





Kinematics An Overview for Wheeled Robots

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Structure



- Kinematics introduction
- Differential drive kinematics
- Motion constraints









Kinematics Introduction









What is Kinematics?

- ► For any mobile structure, it is important to know how the structure can move around in space
- The simplest way of studying motion is to consider mathematical motion models that take into account the geometry of the structure and analyse motion under changing velocity this is the objective of kinematic models
- ▶ This is in contrast to dynamics modelling, where forces / torques are considered as well
- The primary use of kinematics models is that of predicting the evolution of a robot's pose based on applied platform or individual wheel velocities

Kinematics "relates to pure motion, i.e. to motion considered abstractly, without reference to force or mass" (Oxford Dictionary)









Forward vs. Inverse Kinematics Models

When discussing kinematics models, it is important to note the difference between forward and inverse kinematics models









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Forward kinematics

A forward kinematics model predicts the motion of a mobile base as a result of the motion of the individual wheels

NB: In the context of robot manipulation, forward kinematics allows calculating the pose of the end effector based on the velocities of the manipulator's joints







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Inverse kinematics

An inverse kinematics model identifies the required motions of the individual wheels so that the mobile base can move in a particular way

NB: In the manipulation context, inverse kinematics is concerned with calculating joint velocities that would result in a desired motion of the end effector





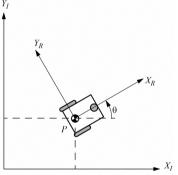


Robot Motion in Global and Local Coordinate Frames

- In a 2D plane, the pose ^Ip of a robot with respect to a global reference frame I is summarised by the robot's position and planar orientation: ^Ip = (x, y, θ)^T
- A robot's velocity vector ^Iṗ with respect to I can be mapped to a velocity vector with respect to a robot's local frame R using a rotation matrix ^R_IR(θ):

$${}^{R}\dot{\boldsymbol{p}} = {}^{R}_{I}R(\theta){}^{I}\dot{\boldsymbol{p}} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\theta) & \sin(\theta) & 0\\ -\sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \dot{x}\\ \dot{y}\\ \dot{\theta} \end{pmatrix}$$





A robot with a local reference frame R at a reference point P, rotated about an angle θ with respect to a global reference frame I









Differential Drive Kinematics





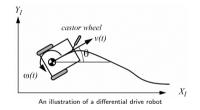




Differential Drive Robot

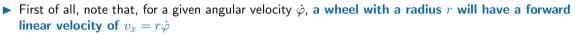


- A differential drive robot is a structure with two active wheels
 - Additional passive wheels may be included for stability
- The controllable wheels of a differential drive robot are standard wheels with an equal radius r
- ► We further consider that the wheels are at a distance *l* from a point *P* that is centered between the wheels' axes
- \blacktriangleright We consider the velocities $\dot{\varphi_1}$ and $\dot{\varphi_2}$ of the wheels to be controllable



















- First of all, note that, for a given angular velocity $\dot{\varphi}$, a wheel with a radius r will have a forward linear velocity of $v_x = r\dot{\varphi}$
- A differential drive has two wheels, both of which contribute to the motion:
 - ▶ If both wheels are moving with the same speed $\dot{\varphi}_1 = \dot{\varphi}_2 = \dot{\varphi}$, the robot moves straight with a velocity $v_x = r\dot{\varphi}$









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- A differential drive robot cannot move sideways, so $v_y = 0$

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 - ▶ For a differential drive robot, if one of the wheels is static, the other wheel rotates in a circular arc around the static wheel (an arc of radius 2*l*)









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• The distance D of P to the ICR can also be found as

$$D = l \frac{r\dot{\varphi}_1 + r\dot{\varphi}_2}{r\dot{\varphi}_1 - r\dot{\varphi}_2}$$









Forward Kinematics Model



> The complete forward kinematics model of a differential drive platform is given as

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 \blacktriangleright With respect to the global reference frame I, the model is given as

$${}^{I}\dot{\boldsymbol{p}} = R(\theta)^{TR}\dot{\boldsymbol{p}} = R(\theta)^{T} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{r\dot{\varphi_{1}}}{2} + \frac{r\dot{\varphi_{2}}}{2} \\ 0 \\ \frac{r\dot{\varphi_{1}}}{2l} - \frac{r\dot{\varphi_{2}}}{2l} \end{pmatrix}$$

















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 - ▶ Rolling constraint, which specifies a wheel's rolling motion (motion parallel to the wheel's plane) with respect to *P*









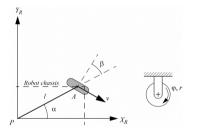
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- There are two concrete constraints on the instantaneous wheel motion that can provide useful information about a robot's motion:
 - Rolling constraint, which specifies a wheel's rolling motion (motion parallel to the wheel's plane) with respect to P
 - ▶ Sliding constraint, which specifies a wheel's sideways sliding motion (motion orthogonal to the wheel's plane) with respect to *P*







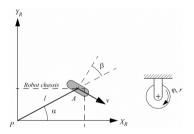












For a fixed standard wheel, the motion parallel to the wheel's plane is captured by the wheel's rolling, so

Rolling constraint for a fixed standard wheel

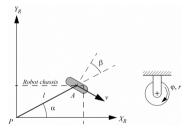
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 $(\sin(\alpha + \beta) - \cos(\alpha + \beta) - l\cos(\beta)) {}^{R}_{I} R(\theta)^{I} \dot{\boldsymbol{p}} = r \dot{\varphi}$

A standard wheel cannot slide sideways; thus, the velocity orthogonal to the wheel's plane needs to be equal to 0:

Sliding constraint for a fixed standard wheel

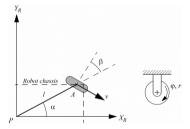
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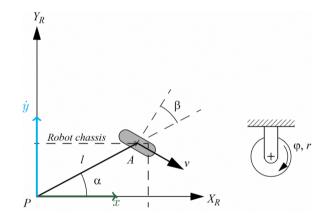
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The sliding and rolling constraint are the same for a steered standard wheel (with a variable β)





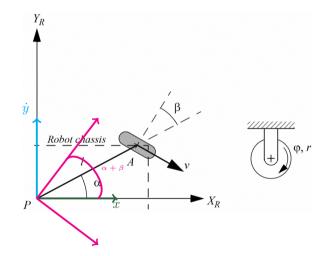


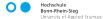






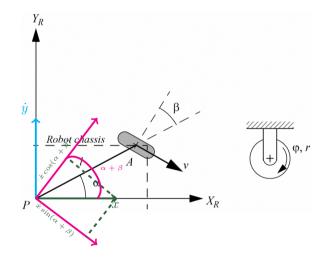








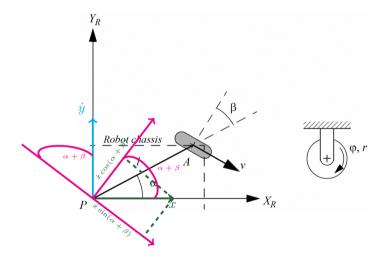










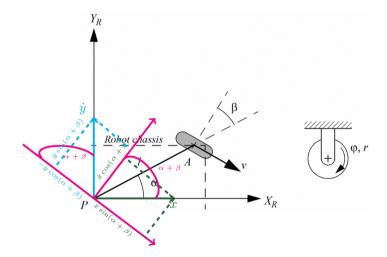








Standard Wheel Constraints Derivation

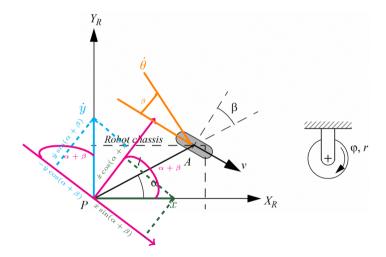








Standard Wheel Constraints Derivation



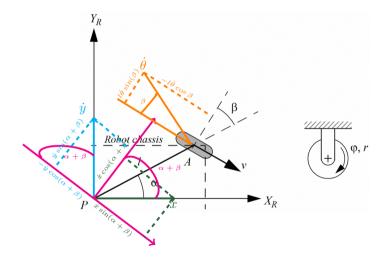
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Standard Wheel Constraints Derivation



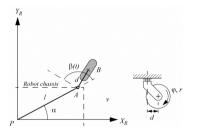






Caster Wheel Constraints



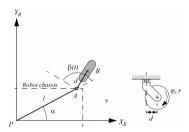








Caster Wheel Constraints



A caster wheel differs from a steered standard wheel in its vertical rotation axis, which does not coincide with the wheel's contact point with the ground

This offset has no effect on the rolling constraint on the wheel:

Rolling constraint for a caster wheel

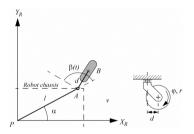
$$\left(\sin(\alpha+\beta) - \cos(\alpha+\beta) - l\cos(\beta)\right)_{I}^{R}R(\theta)^{I}\dot{\boldsymbol{p}} = r\dot{\varphi}$$







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The offset allows lateral motion, such that a steering motion can counteract any motion orthogonal to the wheel's axis (caused by a force at the caster attachment point A):

Sliding constraint for a caster wheel

 $(\cos(\alpha + \beta) \quad \sin(\alpha + \beta) \quad d + l\sin(\beta))_{I}^{R}R(\theta)^{I}\dot{p} = -d\dot{\beta}$



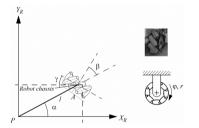






Swedish Wheel Constraints



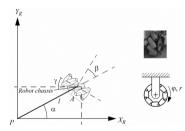








Swedish Wheel Constraints



- Unlike a standard wheel, a Swedish wheel does not have a vertical axis of rotation
- Its rolling constraint is expressed with respect to an axis at the contact point of the rollers with the ground, which is where rolling occurs:

Rolling constraint for a Swedish wheel

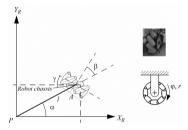
 $\left(\sin(\alpha + \beta + \gamma) - \cos(\alpha + \beta + \gamma) - l\cos(\beta + \gamma) \right)_{I}^{R} R(\theta)^{I} \dot{\boldsymbol{p}} = r \dot{\varphi} \cos(\gamma)$







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► As rollers can rotate freely with a velocity \u03c6 \u03c6_{sw}, the orthogonal motion with respect to the roller axis is not constrained; this is expressed as

Sliding constraint for a Swedish wheel

 $\left(\cos(\alpha + \beta + \gamma) \quad \sin(\alpha + \beta + \gamma) \quad l\sin(\beta + \gamma) \right)_{I}^{R} R(\theta)^{I} \dot{\boldsymbol{p}} = r \dot{\varphi} \sin(\gamma) + r_{sw} \dot{\varphi}_{sw}$

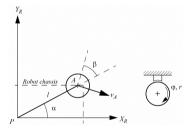








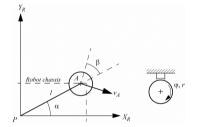












A spherical wheel has no concrete axis of rotation, so its constraints are defined based on conventions



The rolling constraint expresses the rolling in the wheel's direction of motion:

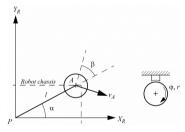
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The sliding constraint expresses that the wheel does not move orthogonally to the direction of motion:

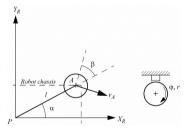
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Sliding constraint for a spherical wheel

 $(\cos(\alpha + \beta) \quad \sin(\alpha + \beta) \quad l\sin(\beta)) {}^{R}_{I} R(\theta)^{I} \dot{\boldsymbol{p}} = 0$

NB: Mathematically, these are the same as for a standard wheel, but they are interpreted differently because a spherical wheel does not pose any constraints on a robot's motion Kinematics: An Overview for Wheeled Robots



- To express the kinematic constraints of a mobile robot base, only fixed and steered standard wheels need to be taken into account — caster, Swedish, and spherical wheels put no constraints on the motion
- ▶ Let us consider a mobile robot base with $N = N_f + N_s$ standard wheels, with N_f the number of fixed standard wheels and N_s the number of steered standard wheels
 - ▶ We combine the motion of these into a common vector $\dot{\varphi} = (\dot{\varphi}_f \ \dot{\varphi}_s)^T$
- The rolling and sliding constraints for the base are expressed by combining the constraints of the standard wheels







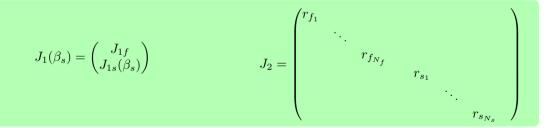
Mobile Base Rolling Constraints



► The rolling constraint of a mobile base is a system that combines the rolling constraints of the *N* wheels, which is expressed as

$$J_1(\beta_s)_I^R R(\theta)^I \boldsymbol{p} = J_2 \dot{\varphi}$$

 \blacktriangleright The matrices J_1 and J_2 are given as













► The sliding constraint is also a system combining the sliding constraints of the N standard wheels; this is expressed as follows:

 $C(\beta_s)_I^R R(\theta)^I \boldsymbol{p} = \boldsymbol{0}$

where

$$C(\beta_s) = \begin{pmatrix} C_f \\ C_s(\beta_s) \end{pmatrix}$$









Instantaneous Center of Rotation (ICR)

- The point around which a mobile robot base rotates is determined by the constraints imposed by its wheels
- This point is the instantaneous center of rotation (ICR) that we already encountered for a differential drive robot
- The ICR can be determined by drawing motion lines perpendicularly through the wheel axes; the intersection point of these lines is the ICR
 - ▶ If the wheels move in a straight line, the ICR is at infinity
- It should be noted that not all standard wheels provide independent constraints for determining the ICR
 - For a car, the back wheels are fixed along the same axis, so they do not both independently constrain the vehicle's motion



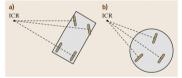


Fig.24.5a,b The instantaneous center of rotation. (a) A car-like robot; (b) a three-steering-wheels robot







- ► The number of independent sliding constraints on a mobile base is determined by the rank of $C(\beta_s)$, which we denote by $\operatorname{rank}(C(\beta_s))$
 - ► As a wheeled robot moves on a plane, we have that $0 \leq \operatorname{rank}(C(\beta_s)) \leq 3$











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- ► The degree of mobility δ_m of a mobile robot is defined in terms of the null space of $C(\beta_s)$, which is a function of rank $(C(\beta_s))$:







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 - A bicycle has $\delta_m = 1$: at any point, it can either move forward or change its rotation







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 - A bicycle has $\delta_m = 1$: at any point, it can either move forward or change its rotation
 - A differential drive has $\delta_m = 2$: both the linear speed and orientation can be controlled instantaneously









- Autonomous Mobile Robots
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- ▶ We can consider the following examples resulting from this definition:
 - A bicycle has $\delta_m = 1$: at any point, it can either move forward or change its rotation
 - A differential drive has $\delta_m = 2$: both the linear speed and orientation can be controlled instantaneously
 - ▶ A robot without standard wheels has $\delta_m = 3$





- Autonomus Mobile Robots
- ► The number of independent sliding constraints on a mobile base is determined by the rank of $C(\beta_s)$, which we denote by $\operatorname{rank}(C(\beta_s))$
 - ▶ As a wheeled robot moves on a plane, we have that $0 \leq \operatorname{rank}(C(\beta_s)) \leq 3$
- ► The degree of mobility δ_m of a mobile robot is defined in terms of the null space of $C(\beta_s)$, which is a function of rank $(C(\beta_s))$:

 $\delta_m = \dim \left(\operatorname{null} \left(C(\beta_s) \right) \right) = 3 - \operatorname{rank} \left(C(\beta_s) \right)$

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The degree of mobility determines the differentiable degrees of freedom (DDOF), which is the number of velocities that can be independently achieved by a robot

Kinematics: An Overview for Wheeled Robots



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- Steerable wheels decrease the mobility (they impose a sliding constraint), but enable a robot to adapt its overall motion through the steerable orientation
- ► δ_s is typically defined so that $0 \le \delta_s \le 2$; if there are more than two steered wheels, the existence of an ICR may not be guaranteed!









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- > Intuitively, δ_M summarises:
 - > the degrees of freedom that can be controlled directly through the individual wheel velocities and
 - > the degrees of freedom whose control is made possible through steering
- \triangleright δ_M is thus defined as a combination of the degrees of mobility and steerability:

$$\delta_M = \delta_m + \delta_s$$



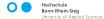






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(1,2)	$\delta_M=3$, $\delta_m=1$, $\delta_s=2$	Two or more steering wheels; no fixed wheels

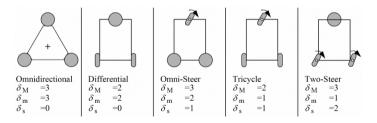








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- Nonholonomic constraints are nonintegrable and thus express a dependence on the body's state on the path taken to reach that state
- ▶ The sliding constraint of standard wheels is a nonholonomic constraint











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The workspace is the set of all achievable configurations (poses) by a mobile robot

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Trajectory

A trajectory combines a path with time, namely it is a collection of poses along with time instants at which those poses should be reached









- Automotos Mobile Robots
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- Furthermore, various nonholonomic platforms (with δ_M < 3) are able to achieve DOF = 3, so they are still practically useful</p>
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- Furthermore, various nonholonomic platforms (with $\delta_M < 3$) are able to achieve DOF = 3, so they are still practically useful
 - For instance, a car has $\delta_M = 2$, but it is a very useful mobile base (obviously)
- Practically speaking, mobile bases with varying maneuverabilities differ in the manner in which they are controlled: a base with lower maneuverability typically requires multiple maneuvers to follow certain paths and may not be able to follow arbitrary trajectories





