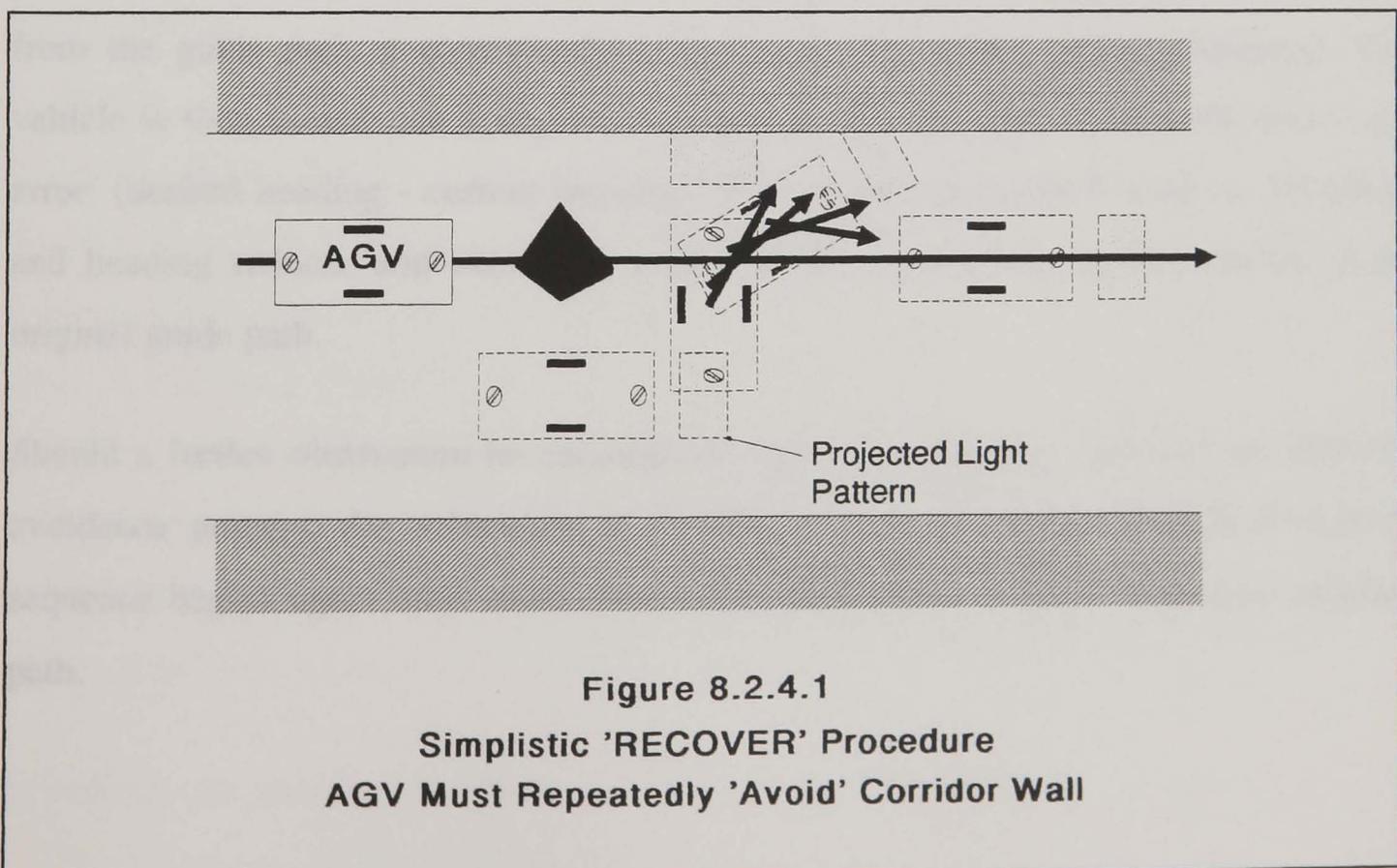
8.2.4 'RECOVER' Subroutine

After the TURNAGV and ADVANCEAGV procedures have been executed, the automated vehicle will be at some distance from the original guide path with an orientation which enabled it to pass the

final obstacle. The 'RECOVER' procedure returns the vehicle to its original trajectory.

The most direct method of achieving this would be to turn the automated vehicle so that it approached the original guide path in a perpendicular direction, and then turn it 90 degrees onto its original heading when the deviation from the path reaches zero. However, a severe disadvantage with this approach is that if the guide path runs closely parallel with a wall, the vehicle would need to turn and advance many times before returning to its original route as shown in figure 8.2.4.1. This method would eventually succeed if the wall was continuous. However, if it was discontinuous, the vehicle would at best meander back on course on an 's' shaped trajectory after overshooting the guide path.

The alternative approach developed in this work is to return the automated vehicle to the guide path on a hyperbolic trajectory as shown in figure 8.2.4.2. Using this approach, the greater the deviation from the guide path, the more severe the return heading angle. As the vehicle approaches its original guide path, the recovery angle converges with the original vehicle heading.



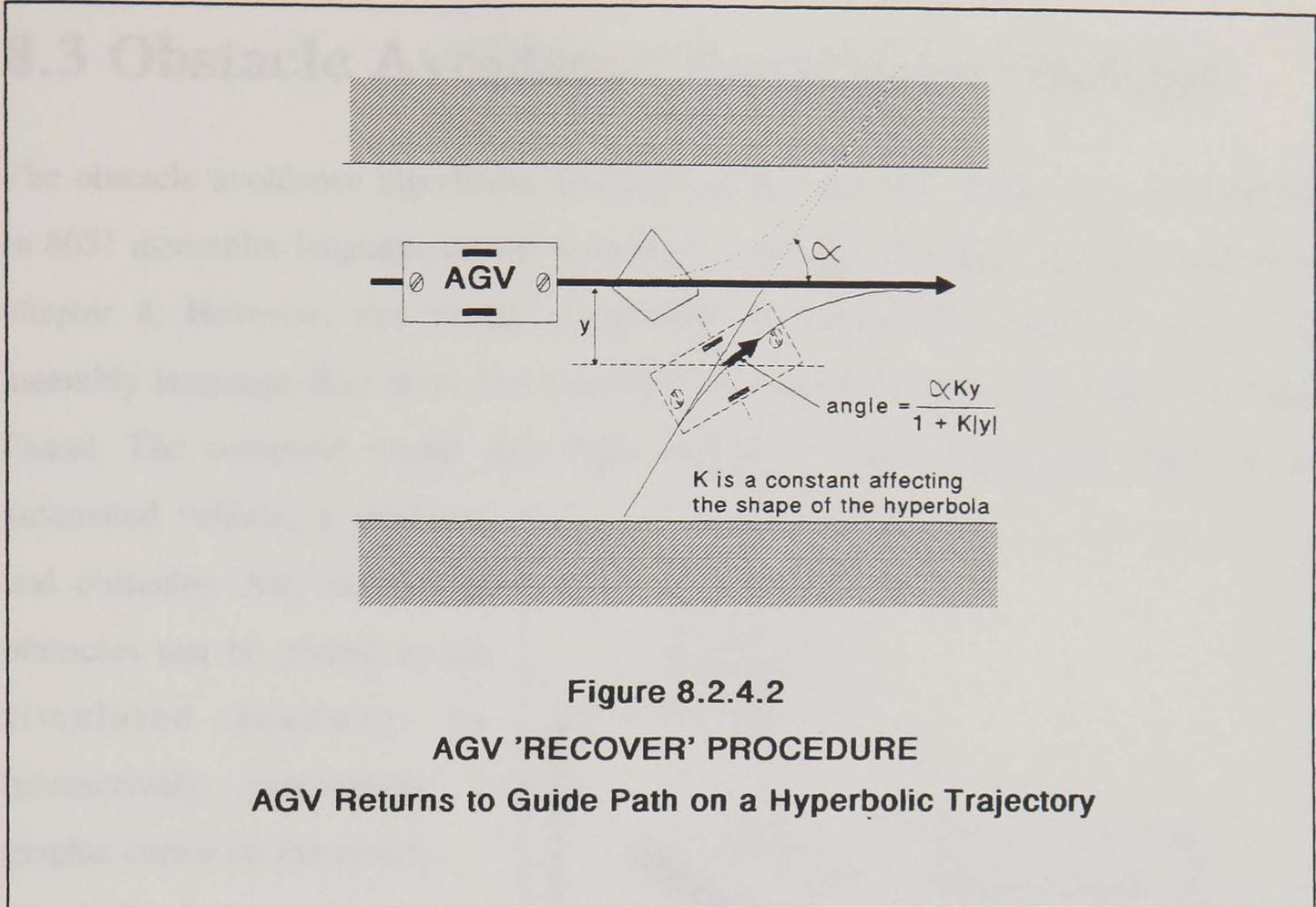


Figure 8.2.4.3 shows the flow chart for the recovery procedure. In order to avoid the need for floating point arithmetic, the hyperbolic equation in figure 8.2.4.2 has been reduced to a look-up table of headings (see appendix 3). Hence, for a given deviation from the guide path, a corresponding heading is determined (desired heading). The vehicle is then turned one 5 degree increment in the direction which will reduce the error: (desired heading - current heading). This process is repeated until the deviation and heading reduces and eventually converges to zero as the vehicle returns to its original guide path.

Should a further obstruction be encountered during the recovery phase of the obstacle avoidance process, the subroutine is abandoned and the whole obstacle avoidance sequence begins again until either the process fails or the vehicle regains its original path.

8.3 Obstacle Avoidance Simulation Package

The obstacle avoidance algorithms discussed in the previous sections are implemented in 8051 assembler language on the Intel 8031 embedded computer system described in chapter 4. However, due to the complexity of coding the algorithms directly in assembly language, they were first tested by developing a simulation package in Turbo Pascal. The computer model uses high resolution colour graphics to represent the automated vehicle, a roadway, and obstacles. Any number of obstacles can be placed in the simulated roadway by interactively positioning a graphic cursor on the screen.

Figure 8.3.1 illustrates the graphical models. The automated vehicle chassis is represented by a rectangle with a further rectangle for the projected light pattern. The roadway is shown between two cross-hatched regions in the upper and lower portions of the display. Obstacles are represented as random four sided polygons in the same colour as the road edges.

Procedures are included to turn

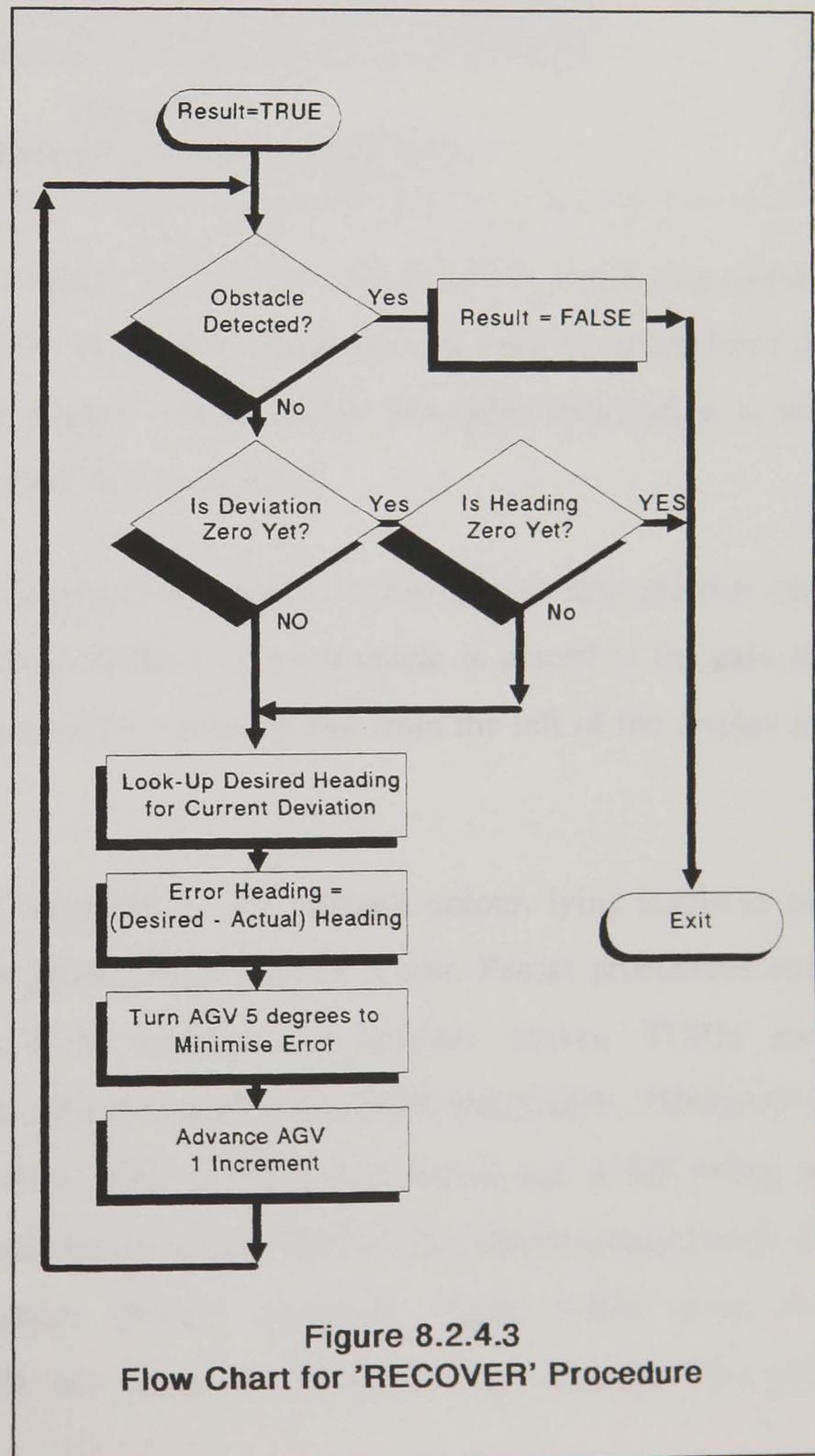
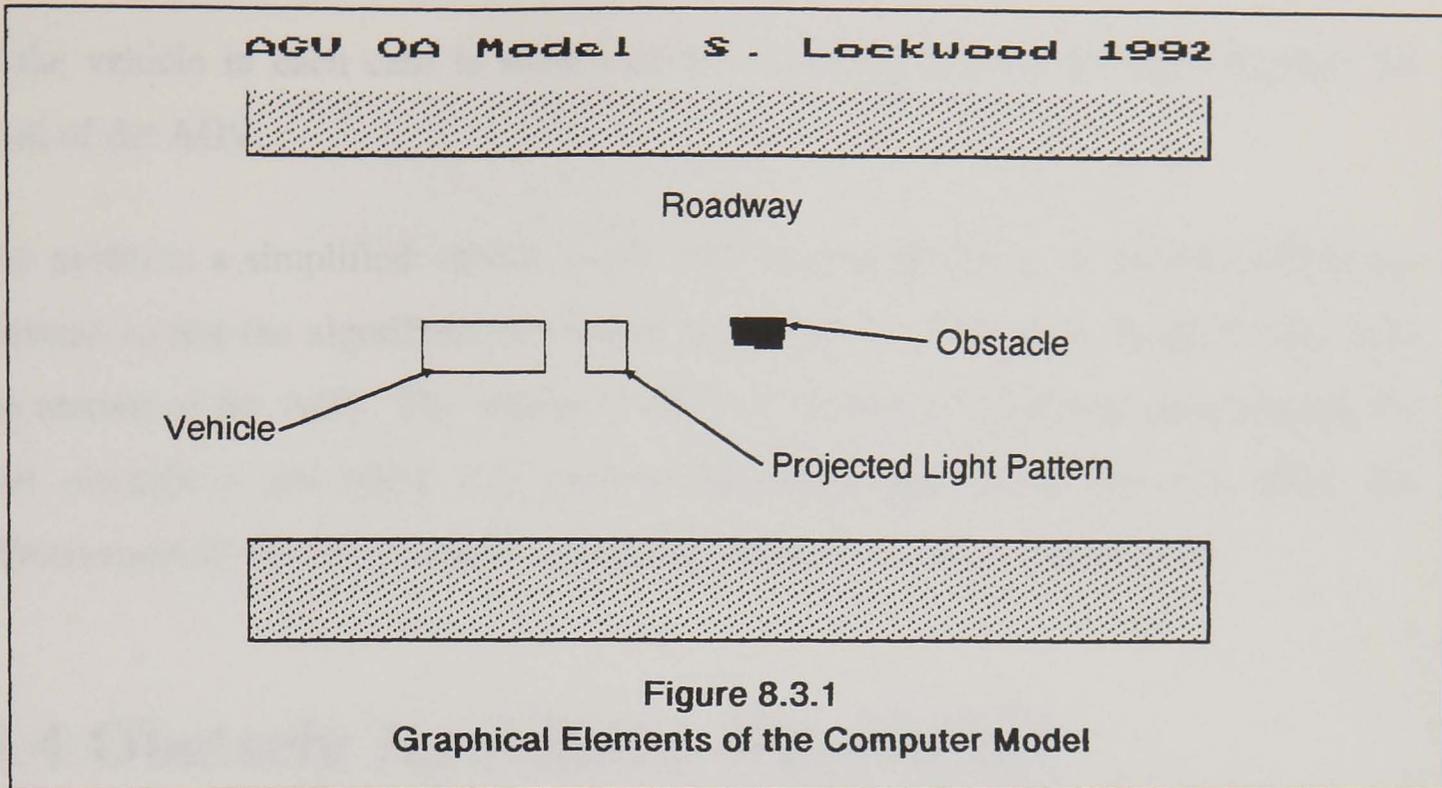


Figure 8.2.4.3
Flow Chart for 'RECOVER' Procedure



the AGV model in 5 degree increments and also to advance it in small increments. Information about the position of the simulated vehicle and its heading is tabulated in the upper left hand corner of the display. To aid clarity, the latter information is not shown in the 'screen dumps' of figures 8.3.1 and 8.3.2.

Each time the AGV is turned or advanced, it is erased, redrawn in its new position and orientation, and the information table updated. If no obstacle is placed in the path of the AGV model it will simply proceed on a straight line from the left of the display to the right.

Obstacles are detected by testing for pixels of the obstacle colour, lying inside or on the boundary of the simulated projected light pattern. Turbo Pascal procedures and functions have been implemented to simulate the primary moves: TURN and ADVANCE and the secondary operations: LeftOrRight, ADVANCEAGV, TURNAGV, and RECOVER according to the flow charts developed in section 8.2. A full listing of the AGV system model can be seen in appendix 6. Figure 8.3.2 shows screen dumps of the model when faced with various obstacle situations. Figure 8.3.2a shows the response to single obstacles, 8.3.2b two obstacles and 8.3.2c three obstacles. The path

of the vehicle in each case is shown using a modified procedure which displays the 'trail of the AGV.

The model is a simplified version of the real system. However, it proved sufficiently accurate to test the algorithms developed in section 8.2. The main simplification is in the motion of the AGV. The inertia of the real vehicle as it halts on encountering the first obstacle is not taken into account. However, this factor does not affect the effectiveness of the simulation in testing the obstacle avoidance subroutines.

8.4 Obstacle Avoidance Algorithms Transferred to the Intel 8031 Embedded Microcontroller

The Pascal simulation program was converted to 8051 assembler language and tested on the real experimental vehicle. The only significant structural differences between the real system software and the model, are the language used for the source code and the method used to evaluate the sine function. In the Turbo Pascal model, this is carried out using the floating point $\sin(x)$ function included in the package. Floating point arithmetic has been avoided in 8051 assembler language by implementing a look-up table. Since the experimental vehicle is only moved in 5 degree increments as described earlier, the table needs only to hold sine values for multiples of five degrees. In order to both achieve accuracy and restrict the look-up table values to single bytes, the sine values have been stored as $K\sin(x)$ where K is 256. The actual value of deviation is maintained as a two-byte two's complement number with positive and negative values depending on which side of the guide path the vehicle is situated. Full listings of the assembler language obstacle avoidance program and the look-up tables are presented in appendix 3.

The subroutines developed in the preceding sections were evaluated on the real experimental vehicle system and the results are described in the next chapter.

AGU OA Model S. Lockwood 1992



AGU OA Model S. Lockwood 1992

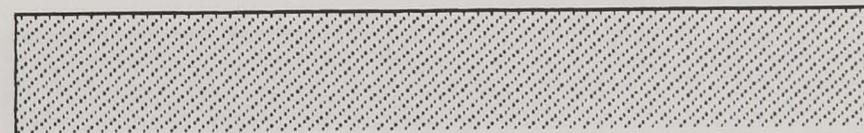
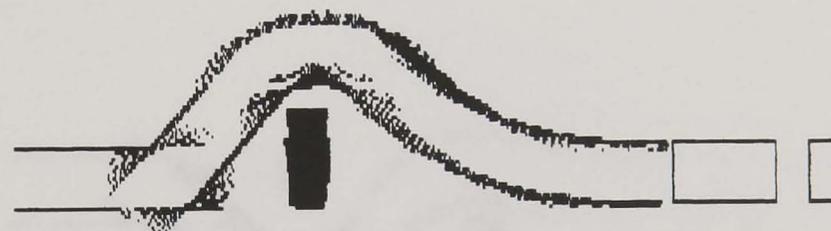
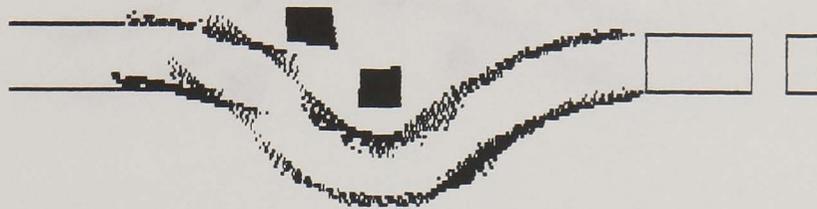


Figure 8.3.2.a
Single Obstacle Avoidance

AGU OA Model S. Lockwood 1992



AGU OA Model S. Lockwood 1992

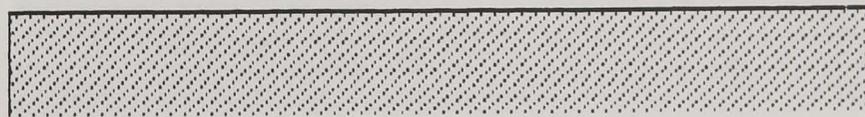
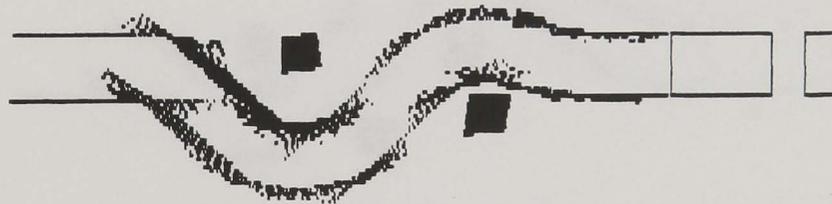
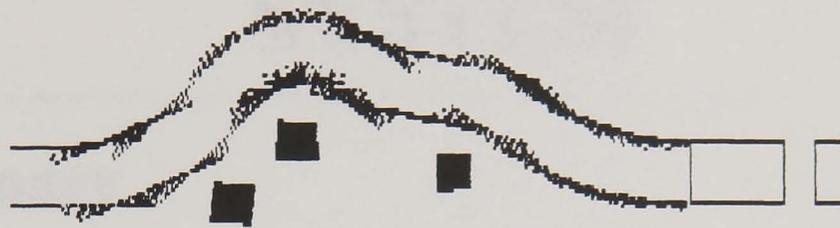
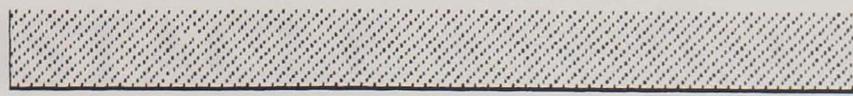


Figure 8.3.2.b
Double Obstacle Avoidance

AGU OA Model S. Lockwood 1992



AGU OA Model S. Lockwood 1992

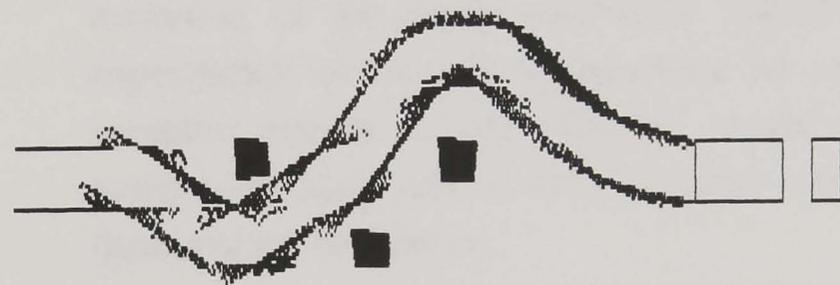


Figure 8.3.2.c
Avoidance of Three Obstacles

9 EVALUATION OF THE OBSTACLE AVOIDANCE SYSTEM

9.1 Summary

In support of the results presented as part of the design process in chapters 3,5,6 and 8, this chapter describes experiments carried out on the completed obstacle avoidance system. These are divided into three sections:

- ❑ **Obstacle Detection.** Experiments were carried out to confirm the size of the smallest detectable object and test the ability of the system to sense a diverse range of obstacles.
- ❑ **Response Time and Real-Time Operation.** The speed of execution of the image processing software is examined and experiments carried out to determine the response time of the complete system. A key objective of the research is that the system should operate in real-time. Tests have been conducted to demonstrate this feature.
- ❑ **Obstacle Avoidance.** These experiments determine the accuracy and repeatability of the obstacle avoidance system.

All the practical work described in this chapter was carried out in the Flexible Manufacturing laboratory at the University of Huddersfield.

9.2 Obstacle Detection System

Chapter 5 described how the system is designed to detect objects of minimum dimensions 50mm wide X 20 mm tall. This limit is imposed partly due to the method of processing video information and partly due to the physical size of the projected

light code. The moving average filter which processes images in the vertical direction requires that obstacles are tall enough to reflect at least 8 video lines. In the horizontal direction, they must be wide enough to reflect a complete projected light code. The ability of the system to detect an object of these minimum dimensions was tested by placing the 50mm X 20mm test card on the floor ahead of the vehicle as illustrated in figure 9.2.1. The resulting video camera view of figure 9.2.2 shows that a complete light code is reflected. The system successfully detected the test card and therefore the height criteria was also verified.

The hypothesis which forms the basis of the next experiment is that the use of a white light projector ensures sufficient light is reflected from objects with minimal reflective properties. An automobile radiator component with a black lustreless surface (specifically designed to minimise reflection and maximise heat absorption) was selected to test this premise. Figure 9.2.3 shows the video camera view of the component. The system successfully detected the radiator part even though the matt black surface was oblique to the projector and camera angle of incidence.

The ability of the system to detect objects with efficient reflective properties without saturating is also important. The video camera adjusts the average amount of light falling on the CCD array by means of an auto-iris. The performance of this device was tested by replacing the matt black radiator component with a large gloss white board. The video camera view of figure 9.2.4 shows that the auto-iris successfully limited the light falling on the CCD array and prevented light saturation. This can be seen by the fact that the reflected light codes remain clearly defined in the video image.

The speed of operation of the auto-iris device was tested by placing the video camera in complete darkness and then introducing it to a bright light. This was achieved by positioning the gloss white board in front of the obstacle detection system and placing a dark cover over the camera lens. The cover was quickly removed and the response of the auto-iris timed. The system took approximately 0.25 seconds to adjust. Since this is

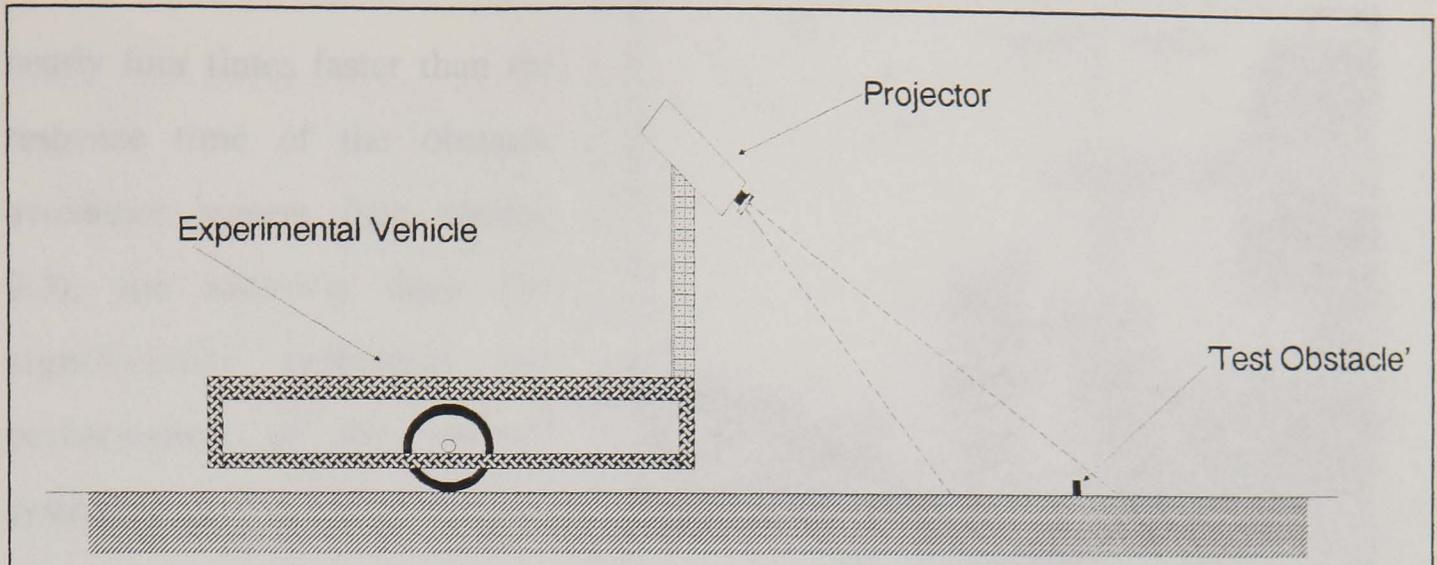


Figure 9.2.1
'Test Obstacle' Positioned in Light Pattern

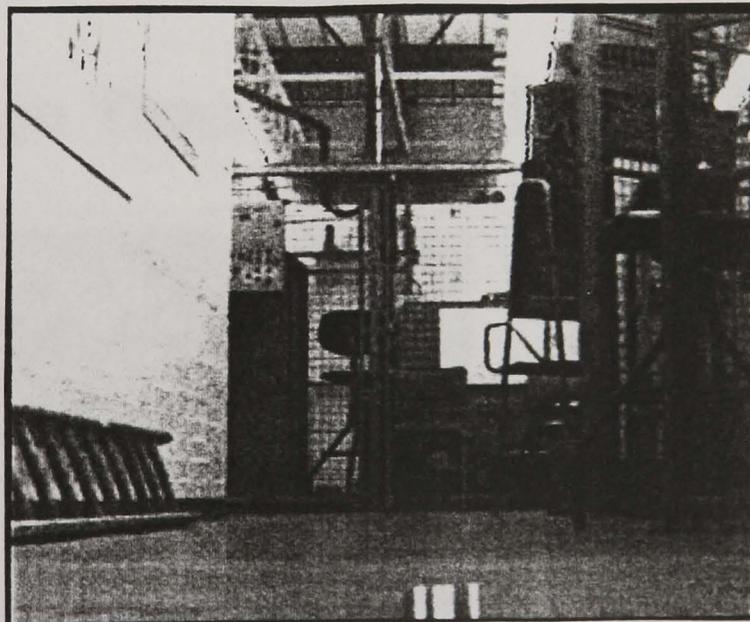


Figure 9.2.2
Video Camera View of 'Test Obstacle'

nearly four times faster than the response time of the obstacle avoidance system (see section 9.3), the auto-iris does not significantly influence the performance of the overall system.

It is not feasible here to provide evidence of the system detecting all possible obstructions, neither

is there any particular definitive obstacle. However, further to the previous results, the video images of figure 9.2.5 show the camera view of a selection of obstacles as they were detected. These are typical of those likely to be encountered in factories and vary widely in colour, surface texture and shape.

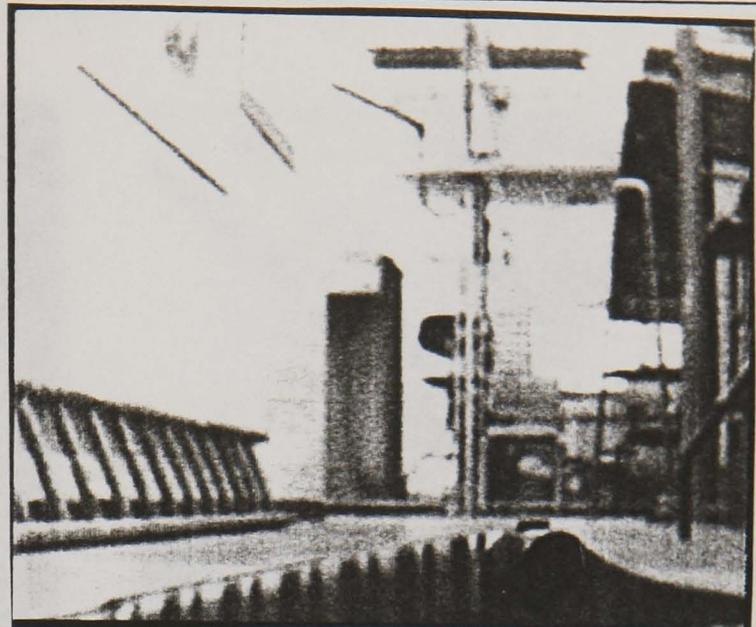


Figure 9.2.3
Video Camera View of a Matt Black Obstacle

9.3 Response Time and Real-Time Operation

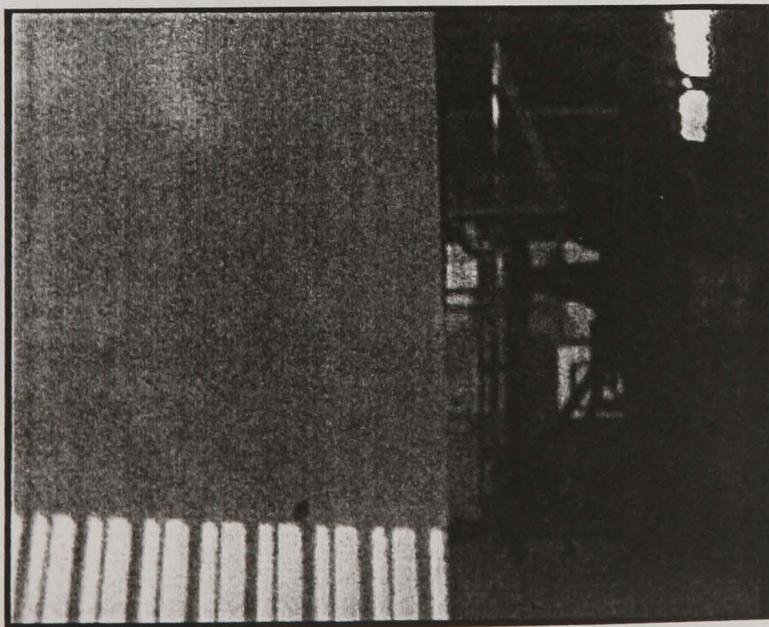
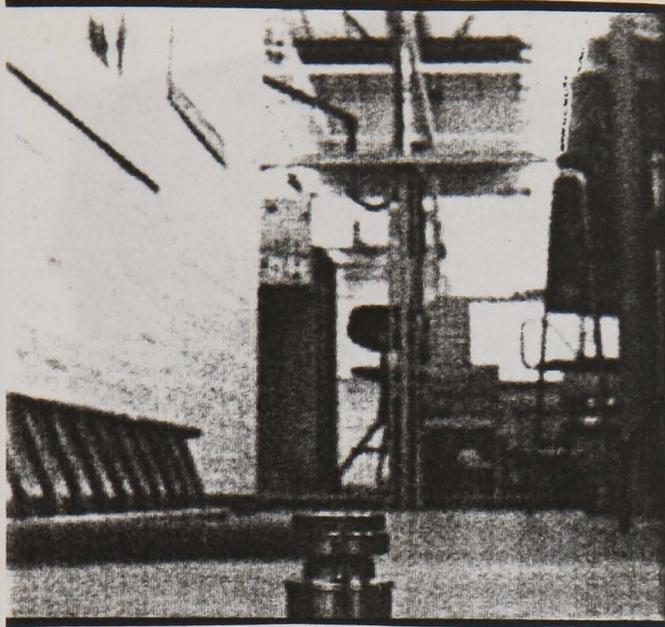
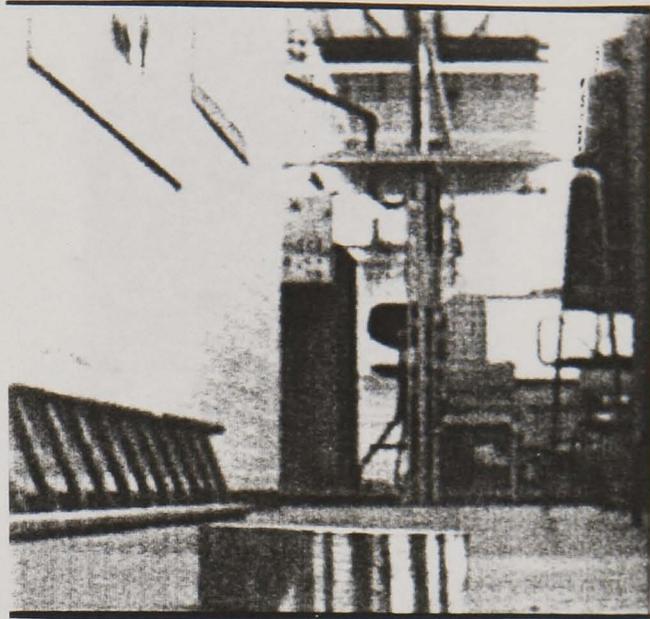


Figure 9.2.4
Video Camera View of a Gloss White Board

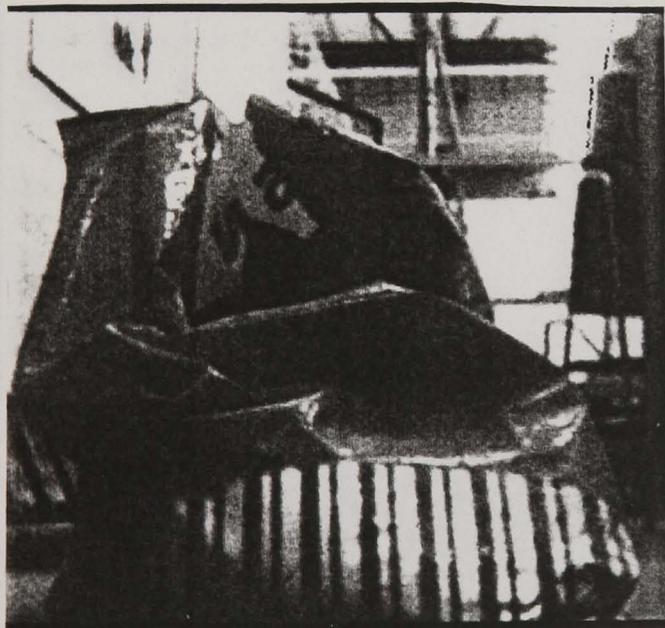
When the system initially detects an obstacle, the embedded computer system takes control of the vehicle drives and brings it to a halt. This is achieved by electronically switching buffer integrated circuits and supplying stop commands to the motor controllers. The obstacle detection system then performs



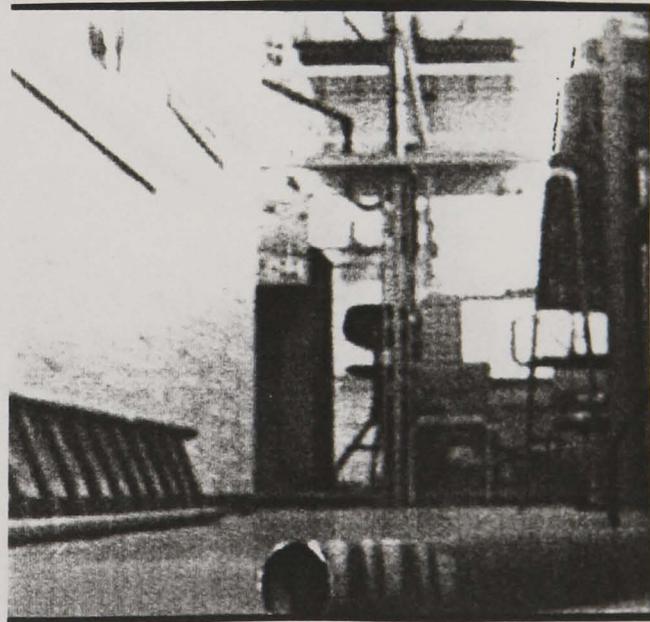
Steel Turned Component



Wood Block

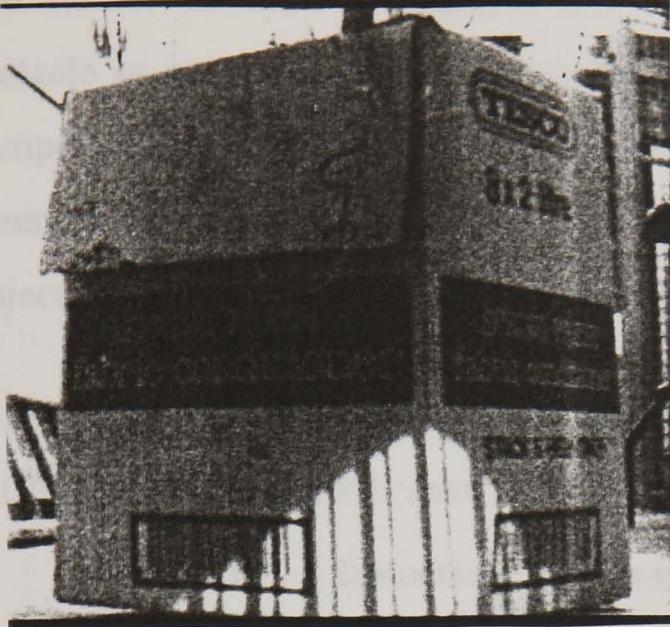


Plastic Sack

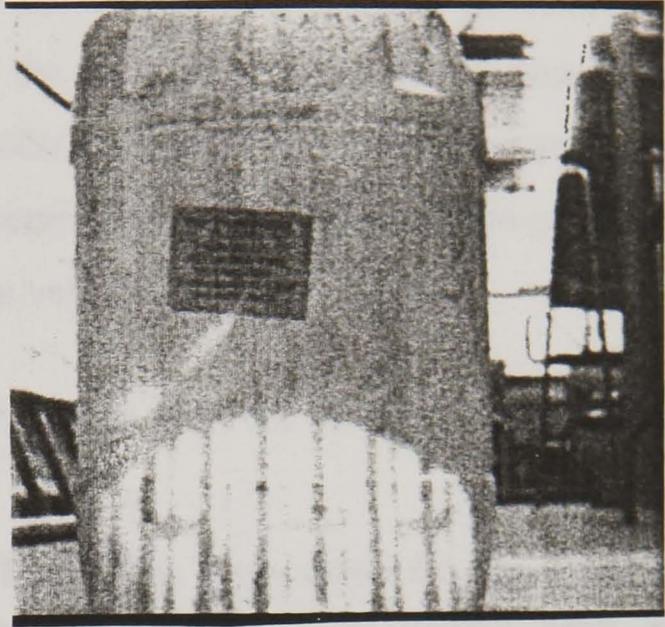


Copper Pipe

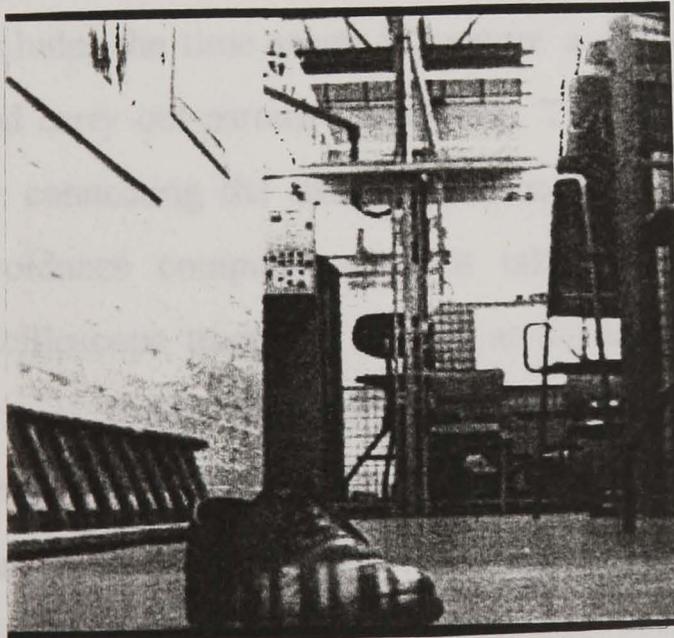
Figure 9.2.5
Typical Obstacles Encountered in Factories



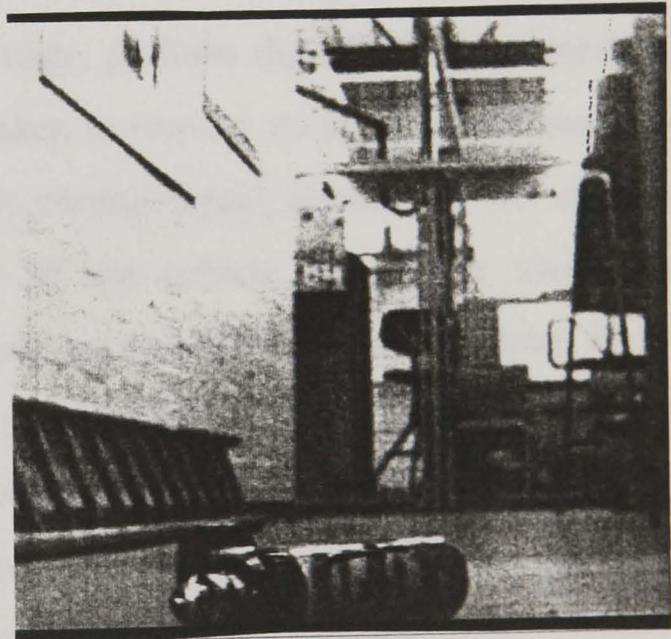
Cardboard Box



Oil Drum



Shoe



Power Tool

Figure 9.2.5
Typical Obstacles Encountered in Factories

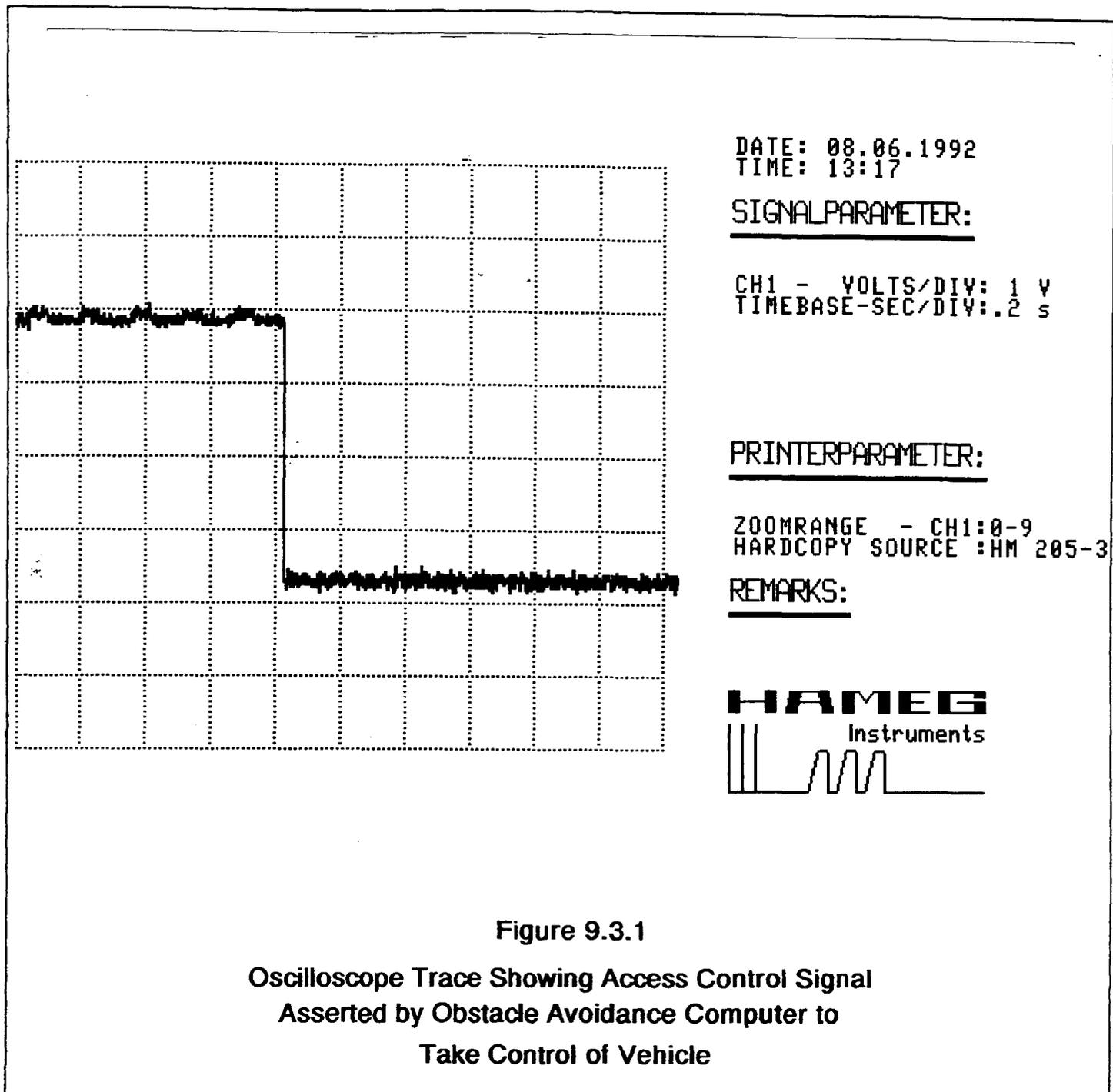
two further checks for obstacles and bases the decision of whether to avoid the obstacle or not on the majority consensus of the three results. Section 6.3 provides a comprehensive description of this majority polling scheme. The process increases the surety of obstacle detection and reduces the sensitivity of the system to non-persistent objects (such as people crossing the path of the vehicle).

The response time of the obstacle avoidance system may therefore be considered as relating to two separate events:

- ❑ **Detection Response Time.** The time taken for the obstacle avoidance computer to take control of the vehicle after an obstacle is introduced to the system.
- ❑ **Avoidance Response Time.** The time interval from an obstacle being placed in front of the system to the instant when the vehicle begins to avoid it.

The time taken to detect an obstacle is governed by the video processing system. This includes the time taken to capture a video image, perform digital filtering operations and carry out pattern recognition. The time taken to execute these tasks was measured by connecting the storage oscilloscope to the control signal asserted by the obstacle avoidance computer when it takes control of the vehicle. In storage mode, the oscilloscope trace was started at the same time as an obstacle was introduced to the system. Figure 9.3.1 is a hard copy of the oscilloscope trace which shows the time interval from the point when the obstacle was introduced (the left hand edge of the trace), to the point where the signal level changes. This is the Detection Response Time of the system which can be seen to be approximately 0.8 seconds.

The Avoidance Response Time as defined above should be approximately three times the Detection Response Time (due to the majority polling scheme) and is therefore calculated as $3 \times 0.8 = 2.4$ seconds. This figure excludes the relatively negligible time taken to plan the motion of the vehicle.



The Avoidance Response Time was measured by connecting the motor drive signals to two channels of a storage oscilloscope. In single sweep storage mode, the oscilloscope trace was triggered approximately simultaneously with an obstacle being introduced into the path of the vehicle. Figure 9.3.2 is a hard copy of the oscilloscope trace showing the motor control signals as the vehicle began to turn. These signals act with opposite polarity since to turn the vehicle, one motor is driven clockwise and the other anti-clockwise. The motor control signals are pulse width modulated, provided by the Hewlett-Packard digital motor controllers via H-Bridge amplifiers as described in chapter 7. The signals shown in figure 9.3.2 are subject to a smoothing effect because

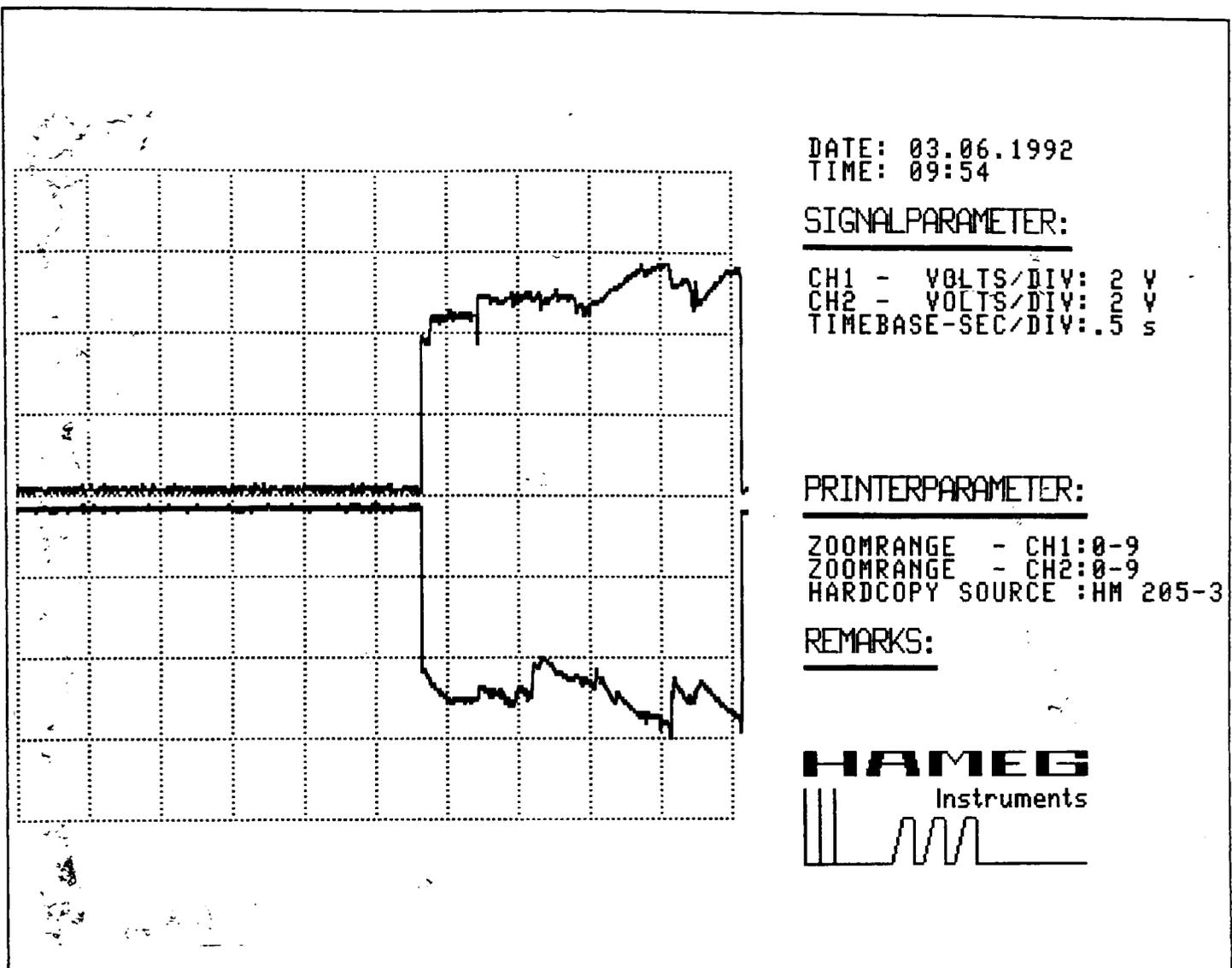


Figure 9.3.2
 Motor Control Signals Illustrating Avoidance Response Time

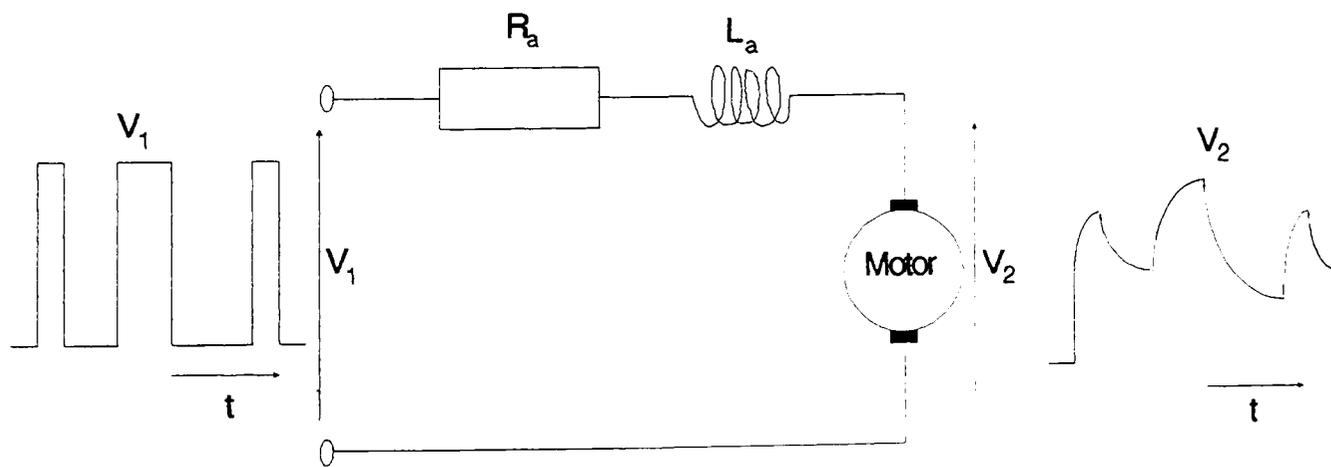


Figure 9.3.3
 PWM Signal is Smoothed Due to Motor Inductance

of the large inductive motor loads (see figure 9.3.3). Nevertheless, the Avoidance Response Time of the system can be clearly seen as the interval from the left hand edge of the oscilloscope trace, to the point when the motor control signals are applied. With the time-base set to 0.5 seconds/division, this is approximately 2.48 seconds. The error between this and the predicted time of 2.4 seconds is mostly due to the difficulty of starting the oscilloscope trace at the same instant as the obstacle was introduced.

Factors affecting the motion of the experimental vehicle after the control signals have been applied include the effects of the inertia of the vehicle, the digital control system and the horse power of the motor drives.

Chapter 8 discussed how the motion of the experimental vehicle is reduced to two primary manoeuvres: 5 degree 'TURNS' and 50mm 'ADVANCES'. In order to determine how long the experimental vehicle takes to turn in 5 degree increments, the motor control signals shown in figure 9.3.2 were subtracted from each other. The result was displayed on a single oscilloscope channel (figure 9.3.4). Since the separate signals are of opposite polarity, this combination highlights the instants when maximum control effort is applied to move the experimental vehicle to a new position. Referring to the overall motor drive block diagram of figure 7.4.2, these are the error signals from the motor controllers which decay as the vehicle moves from its current position to the desired position. With reference to figure 9.3.4, the time between each peak on the oscilloscope trace represents the time taken for the experimental vehicle to complete one 5 degree turn. This time varies slightly due to load disturbances on the system such as dirt under the road wheels and irregularities in the floor surface. Figure 9.3.4 shows that the approximate angular velocity of the vehicle during the 'TURN' phase of obstacle avoidance is approximately 5 degrees every 2 seconds or 2.5 degrees/second.

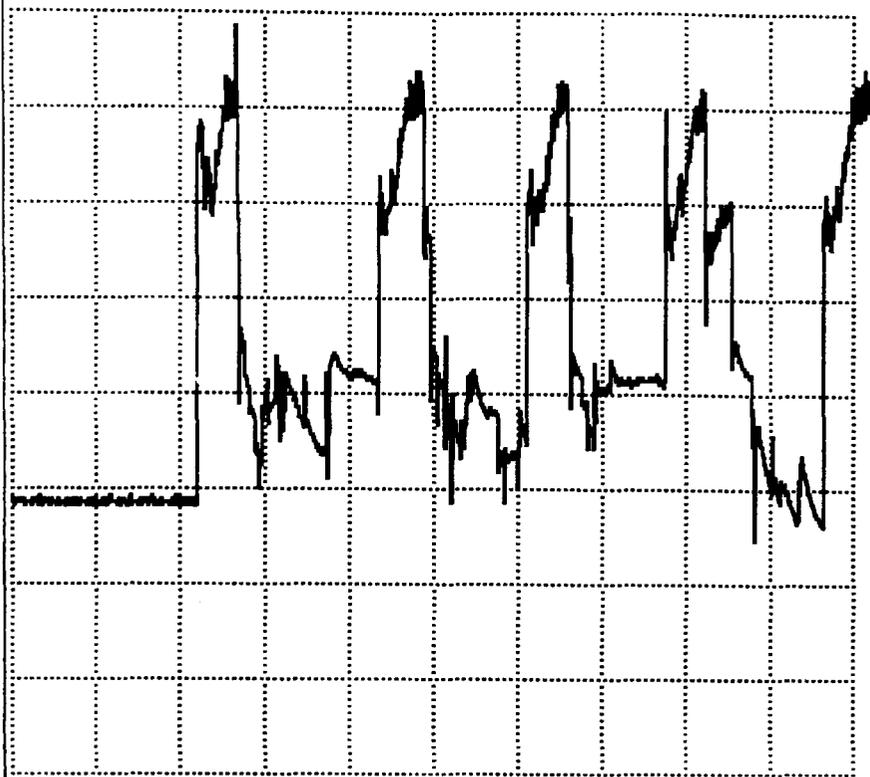
A similar test was carried out during the 'ADVANCE', phase of avoidance where identical control signals are applied to each motor. The oscilloscope trace of figure

9.3.5 shows the right hand motor signal. As before, the pertinent features of the figure are the peaks where maximum control effort is applied to initiate a move to a new position. The oscilloscope trace shows the period of the peaks to be approximately 2 seconds which corresponds to an average velocity during the 'ADVANCE' phase of avoidance of approximately 0.025m/second.

Real-time is defined as, 'denoting or relating to a data-processing system in which a computer is on-line to a source of data and processes the data as it is generated'. Hence the obstacle avoidance system operates in real-time because it responds to unexpected obstacles as they are encountered. The following experiments demonstrate this feature by testing the response of the vehicle to changing situations and multiple obstacles.

In the first experiment, an obstacle was placed in front of the experimental vehicle so that the system began to avoid it. As the vehicle turned to clear the obstacle, it was repositioned in the vehicle path as illustrated in figure 9.3.6. The obstacle avoidance system responded in real-time to the new situation and was repeatedly 'repelled' by the obstacle as it persisted in the path. The vehicle therefore continued turning in 5 degree increments to avoid the obstacle until the limit set up in software of 90 degrees was reached (see chapter 8). Figure 9.3.7 shows a series of photographs taken as the experiment progressed. The position of the obstacle as it was moved was marked periodically by orange card discs to aid the illustration.

The second experiment to demonstrate the real-time operation of the system was similar to the previous test, except in this case, the obstacle was moved in the opposite direction (away from the path of the vehicle) after it had initially been detected. Figure 9.3.8 shows a photograph taken after this experiment. The orange coloured card discs show the path that the vehicle took when the obstacle was placed fully in front of the vehicle. This original obstacle position is identified in the photograph by orange markers. On the second run, the obstacle was placed fully in front of the vehicle until it was detected and then moved to the new position where it is shown in the



DATE: 03.06.1992
 TIME: 11:23

SIGNALPARAMETER:

CH1 - VOLTS/DIV: .5 V
 TIMEBASE-SEC/DIV: 1 s

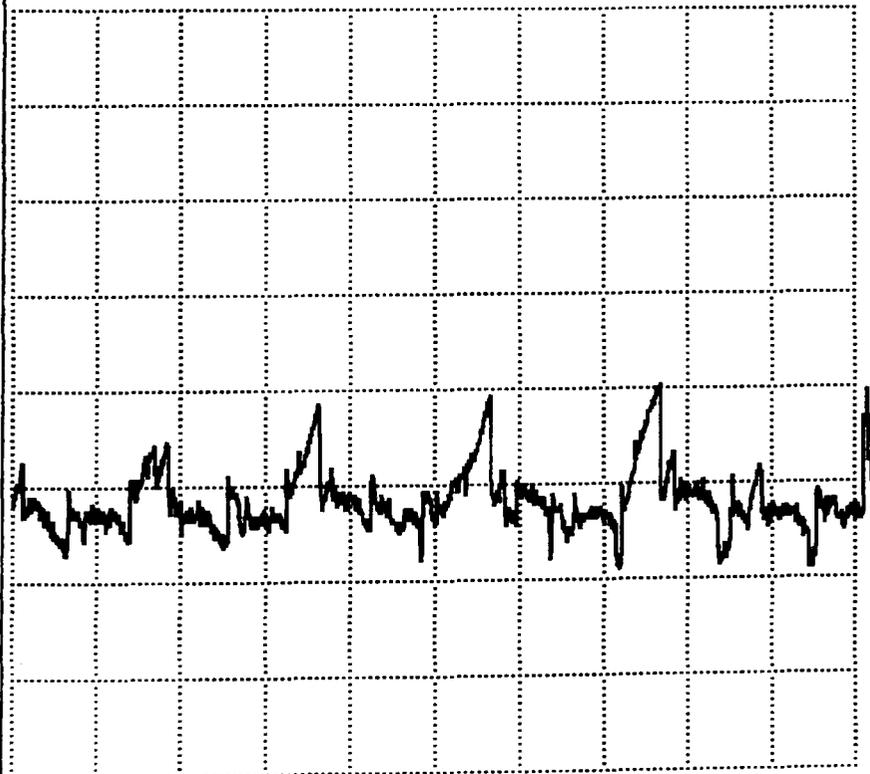
PRINTERPARAMETER:

ZOOMRANGE - CH1:0-9
 HARDCOPY SOURCE :HM 205-3

REMARKS:



Figure 9.3.4
 Subtracted Motor Control Signals During 'TURN' Phase of Obstacle Avoidance
 Each Peak Indicates a 5 degree turn



DATE: 03.06.1992
 TIME: 11:46

SIGNALPARAMETER:

CH2 - VOLTS/DIV: 1 V
 TIMEBASE-SEC/DIV: 1 s

PRINTERPARAMETER:

ZOOMRANGE - CH2:0-9
 HARDCOPY SOURCE :HM 205-3

REMARKS:

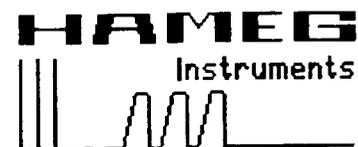
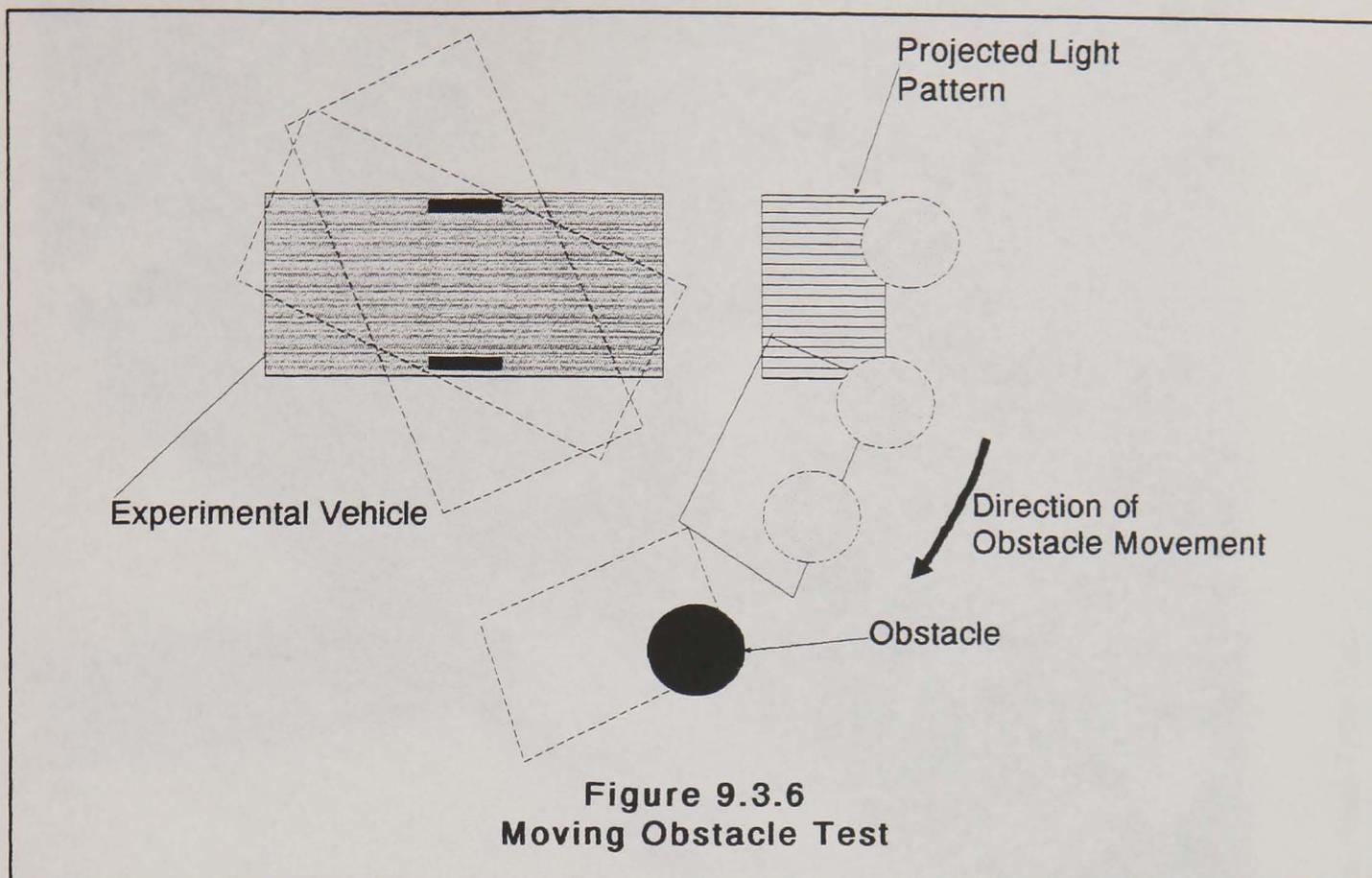


Figure 9.3.5
 Right Hand Motor Control Signal During 'ADVANCE' Phase of Obstacle Avoidance
 Each Peak Indicates a 50mm Advance



photograph of figure 9.3.8. The white card discs show the corrected path of the vehicle. This result demonstrates that the system responded to the changing obstacle situation by deviating less on the second run.

The final real-time test was the introduction of a second obstruction whilst the system was already engaged in an avoidance manoeuvre. This experiment was conducted by placing a second obstacle ahead and to one side of the first one to be negotiated. The path that the experimental vehicle followed to avoid both obstacles was marked with coloured card discs and the photograph of figure 9.3.9 shows the result of the test. The system was able to negotiate the second obstacle in real-time and therefore successfully avoided both obstructions.

The next tests are concerned with the overall performance of the obstacle avoidance system.

serial communications ports.

Ancillary memory buffer and digital motor control circuits have been designed around this computer and the software developed entirely in assembler language. This has enabled optimum execution speed and efficiency to be achieved.

The methods used to process video information and hence detect obstacles comprise a combination of digital filters and direct methods. High processing speed has been achieved by using minimum word-length integer arithmetic and avoiding floating-point methods. The latter has placed constraints on the design of a suitable recursive digital filter since the coefficients usually require an accuracy in the order of three decimal places. However, a comparison of filters designed using the bilinear transform method and simple integer-only digital equivalents of a C-R filter has proved that a digitised C-R filter gives adequate and reliable performance. Direct methods have been successfully implemented to detect features in the filtered video information. A decision-theoretic method of pattern recognition analyses the relationships between these features which in turn, belies the presence of obstacles.

A crucial design aim was that the obstacle avoidance system should be simple to configure and maintain. An algorithm which automatically calibrates the projected light detection system successfully achieves this by alleviating the need for critical projector-camera positioning.

An experimental automatic vehicle has been designed and constructed to test the obstacle avoidance system. This is based on a differential steering arrangement which uses two drive wheels controlled by dedicated single-chip microcontrollers. The range of possible control actions has been investigated and suitable digital control parameters have been determined empirically.

The complex obstacle avoidance control actions are broken down into basic

manoeuvres upon which higher levels of control are based. The control algorithms have been designed with the aid of a specially developed computer simulation. This uses high resolution colour graphics and allows various obstacle situations to be simulated. The operation of the model has been described and the results obtained during the design of the control algorithms presented in chapter 8. The resulting obstacle avoidance computer program was converted from Pascal, to Intel MCS-51 assembler language for implementing on the embedded system.

Tests have been successfully carried out on the obstacle avoidance system, the results of which are presented in chapter 9. These show that the new system operates in real-time and has the ability to negotiate multiple obstacles. The system was found to have a position error of approximately +/- 0.02 metres. This was considered acceptable since the vehicles in an AMECAS commercial system can locate the embedded wire guide-path from a distance in excess of 0.1 metres. Tests to establish the repeatability of the system showed that there was no significant variation in the paths taken by the experimental vehicle on repeat runs under similar starting and obstacle conditions.

The overall cost benefits of the obstacle avoidance system to potential users are difficult to estimate as they depend on factory-specific factors such as the volume of traffic, the number of AGVs, and the size and complexity of the factory layout. However, it is estimated that each system would cost approximately 3 - 5% of the total value of the vehicle on which it would be installed (based on the approximate new cost of the AMECAS AGVs in the Doncaster installation).

10.2 Limitations of the System and Recommendations for Further Work

The pattern used for the projected light codes has provided reliable operation throughout the research. Nevertheless, it may be possible to design more efficient light

patterns for detecting smaller obstacles. This research has been primarily concerned with the design of a practical system embodying aspects of the mobile application of structured light and obstacle avoidance. The subject of developing optimum codes could be addressed in further research work.

At present, the new obstacle avoidance system avoids obstacles on straight guide-paths. The performance of the system would be enhanced by the ability to avoid obstacles on curves. However, extra sensing equipment may be required on both the vehicle and the factory floor so that the obstacle avoidance system could determine where curves started and ended, and in which direction they turned. Also, since AGV systems may have curves of varying dimensions and shape, some standardisation of existing layouts may be required. The problem of achieving obstacle avoidance on curves whilst maintaining the generality of the system could be addressed as the subject of a further research project.

Although the system operates in real-time, the obstacle detection response time of approximately 0.8 seconds is relatively modest. However, since the start of this research project, developments in electronics have resulted in the introduction of Intel MCS-51 series microcontrollers capable of operating with master clock frequencies over 30 megahertz (almost three times the speed of the present microcontroller). The detection response time of the obstacle avoidance system could be drastically reduced by using such a microcontroller. Time constraints have not allowed this modification to be carried out however, as the ancillary circuits would have to be redesigned in order to accommodate the increased processor operating speed.

Several printed circuit boards are used for the electronics in the prototype obstacle avoidance system. The circuits could be customised by combining elements in integrated units. This development would further reduce the cost of the system and improve its reliability.

The obstacle detection system is not limited to application in this research project. The novel light coding scheme has the inherent feature that the approximate width of objects can be determined by virtue of the number of light codes reflected. Furthermore, the system could be modified to provide object height information. With these developments, the obstacle detection system could find use in object classification or recognition systems.

The obstacle avoidance computer model proved extremely helpful in the design of the obstacle avoidance algorithms and although it was developed specifically for this project, it would also be suitable as a development tool in other AGV research projects and also as a teaching aid. Similarly, whilst the experimental vehicle was built specifically as a test bed for the obstacle avoidance system, it could also be useful for continuing research and demonstration.


```

writeln;
writeln('Serial Port Configuration');
writeln;
writeln;
writeln('Which Channel? Com[1] or [2] ');
repeat
  if keypressed then
    begin
      ch:=readkey;
      if ch=chr(27) then exit:=true;
    end;
until (ch='1') or (ch='2') or (exit=true);
if not exit then
  begin
    writeln;
    writeln('Baud Rate? 1 - 110');
    writeln('          2 - 150');
    writeln('          3 - 300');
    writeln('          4 - 600');
    writeln('          5 - 1200');
    writeln('          6 - 2400');
    writeln('          7 - 4800');
    writeln('          8 - 9600');
    repeat
      if keypressed then
        begin
          baud:=readkey;
          if baud=chr(27) then exit:=true;
        end;
      until (baud='1') or (baud='2') or (baud='3') or (baud='4') or (baud='5') or
(baud='6')
        or (baud='7') or (baud='8') or (exit=true);
    end;
    case baud of
      '1':baudrate:='110';
      '2':baudrate:='150';
      '3':baudrate:='300';
      '4':baudrate:='600';
      '5':baudrate:='1200';
      '6':baudrate:='2400';
      '7':baudrate:='4800';
      '8':baudrate:='9600';
    end;

    if not exit then
      begin
        writeln;
        writeln('Data Bits? 7,8 ');
        repeat

```



```

ret                                ;positions are equal

cpfinish
mov  a,#1                          ;positions are not equal
ret

;subroutine
;turn AGV on the spot by writing a positive position increment to left motor
;and a negative position increment to right wheel
;wait until move is complete
turnright

lcall triplescan                   ;see if any obstacles are in the way

lcall positioncont

clr  motoraorb                     ;prepare to address right motor
lcall resetposition                ;zero actual position registers
mov  ph,neginch                    ;load position registers with
                                       ;position move

mov  pm,negincm
mov  pl,negincl-28h
lcall writeposition                ;write new values to right motor cont

setb motoraorb                     ;now write to left motor
lcall resetposition                ;zero actual position registers
mov  ph,posinch                    ;load position registers with
                                       ;position move

mov  pm,posincm
mov  pl,posincl+28h
lcall writeposition                ;write new values to left motor cont

trwaitagain    ;mov      count,#0    ;reset counter

incwaitforpos      ;wait until move is finished

trcarryon
clr  motoraorb                     ;access right motor
mov  ph,neginch                    ;load position registers with
                                       ;position move

mov  pm,negincm
mov  pl,negincl
lcall compareposition              ;see if right motor is in its final
                                       ;position yet

```



```

;subroutine to send a boolean variable in c to serial port
    jc  sb#true
    mov dptr,#falsehood
    ljmp sb#end

sb#true      mov      dptr,#truthhood

sb#end      lcall     sendmessage
            ret

falsehood   string    "FALSE",0
truthhood   string    "TRUE",0

reporttitle string    12,13,10,"AGV STATUS REPORT",13,10,13,10
turnsmade   string    "Turns made so far: ",0
advancesmade string    13,10,"Advances made so far: ",0
passornot   string    13,10,13,10,"CANPASS: ",0
deviat      string    13,10,"Deviation from path: ",0
dest        string    13,10,"Desired Theta: ",0
errt        string    13,10,"Error Angle: ",0

passedornot string    13,10,"PASSEDYET: ",0
leftright   string    13,10,"LOR: ",0
leftdetected string    13,10,"OBSTFROMLEFT: ",0
centredetected string    13,10,"OBSTFROMCENTRE: ",0
rightdetected string    13,10,"OBSTFROMRIGHT: ",0
advfail      string    13,10,"FAILED DURING ADVANCE",0
turnfail     string    13,10,"FAILED DURING TURN",0
hellomess    string    13,10,"Now Doing Obstacle Avoidance",13,10,0
bell         string    0
heremess     string    13,10,"here",13,10,0

    #include "agvltdev.tbl"
    #include "agvltdes.tbl"

            end

;File agvltdev.tbl
;Look-up table for deviation from path
;These values are approximately 256*sine(index in table*5)

ltdeverror
ltdev#1     byte      0,22,44,66,87,108,128,146,164,180
ltdev#2     byte      195,209,221,231,240,246,251,254,255

;File agvltdes
;Look-up table for desired angle values

```

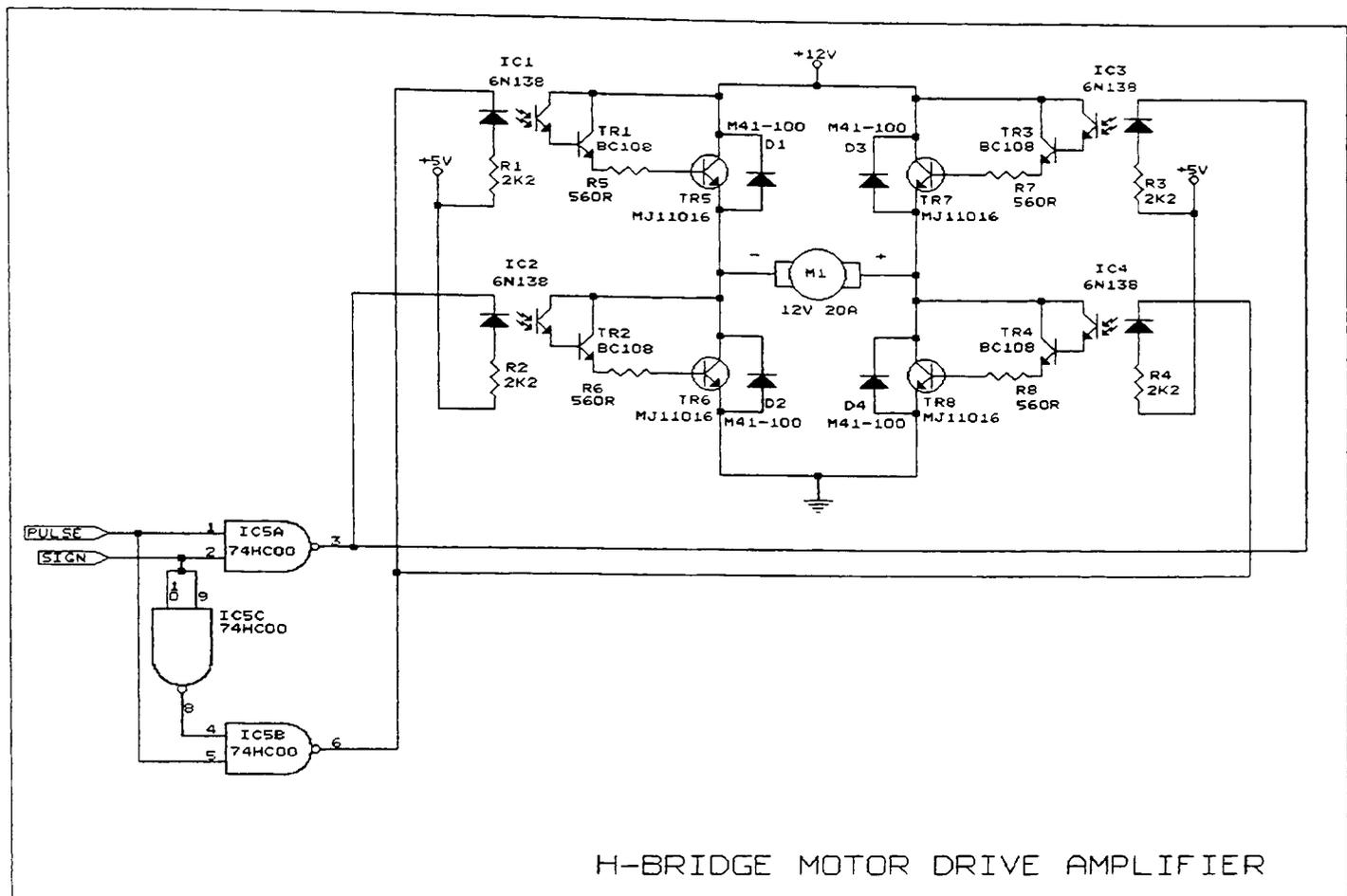



Figure A4.2
H-Bridge Drive Amplifier

at the same time and hence prevents a short circuit.

The H-Bridge amplifier is operated from a separate power supply to the computer circuits to prevent damage in the event of a failure. Opto-isolators IC1-4 are used to eliminate any physical connection between the TTL signals and the motor drive circuit.

Power transistors TR5-8 and free wheeling diodes D1-D4 are mounted on a large heat sink which covers the rear of the experimental vehicle.

APPENDIX 5

Assembler Motor Control Software Source Code


```

    mov  dptr,piab   ;ready to write to port b of pia
    mov  a,temp      ;retrive data to be written
    movx @dptr,a     ;write to pia

    mov  dptr,piac   ;ready to write to pia port c
    jb   motoraorb,motorbl   ;if motoraorb is set then send csb low
    clr  csa         ;else send csa low
    ljmp motoral

motorbl      clr      csb           ;send csb low
motoral      mov      a,contword   ;get control word
             movx    @dptr,a       ;send to pia port c

    clr  rw         ;send r/w low
    mov  a,contword
    movx @dptr,a   ;send control word to pia port c

    jb   motoraorb,motorb2   ;if motoraorb is set then its motor b
    setb csa             ;else it's motor a
    ljmp motora2

motorb2      setb     csb           ;set csb
motora2      mov      a,contword   ;get control word
             movx    @dptr,a       ;send it to pia port c

    setb rw         ;send r/w high
    mov  a,contword
    movx @dptr,a   ;send control word to pia port c

    ret

readmc
;subroutine to read a value from the motor controller register already
;set up using setregmc.
;if 'motoraorb' is low value is read from motor A, if it's high then
;value is read from motor B

    setb pl.0

    clr  ddrwr      ;ready to read
    mov  a,contword
    mov  dptr,piac   ;ready to write to pia port c
    movx @dptr,a     ;write to pia port c

    jb   motoraorb,motbl   ;if motoraorb is set then access motor b
    clr  csa         ;else must be motor a
    ljmp motal

motbl clr     csb           ;clear csb

```



```

;subroutine
;clear all flags in flag register
resetflags
    mov regadd,#00h ;address of flag register
    lcall setregmc ;get ready

    clr motoraorb ;select motor a
    clr a ;ready for flag0 reset
    lcall writemc ;reset flag0
    setb motoraorb ;now do it for motor b
    clr a
    lcall writemc

    mov regadd,#00h ;address of flag register
    lcall setregmc ;get ready

    clr motoraorb ;select motor a
    mov a,#02h ;ready for flag2 reset
    lcall writemc ;reset flag2
    setb motoraorb ;now do it for motor b
    mov a,#02h
    lcall writemc

    mov regadd,#00h ;address of flag register
    lcall setregmc ;get ready

    clr motoraorb ;select motor a
    mov a,#03h ;ready for flag3 reset
    lcall writemc ;reset flag3
    setb motoraorb ;now do it for motor b
    mov a,#03h
    lcall writemc

    mov regadd,#00h ;address of flag register
    lcall setregmc ;get ready

    clr motoraorb ;select motor a
    mov a,#04h ;ready for flag4 reset
    lcall writemc ;reset flag4
    setb motoraorb ;now do it for motor b
    mov a,#04h
    lcall writemc

    mov regadd,#00h ;address of flag register
    lcall setregmc ;get ready

    clr motoraorb ;select motor a

```

```

        mov  a,#05h                ;ready for flag5 reset
        lcall writemc             ;reset flag5
        setb motoraorb           ;now do it for motor b
        mov  a,#05h
        lcall writemc

        ret

;subroutine
;to reset and initialise motor control chips
resetmc

        mov  regadd,#05h ;address of mc to be accessed
        lcall setregmc       ;get ready

        clr  motoraorb           ;select motor a
        clr  a                   ;ready for reset
        lcall writemc           ;reset mca
        setb motoraorb           ;now do it for motor b
        clr  a
        lcall writemc

;set pwm duty cycle (write to R09h)

        mov  regadd,#09h ;address of mc to be accessed
        lcall setregmc       ;get ready

        clr  motoraorb           ;select motor a
        mov  a,#064h             ;write pwm duty cycle
        lcall writemc           ;
        setb motoraorb           ;now do it for motor b
        mov  a,#064h             ;write pwm duty cycle
        lcall writemc

;set digital filter parameters (R22h - gain)

        mov  regadd,#22h ;address of mc to be accessed
        lcall setregmc       ;get ready

        clr  motoraorb           ;select motor a
        mov  a,gain              ;gain
        lcall writemc           ;reset mca
        setb motoraorb           ;now do it for motor b
        mov  a,gain
        lcall writemc

;R21h pole

        mov  regadd,#21h ;address of mc to be accessed

```



```
procedure drawagv(x,y:integer;angle:integer;e:boolean);
{Draws AGV on screen}
const
    pi=3.142;
    l = 36.06;
    r: array[0..7] of real = (1,1,1,1,53.85,53.85,72.8,72.8);
    theta: array[0..7] of real = (4.124,5.3,0.983,2.159,1.95,1.19,1.292,1.85);
var
    xp:array[0..7] of integer;
    yp:array[0..7] of integer;
    i,colonentry:integer;
    heading:real;

begin

    outtextxy(10,70,'Deviation: '+inttostr(deverror));
    outtextxy(10,80,'Head err : '+inttostr(errtheta));
    outtextxy(10,60,'DesTheta : '+inttostr(round(destheta)));
    outtextxy(10,90,'turns log : '+inttostr(t));
    if obstdetected then outtextxy(50,30,'Obstacle Detected');

    y:=(getmaxy - y);
    colonentry:=getcolor;

    if e then setcolor(getbkcolor) else setcolor(yellow);
    heading:=direction(angle);
    xp[0]:=round(x+(r[0]*cos(theta[0]+heading)));
    yp[0]:=round(y-(r[0]*sin(theta[0]+heading)));
    for i:=0 to 3 do
        begin
            xp[i]:=round(x+(r[i]*cos(theta[i]+heading)));
            yp[i]:=round(y-(r[i]*sin(theta[i]+heading)));
        end;
    xp[4]:=round(x+(r[4]*cos(theta[4]+heading)));
    yp[4]:=round(y-(r[4]*sin(theta[4]+heading)));

    for i:=5 to 7 do
        begin
            xp[i]:=round(x+(r[i]*cos(theta[i]+heading)));
            yp[i]:=round(y-(r[i]*sin(theta[i]+heading)));
        end;

    detectcollision(xp[6],yp[6],xp[7],yp[7]);
    detectcollisionleft(xp[4],yp[4],xp[7],yp[7]);
    detectcollisionright(xp[5],yp[5],xp[6],yp[6]);
```

```

moveto(xp[0],yp[0]);
for i:=1 to 3 do
  lineto(xp[i],yp[i]);
  lineto(xp[0],yp[0]);
moveto(xp[4],yp[4]);

if not e then setcolor(lightred);
for i:=5 to 7 do
  lineto(xp[i],yp[i]);
  lineto(xp[4],yp[4]);
setcolor(getbkcolor);
outtextxy(50,30,'Obstacle Detected');
outtextxy(10,70,'Deviation: '+inttostr(deverror));
outtextxy(10,80,'Head err : '+inttostr(errotheta));
outtextxy(10,60,'DesTheta : '+inttostr(round(destheta)));
outtextxy(10,90,'turns log : '+inttostr(t));
setcolor(colonentry);
if obstdetected then begin
  drawroad(not colorin);
  updateobst(noofobstacles);
end;

end;

procedure placeobstacle(x,y:integer);
{Defines a random obstacle}
const
  size = 5;

var  x1,y1,x2,y2,x3,y3,x4,y4:integer;
     oldfillpattern:fillpatterntype;
     oldcolor:word;
     i:integer;

     polygon:array[0..3] of pointtype;

begin
  noofobstacles:=noofobstacles+1;
  randomize;
  x1:=x-random(size)-10; if (x1<1) then x1:=1; if (x1>639) then x1:=639;
  y1:=y-random(size)-10;  if (y1<roadleft) then y1:=roadleft; if (y1>roadright) then
y1:=roadright;
  x2:=x+random(size)+10; if (x2<1) then x2:=1; if (x2>639) then x2:=639;
  y2:=y+random(size)+10;  if (y2<roadleft) then y2:=roadleft; if (y2>roadright) then
y2:=roadright;
  x3:=x+random(size)+10; if (x3<1) then x3:=1; if (x3>639) then x3:=639;
  y3:=y+random(size)+10;  if (y3<roadleft) then y3:=roadleft; if (y3>roadright) then
y3:=roadright;
  x4:=x-random(size)-10; if (x4<1) then x4:=1; if (x4>639) then x4:=639;

```

```

    y4:=y+random(size)+10;  if (y4<roadleft) then y4:=roadleft; if (y4>roadright) then
y4:=roadright;
    xx[1,noofobstacles]:=x1;
    xx[2,noofobstacles]:=x2;
    xx[3,noofobstacles]:=x3;
    xx[4,noofobstacles]:=x4;
    yy[1,noofobstacles]:=y1;
    yy[2,noofobstacles]:=y2;
    yy[3,noofobstacles]:=y3;
    yy[4,noofobstacles]:=y4;
    updateobst(noofobstacles);
end;
```

```

procedure drawcursor(x,y:integer;visible:boolean);
{Draws cursor used for placing obstacles}
var
    oldcolor:word;
begin
    if x>633 then x:=633;
    if x<6 then x:=6;
    if y<(roadleft+6) then y:=roadleft+6;
    if y>(roadright-6) then y:=roadright-6;
    oldcolor:=getcolor;
    setcolor(getpixel(oldx,oldy));
    moveto(oldx-5,oldy-5);
    lineto(oldx+5,oldy-5);
    lineto(oldx+5,oldy+5);
    lineto(oldx-5,oldy+5);
    lineto(oldx-5,oldy-5);
    if visible then setcolor(lightblue);
    moveto(x-5,y-5);
    lineto(x+5,y-5);
    lineto(x+5,y+5);
    lineto(x-5,y+5);
    lineto(x-5,y-5);
    oldx:=x;
    oldy:=y;
    setcolor(oldcolor);
end;
```

```

procedure positionobstacle;
{Allow cursor to be moved and obstacles to be placed}
var
    x,y,i,xp,yp:integer;
    exitt:boolean;
    ch:char;
    tempcolor:word;
    finished:boolean;
```

```

begin
  x:=(getmaxx div 2);
  y:=(getmaxy div 2);
  outtextxy(10,10,'Position Cursor Using <ARROW> Keys and Press <RETURN>');
  finished:=false;
repeat
  exitt:=false;
  repeat
    drawcursor(x,y,true);

    if keypressed then
      begin
        ch:=readkey;
        case ch of
          chr($48):y:=y-10;
          chr($50):y:=y+10;
          chr($4B):x:=x-10;
          chr($4D):x:=x+10;
          chr(13):exitt:=true;
          chr(27):finished:=true;
        end; {case}
      end; {if}
    until (exitt) or (finished) ;
    if not finished then
      begin
        placeobstacle(x,y);
        x:=x+50;y:=y+50;
      end;
  until finished;
  tempcolor:=getcolor;
  setcolor(getbkcolor);
  outtextxy(10,10,'Position Cursor Using <ARROW> Keys and Press <RETURN>');
  drawcursor(x,y,false);
  setcolor(tempcolor);

end;

procedure putagv(x,y,heading:integer);
{Puts AGV on screen}
const
  erase=true;
begin

  drawagv(oldagvx,oldagvy,oldheading,erase);
  drawagv(x,y,heading,not erase);

  oldagvx:=x;
  oldagvy:=y;

```

```

    oldheading:=heading;

end;

procedure advance(advancestep:word;check:boolean);
{advance agv 1 step at current heading}
var
    heading:integer;
    x,y:integer;
begin
    heading:=round(direction(oldheading+90));
    x:=oldagvx+round(advancestep*cos(heading));
    if t>=0 then deerror:=-deerror+ltdeerror[abs(t)]
        else deerror:=-deerror-ltdeerror[abs(t)];
    y:=getmaxy-roadleft-150+deerror;
    putagv(x,y,oldheading);
    if not check then obstdetected:=false;
end;

procedure turn(angleincrement:integer);
{if dir=true turn to right else turn to left}
var
    heading:integer;
begin
    heading:=oldheading+angleincrement;
    t:=t+(angleincrement div turnsincrement);
    putagv(oldagvx,oldagvy,heading);
end;

procedure readlookuptables;
{read look up tables}
type
    fil =text;
var
    i:integer;
    f:fil;
begin
    assign(f,'agvltdes.dta');
    reset(f);
    for i:=0 to 99 do
        begin
            read(f,ldestheta[i]);
        end;
    close(f);
    assign(f,'agvltdev.dta');
    reset(f);
    for i:=0 to 19 do

```

```

        begin
            read(f,ltdeverror[i]);
            ltdeverror[i]:=ltdeverror[i] div 2;
        end;
    close(f);
end;

procedure initialize;
{Initialise graphics and variables etc}
begin
    oldx:=0;oldy:=0;
    exitt:=false;
    cnt:=0;
    detectgraph(gd,gm);
    gd:=0;gm:=1;
    InitGraph(Gd, Gm, '');
    if GraphResult <> grOk then
        begin
            writeln('get lost');
            Halt(1);
        end;

    setcolor(yellow);
    head:=0;
    noofobstacles:=0;
    failedtopass:=false;
    turnswithoutadvance:=0;
    startdev:=0;
    startheading:=0;
    x:=30;
    y:=getmaxy-roadleft-150;
    ystart:=y;
    destheta:=0;
    for i:=1 to 4 do
        begin
            xx[i,0]:=0;
            yy[i,0]:=0;
        end;
    setcolor(yellow);
    oldagvx:=x;oldagvy:=y;oldheading:=head;
    putagv(x,y,head);
    drawroad(colorin);
    positionobstacle;
    readlookuptables;
    t:=0;
    deverror:=0;
end;

```

```

procedure plottext(x,y:word;txt:string);
{Draws messages on screen}
var
  oldcolor:word;
begin
  oldcolor:=getcolor;
  setcolor(lightred);
  outtextxy(x,y,txt);
  repeat until keypressed;
  setcolor(getbkcolor);
  outtextxy(x,y,txt);
  setcolor(oldcolor);
end;

function waytoavoid(oleft,ocentre,oright:boolean):integer;
{Work out which direction to turn to avoid an obstacle}
const
  left=-1;
  right = 1;
var
  leftorright:integer;

begin
  if oright then leftorright:=left else leftorright:=right;
  waytoavoid:=leftorright;
end;

function testturn(detected:boolean;lor:integer):boolean;
const
  left=-1;
  right = 1;
var
  result:boolean;
begin

  if ((obstfromleft) and (not obstfromright) and (lor=left)) or
     ((obstfromright) and (not obstfromleft) and (lor=right)) then result:=failed
  else result:=(not failed);
  testturn:=result;
end;

procedure turnagv(lor:integer;var result:boolean);
{returns true if agv failed to pass obstacle}
var

```

```

    i:word;
begin
    turnswithoutadvance:=turnswithoutadvance+1;
    result:=not failed;
    while (obstdetected) and (result = not failed) do
        begin
            turn(-lor*turnsincrement);
            result:=testturn(obstdetected,lor);
        end; {while}
        if result= not failed then for i:=0 to 1 do turn(-lor*turnsincrement);
end; {turnagv}

function enoughadvances(var howmanysofar:word):boolean;
{see if AGV has advanced far enough to recover yet}
const
    passed = true;
var
    result:boolean;

begin
    if howmanysofar>=enough then result:=passed
    else
        begin
            result:=not passed;
            howmanysofar:=howmanysofar+1;
        end;
    enoughadvances:=result;
end;

procedure advanceagv(var passedyet,result:boolean);
{Advance AGV past obstacle}
const
    passed=true;
    maxdeverror=60;

begin
    result:=not failed;
    howmanysofar:=0;
    passedyet:=not passed;
    while (not obstdetected) and (not passedyet) and (result=not failed) do
        begin
            advance(advanceincrement,check);
            if enoughadvances(howmanysofar) then passedyet:=passed
            else passedyet:=not passed;
            if abs(deverror)>maxdeverror then result:=failed;
        end; {while}
    if (obstdetected) and (not passedyet) and (howmanysofar>3) then result:=failed;

```

```

end;

procedure recover(startdev,startheading,leftorright:integer);
{recover AGV back onto original path}
const
    k = 0.1;
    allowable=2;
var
    deviation:integer;
begin
    while (not obstdetected) and ((abs(deverror)>allowable) or (t*turnsincrement<>0)) do
    begin
        destheta:=ltdestheta[abs(deverror)];
        if deverror>=0 then destheta:=-destheta;
        errtheta:=leftorright*((destheta)-t*turnsincrement);
        if errtheta>= turnsincrement then turn(leftorright*turnsincrement)
            else turn(-leftorright*turnsincrement);
        advance(advanceincrement,check);
        if (abs(deverror)<35) and (abs(deverror)>15) then obstdetected:=false;
    end;

end;

procedure avoidobstacle(var failedornot:boolean);
{obstacle avoidance procedure}
var
    anotherobstacle:boolean;
    i:integer;

    leftorright:integer;
    canpass:boolean;

begin
    deverror:=0;
    t:=0;

    passedyet:=false;
    canpass:=true;
    repeat
        leftorright:=waytoavoid(obstfromleft,obstfromcentre,obstfromright);
        if (canpass) then
            begin
                turnagv(leftorright,canpass);
                passedyet:=false;
            end;
        if not canpass then
            plottext(10,30,'Failed during TURN');
    end;
end;

```

```

        if (not passedyet) and (canpass) then advanceagv(passedyet,canpass);
        if not canpass then plottext(10,30,'Failed During ADVANCE:
'+inttostr(howmanyssofar));

```

```

        if (not obstdetected) and (passedyet)
        then recover(startdev,startheading,leftorright);

```

```

        if not canpass then failedornot:=true;

```

```

    until ((not obstdetected) and (passedyet)) or (failedornot=true);
end;

```

```

begin {program}
repeat

```

```

    initialize;

```

```

repeat

```

```

    advance(5,true);

```

```

    if obstdetected then

```

```

        begin

```

```

            startdev:=oldagvy;

```

```

            oldheading:=oldheading;

```

```

            avoidobstacle(failedtopass);

```

```

        end;

```

```

        if oldagvx>500 then exitt:=true;

```

```

    until (exitt) or (failedtopass) ;

```

```

    repeat until keypressed;

```

```

    until false;

```

```

{ CloseGraph;}

```

```

end.

```

{File AGVLTDES.DTA}

{used to look-up required heading angle for current deviation}

0 5 5 10 10 15 15 15 20 20 20 25 25 25 25 25 25 30 30 30 30 30
30 30 30 30 30 35 35 35 35 35 35 35 35 35 35 35 35 35 35 35 35
35 35 35 35 35 35 35 35 35 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40
40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40 40

{File AGVLTDEV.DTA}

{used to look up deviation for a given heading}

0 1 2 3 3 4 5 6 6 7 8
8 9 9 9 10 10 10 10

DESIGN OF AN OBSTACLE AVOIDANCE SYSTEM FOR AUTOMATED GUIDED VEHICLES

S. Lockwood, B. Merhdadi, J. R. Chandler

Control and Power Group, School of Engineering

The Polytechnic of Huddersfield, Queensgate, Huddersfield, HD1 3DH, U.K.

This paper describes a modular AGV obstacle avoidance system which operates auxiliary to the primary guidance systems with a minimum of modification. The system uses a CCD image sensor to detect the distortion caused by obstacles to a coded light pattern projected onto the floor ahead of the vehicle. The light encoding scheme and image processing methods employed allow an embedded controller to be incorporated in a compact and low cost design.

INTRODUCTION

Automated Guided Vehicles (AGVs) have emerged as a key element of materials transport in many modern flexible manufacturing systems. They offer many benefits over continuous conveyor or manual transport systems[1]. The most common method of AGV guidance used in such systems is an inductive buried wire scheme[2] where AGV routes are marked by embedding large signal carrying loops a few centimetres beneath the floor surface. Inductive sensing heads on board AGVs detect the presence and position of the wires. Buried wire guidance has a proven record of reliability and is relatively straight forward to operate and maintain.

However, the uninterrupted flow of materials is of paramount importance to the performance of manufacturing systems and a major drawback of wire guidance and many other systems is that disruptions to materials transport can occur. This is often caused by a lack of suitable mechanisms on AGVs to avoid unexpected obstacles which have been placed in the guide path.

Research work aimed at solving the problem of obstacle avoidance has included the use of scanning LASER range finders[3,4] and ultrasonic scanners[5,6,7]. However, these systems employ sensitive moving parts which are not generally suitable for use in harsh industrial environments. A vision system has been described[8] which uses a powerful lamp to illuminate the floor ahead of the AGV and a CCD video camera to detect the edges of obstacles as they are approached. A disadvantage of this system however is that it is susceptible to false detection due to the reflection of overhead lights and flat objects or markings on the floor.

This paper describes a modular obstacle avoidance vision system which

overcomes the problems of false detection described above. The system is intended to operate auxiliary to the primary guidance system with a minimum of modification. During normal operation, the obstacle avoidance system is transparent to the primary AGV guidance system. When an obstacle is encountered however, the system takes temporary control of the vehicle drives, circumnavigates the obstacle (if possible) and returns the vehicle to the primary guide path.

OPERATION OF THE OBSTACLE AVOIDANCE SYSTEM

The obstacle avoidance system projects a sharp coded illumination pattern onto the floor ahead of the AGV and uses a video camera to detect distortion to this pattern caused by obstacles in the path of the vehicle. The way in which the pattern is distorted depends on the position of the projector with respect to the point of view. In this system the distortion is confined to the vertical plane by positioning the projector vertically above the camera as shown in figure 1. When no objects are near enough to interfere with the projected light pattern, the code is not detected by the camera. However, when the AGV nears an obstacle, the projected light pattern is disturbed and the code is visible to the camera. Figures 2a-2c show a sequence of images as an obstacle is approached. It can be clearly seen from figure 2 that the coded light pattern 'grows' from the bottom of the image confirming that the distortion occurs in the vertical direction only.

The illumination code is a series of stripes similar to a bar code. This type of code is insensitive in the vertical direction but provides information about the horizontal position of obstacles.

The use of spatially coded light patterns is a well established technique in the analysis of images[9], but is usually restricted to static image processing applications due to the large amount of data processing involved. The novel geometry of the obstacle avoidance system together with a bar type illumination code allows the image processing task to be greatly simplified. This is because

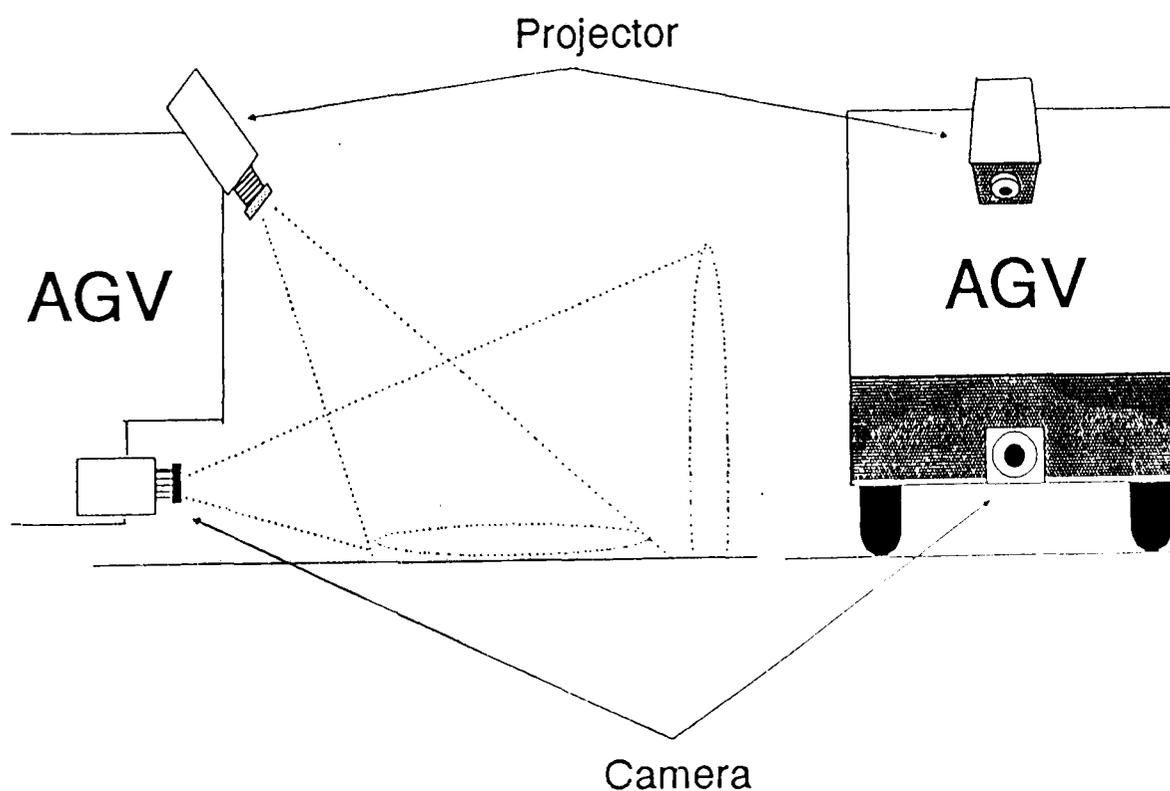


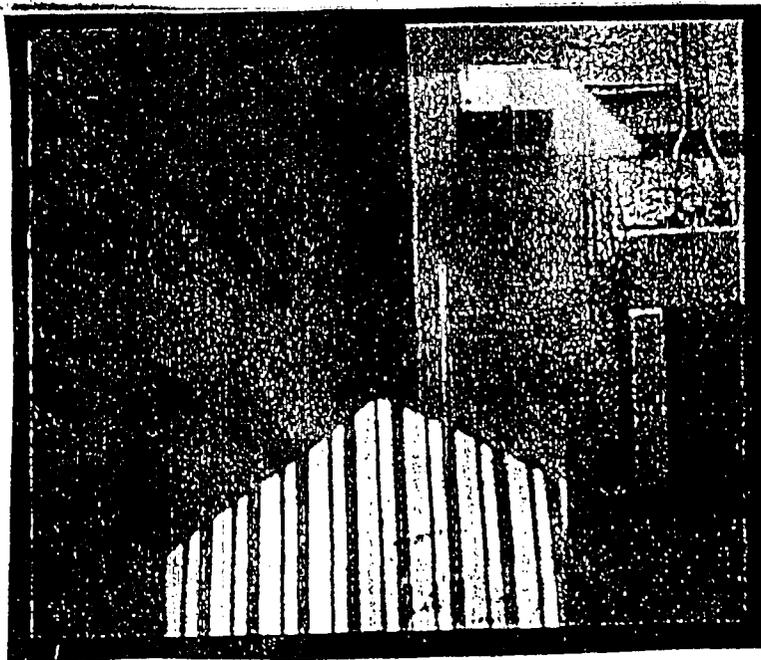
Figure 1 : Relative Position of Projector and Camera



(a)



(b)



(c)

Figure 2 - Sequence of Images as an Obstacle is Approached

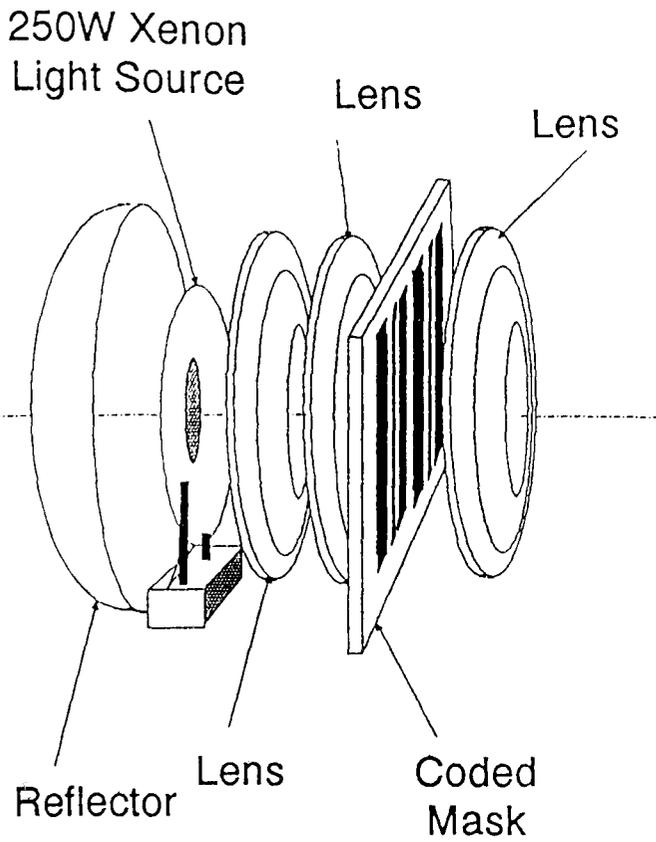


Figure 3 - Coded Light Projector

sufficient information for obstacle avoidance can be obtained from a horizontal band across the lower portion of the image.

DESCRIPTION OF THE OBSTACLE AVOIDANCE SYSTEM

The coded illumination pattern is recorded on a 24mm X 36mm transparency and projected onto the floor with the slide projector arrangement shown in figure 3.

The sensing element in the obstacle avoidance system is a monochrome CCD video camera. A high sensitivity CCD array allows the camera to operate in near darkness, whilst an auto-iris device prevents saturation in bright light.

A video frame store has been developed to capture digitised images in real-time (figure 4). Captured images are stored as a 256 X 256 array of picture elements with grey levels from 0 to 255.

Since obstacle information is obtained from a horizontal band in the lower portion of the image, an embedded controller can be used for image processing. This results in a very compact, low cost design.

The video frame store memory is directly accessible to the embedded controller by making it appear as the controller main data memory.

IMAGE PROCESSING SOFTWARE

Since the dimensions of the projected light code are precisely known and remain constant (fixed by the projector-camera relationship), filters can be designed with optimal responses for extracting code information from images. Considering the coding scheme shown in figure 5, T_l and T_h represent the longest and shortest periods of the code. Since the sampling rate is known (the time between video line syncs/horizontal resolution), a bandpass filter can be designed with cut off frequencies $1/T_l$ and $1/T_h$ as shown in figure 6. This results in

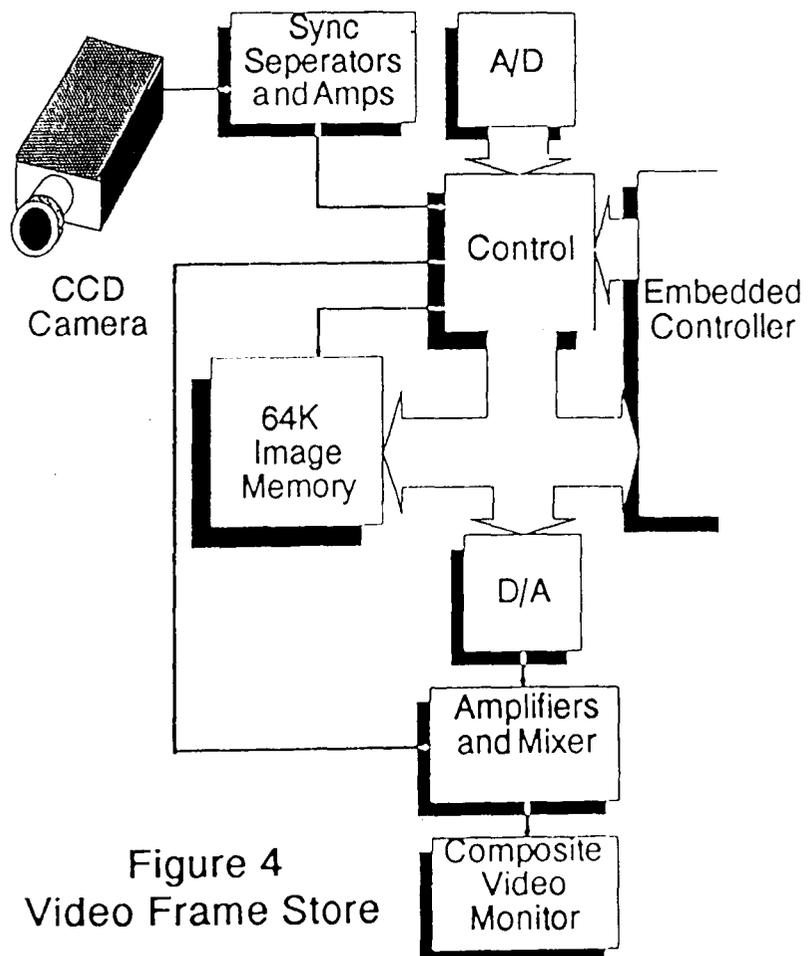


Figure 4 Video Frame Store

very high rejection of signals due to high frequency noise, and low frequency grey level variations across the image.

In the experimental system the following stages of processing are used to extract the coded pattern:

- Average a band of 8 lines close to the bottom of the image.
- Pass the resultant array through a low pass filter to remove signals above $1/T_h$ Hz and then through a high pass filter to remove frequency components below $1/T_l$ Hz.
- derive a binary array by comparing the filtered array with a threshold level.
- Compare the binary array with a copy of the pattern originally projected to determine the position of obstacles if any are present.

AVOIDANCE ALGORITHMS

On detecting an obstacle, the AGV manoeuvres in an attempt to remove the distortion from the projected light pattern. The decision on which way to turn first depends on the position of the obstacle in the image and the layout of the primary guide path. For example if AGVs keep to the left of the factory aisles, the most likely direction to result in successful avoidance would normally be to the right. All the avoidance manoeuvres must be recorded in order to use the information for calculating a resultant return vector to rejoin the primary guide path.

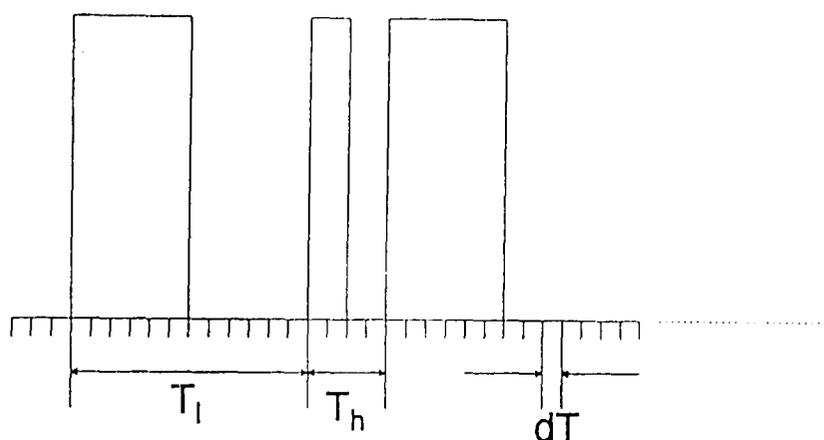


Figure 5 - Bandwidth of a Coding Scheme

After turning, the AGV advances to clear the corner of the obstacle. If a wall or other obstacle interferes with the projected light pattern as the AGV advances, the control software would determine if enough space is available to complete the manoeuvre (determined by the geometry of the system). If the advance is successful, the control system calculates the return course, and the AGV proceeds to rejoin the main guide path.

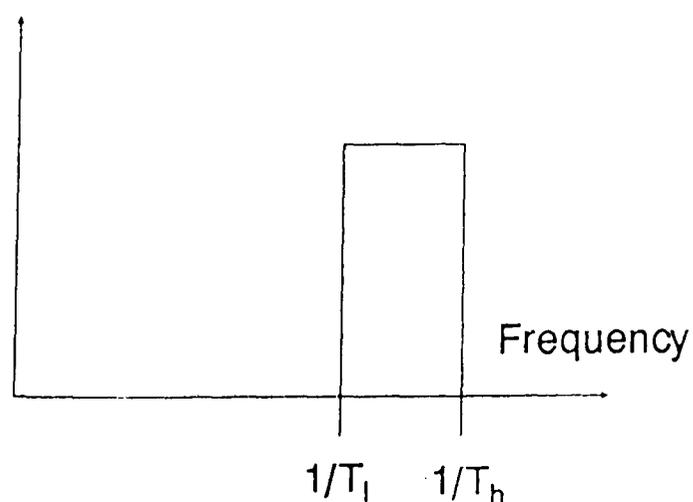


Figure 6 - Filter Cut-Off Frequencies

A more general case would be a larger obstacle or multiple objects, where the AGV could not immediately rejoin the guide path. In this situation, when the AGV attempts to rejoin the guide path, the obstacle will continue to interfere with the projected light pattern. The control system must then adjust the course, advance a further distance and calculate a new return vector. The vehicle again attempts to rejoin the

guide path. This procedure repeats until the obstacles have been cleared.

RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

A machine vision for improving the performance of wire guided or other AGV systems which lack facilities to avoid unexpected obstacles has been described.

The use of a coded light pattern has minimised the image processing task since sufficient obstacle information can be extracted from a relatively small section of the image. This allows a low cost embedded controller to be used for image processing and control tasks, resulting in a compact modular unit.

Initial tests have shown that obstacle detection is reliable and flat objects or changes in floor colour and texture have no effect on the performance of the system. The work is part of an on-going research project and further development is at an advanced stage to implement the system on an experimental AGV. Particular emphasis is placed on optimising the coded light pattern in terms of the system bandwidth (the smallest detectable object) and the amount of data processing necessary for reliable obstacle detection. Whilst discrete digital filters have been implemented in software to reject signals outside the code bandwidth, their analogue counterparts are currently being implemented in hardware to further reduce the signal processing burden placed on the embedded controller.

REFERENCES

- 1 Mortimer, J. (Ed.), Ingersoll Engineers, The FMS Report, IFS Publications, Chapter 1,2, 1982
- 2 Dayal, R.; Rao, G. N.; Sen, A.P., Design of an Automated Guided Vehicle, Proceedings of the 12th All India Machine Tool Design & Research Conference, PP 203-207, 1986
- 3 Dunlay, R.T., Obstacle Avoidance Perception Processing for the Autonomous Land Vehicle, Proceedings - 1988 IEEE International Conference on Robotics and Automation, PP 912-917, 1988
- 4 McTamaney, L. S., Mobile Robots: Real Time Intelligent Control, IEEE Expert, PP 55-68, Volume 2, Part 4, 1988
- 5 Brady, M., Durrant-Whyte, H., Huoshong, H., Leonard, J., Probert, P., Rao, B.S.Y., Sensor Based Control of AGVs, Computing and Control Engineering Journal, PP 64-70, March 1990
- 6 Ichikawa, Y., Kamimura, H., Autonomous Vehicle, Proceedings of the 3rd International Conference on Automated Guided Vehicle Systems, PP 199-208, 1985
- 7 Xuan, G., Wang, L., Li, C., Liu, Y., Wang, J., Intelligent Searching Algorithm for Robot Obstacle Avoidance, Eighth International Conference on Pattern Recognition, PP 958-960, 1986
- 8 Takeuchi, T.; Nagai, Y.; Enomoto, N., Fuzzy Control of a Mobile Robot for Obstacle Avoidance, Information Sources, PP 231-248, Vol. 45, Part 2, 1988
- 9 Vuylsteke, P., Oosterlinck, A., Range Image Acquisition With A Single Binary-Encoded Light Pattern, IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence, PP 148-164, Volume 12, Number 2, 1990