# Obstacle Avoiding Real-Time Trajectory Generation and Control of Omnidirectional Vehicles

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Abstract— In this paper, a computationally effective trajectory generation algorithm of omnidirectional mobile robots is proposed. The algorithm plans a reference path based on Bézier curves, which meet obstacle avoidance criteria. Then the algorithm solves the problem of motion planning for the robot to track the path in a short travel time while satisfying dynamic constraints and robustness to noise. Accelerations of the robot are computed such that they satisfy the time optimal condition for each sample time interval. The numerical simulation demonstrates the improvement of trajectory generation in terms of travel time, satisfaction of dynamic constraints and smooth motion control compared to previous research.

#### I. INTRODUCTION

Many researchers have worked on vehicle motion planning. The form of the vehicle includes car-like, differential drive, omni-directional, and other models. Balkcom [3] developed the time optimal trajectories for the bounded velocity model of differential drive robots. Jung [4] and Moore [5] dealt with omnidirectional vehicles; the control strategy employed by these papers consists of building a geometric path and tracking the path by using feedback control. Huang [6] proposed an approach to vision-guided local navigation for nonholonomic robot based upon a model of human navigation. The approach uses the relative headings to the goal and to obstacles, the distance to the goal, and the angular width of obstacles, to compute a potential field. The potential field controls the angular acceleration of the robot, steering it toward the goal and away from obstacles. Hamner [7] maneuvered an outdoor mobile robot that learns to avoid collisions by observing a human driver operate a vehicle equipped with sensors that continuously produce a map of the local environment. The paper describes implementation of steering control that models human behavior in trying to avoid obstacles while trying to follow a desired path. Hwang [8] developed the trajectory tracking and obstacle avoidance of a car-like mobile robot within an intelligent space via mixed  $H_2/H_{\infty}$  decentralized control. Two CCD cameras are used to realize the position of the robot and the position of the obstacle. A reference command for the proposed controller of the robot is planned based on the information from these cameras.

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G. Elkaim is an assistant professor in Computer Engineering Department at the University of California, Santa Cruz, 95064, USA. elkaim@soe.ucsc.edu This paper focuses on two papers: Kalmar-Nagy [2] and Sahraei [1]. Kalmar-Nagy [2] has proposed a minimum time trajectory generation algorithm for omnidirectional vehicles, that meets dynamic constraints, but no obstacles are considered. A near-optimal control strategy is shown to be piecewise constant (bang-bang type) in the paper. Sahraei [1] has presented a motion planning algorithm for omnidirectional vehicles, based on the result of [2]. The paper has claimed that the algorithm satisfies obstacle avoidance as well as time optimality given in discrete time system.

The paper shows that Sahraei's algorithm is problematic. To resolve the problems, a new motion planning algorithm for omnidirectional vehicles is proposed, which also satisfies obstacle avoidance and dynamic constraints in a discrete time system. The numerical simulations provided in this paper demonstrate a better solution to the problem of motion planning by the proposed algorithm than Sahraei's.

The paper is organized as follows. Section II describes dynamic constraints of the robots based on the result of [2]. In section III, Sahraei's algorithm [1] is introduced. Section IV proposes the new algorithm. Finally, a numerical simulation is presented in Section V.

# II. DYNAMIC CONSTRAINTS OF THE OMNIDIRECTIONAL VEHICLE

Fig. 1(a) shows the bottom view of an omnidirectional vehicle that consists of three wheels. This type of vehicle is able to move in any direction and spin as it moves. Kalmar-Nagy described a model that relates the amount of torque available for acceleration to the speed of the three wheeled omnidirectional vehicle [1]. This section is based on the results of [2].

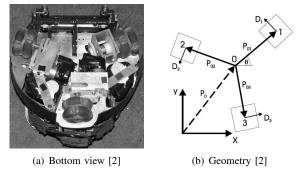


Fig. 1. The omnidirectional vehicle

It is shown that the drive velocities are defined as linear functions of the velocity and the angular velocity of the

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robot:

$$\begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\sin\theta & \cos\theta & L \\ -\sin(\frac{\pi}{3} - \theta) & -\cos(\frac{\pi}{3} - \theta) & L \\ -\sin(\frac{\pi}{3} + \theta) & -\cos(\frac{\pi}{3} + \theta) & L \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{y} \\ \dot{\theta} \end{bmatrix}, \quad (1)$$

where *L* is the distance of the drive units from the center of mass of the robot,  $v_i$  are the individual wheel velocities,  $\theta$  is the angle of counterclockwise rotation (See Fig. 1(b)). New time and length scales are introduced

$$T = \frac{2m}{3\beta}, \quad \Psi = \frac{4\alpha m U_{max}}{9\beta^2}, \tag{2}$$

to normalize x, y, and t to the nondimensional variables

$$\bar{x} = \frac{x}{\Psi}, \quad \bar{y} = \frac{y}{\Psi}, \quad \bar{t} = \frac{t}{T}.$$
 (3)

The constants  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are determined by the motor character.  $U_{max}$  is the maximum value of the voltage applied to the motor, and *m* is the mass of the robot. Then the constraint of the robot (after dropping the bars) becomes

$$q_x^2(t) + q_y^2(t) \le 1,$$
(4)

(see [2] for the full derivation), where the two components of control  $q_x(t)$  and  $q_y(t)$  are

$$q_x(t) = \ddot{x} + \dot{x},\tag{5}$$

$$q_{y}(t) = \ddot{y} + \dot{y}. \tag{6}$$

It has been shown that the time-optimal control strategy is achieved when

$$q_x^2(t) + q_y^2(t) = 1, \quad t \in [0, t_f],$$
 (7)

where  $t_f$  is the final time. Kalmar-Nagy [2] solves the problem of time-optimal motion trajectory by ensuring the equality, but no obstacles are considered.

#### III. SAHRAEI'S ALGORITHM

Sahraei [1] proposed a trajectory generation algorithm based on the results of [2]. The algorithm is differentiated from Kalmar-Nagy's algorithm by two properties: real-time trajectory generation and obstacle avoidance. The first step is to construct the Voronoi diagram to find a path that avoids obstacles. Voronoi diagram is the partitioning of a plane with *n* points into *n* cells. The partitioning is made such that each cell includes one point and every point in a given cell is closer to the captured point. After constructing the Voronoi diagram, the start and target points, s and t are added to it with corresponding edges which connect these two points to their cell vertices. Then Dijkstra's shortest path algorithm is run. The resulting path is the shortest path whose edges are in the Voronoi diagram. Two Bézier curves are used to find a smooth path near the resulting path with regards to initial and final conditions.

A Bézier Curve of degree *n* is represented by n+1 control points  $P_0, \ldots, P_n$ :

$$P(\lambda) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} B_i^n(\lambda) P_i, \quad \lambda \in [0,1],$$
(8)

$$B_i^n(\lambda) = \binom{n}{i} (1-\lambda)^{n-i} \lambda^i, \quad i \in \{0, 1, \dots, n\}.$$
(9)

The curve passes through  $P_0$  and  $P_n$  and is tangent to  $\overline{P_0P_1}$  and  $\overline{P_{n-1}P_n}$ . Also, it lies within the convex hull of control points.

Let  $p_0, p_1, \ldots, p_n$  denote the vertices of the shortest path and  $p_0$ , and  $p_n$  denote *s* and *t*, respectively. The first Bézier curve,  $P_a(\lambda)$  for  $\lambda \in [0,1]$ , is constructed by  $p_0$ , *q*, *r*, and  $p_1$ , where control points *q* and *r* are introduced to satisfy slope of initial velocity constraint and continuity of curve and its slope in  $p_1$ . The second Bézier curve  $P_b(\lambda)$ is constructed by  $p_1, \ldots, p_n$ . Following equations describe boundary conditions:

$$\frac{\dot{P}_a(0)}{|\dot{P}_a(0)|} = \frac{v_0}{|v_0|}, \quad \frac{\dot{P}_a(1)}{|\dot{P}_a(1)|} = \frac{\dot{P}_b(0)}{|\dot{P}_b(0)|}.$$
(10)

Fig. 2 shows an example of the paths.

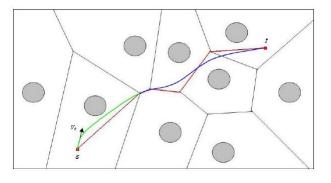


Fig. 2. A smooth path resulted from two Bezier curves. The first Bezier curve is illustrated in green and the second one is shown in blue [1].

Finally Sahraei assigned a velocity magnitude to each point on the generated curve  $P(\lambda) = (X(\lambda), Y(\lambda))$ . To implement this, the paper tried to find a function  $\alpha : t \in \{0, h, 2h, \ldots\} \rightarrow \lambda \in [0, 1]$  such that  $X(\alpha(t))$  and  $Y(\alpha(t))$  satisfy the following dynamic constraint

$$(\dot{X} + \ddot{X})^2 + (\dot{Y} + \ddot{Y})^2 \le 1, \tag{11}$$

where  $h \in \mathbb{R}^+$  is the sample time interval. Note that the variables *X*, *Y*, and *t* for (11) are normalized values by (2). For the sake of optimality  $\alpha(t)$  was calculated such that the left side of the inequality constraint (11) approaches 1. To find  $\lambda_n \triangleq \alpha(nh)$  for all *n*'s Sahraei used derivative approximations to define the function *f*:

$$f(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) = \left(\frac{X(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) - X(\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{n-2})}{2h} + \frac{X(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) + X(\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{n-2}) - 2X(\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{n-1})}{h^2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{Y(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) - Y(\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{n-2})}{2h} + \frac{Y(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) + Y(\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{n-2}) - 2Y(\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{n-1})}{h^2}\right)^2 - 1 + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}.$$
(12)

 $\lambda_n$  is calculated by solving the equation

$$f(\lambda) = 0 \tag{13}$$

based on  $\lambda_{n-1}$  and  $\lambda_{n-2}$  by Newton's method.  $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}^+$  in (12) guarantees that the result of Newton's method makes the left side of inequality (11) less than but close to 1. Since  $\lambda_n$  relies on two previous values of  $\lambda$ , at the first step  $\lambda_0$  and

 $\lambda_1$  should be calculated. It is straightforward that  $\lambda_0 = 0$ . To calculate  $\lambda_1$ , a hypothetical  $\lambda_{-1}$  is introduced to approximate the position of the robot before initial time,  $X(\lambda_{-1})$  defined by

$$\frac{X(\lambda_0) - X(\lambda_{-1})}{h} \approx v_{x_0},\tag{14}$$

and so forth for Y.

One of major drawbacks of this approach is the fact that there is no guarantee of existence of  $\lambda_n$  for all *n*'s to satisfy (13) with small enough value of error,  $|f(\lambda)|$ . That is mainly because  $X(\lambda)$  and  $Y(\lambda)$  are constrained by the polynomial of  $P(\lambda)$ . This drawback will result in a violation of dynamic constraint of (4).

## IV. PROPOSED ALGORITHM

This section proposes a new algorithm for obstacle avoiding real-time trajectory generation of omnidirectional vehicles. To describe this method, let  $a_n = (a_{x_n}, a_{y_n})$ ,  $v_n = (v_{x_n}, v_{y_n})$ ,  $z_n = (x_n, y_n)$  denote the acceleration, velocity, and position of the vehicle, respectively, at sample time *nh*. All of the variables used in this section are nondimensional variables scaled by (2).

The new algorithm uses a Voronoi's diagram and a Bézier curve to generate the reference trajectory as Sahraei did. A problem of Sahraei's algorithm is that it did not do any calculation to ensure that the Bézier curves miss the obstacles. To resolve this problem, this paper ensures that the convex hull constructed by the control points of the Bézier curve do not contain any obstacles.

The algorithm also deals with velocities and accelerations of the robot in a discrete time system sampled at  $t = \{0, h, 2h, ...\}$ . However, it computes accelerations  $a_n$  that meet optimal condition (7) as opposed to that Sahraei computes positions  $z_n$ . The set of all such accelerations  $\mathfrak{A}_n$  is represented as

$$\mathfrak{A}_n = \{(a_{x_n}, a_{y_n}) | \quad (a_{x_n} + v_{x_n})^2 + (a_{y_n} + v_{y_n})^2 = 1\}.$$
 (15)

If  $v_n$  is given, (15) can be rewritten as

$$\mathfrak{A}_n = \{ (-v_{x_n} + \cos \theta_n, -v_{y_n} + \sin \theta_n) | \quad \theta_n \in [0, 2\pi) \}.$$
 (16)

The beauty of (16) is that it guarantees satisfaction of (7) while Sahraei's algorithm only has the left side of the equation approaching 1. It also simplifies the value of the accelerations to one variable  $\theta_n$ . Geometrically,  $\mathfrak{A}_n$  is the circle that has center at  $(-v_{x_n}, -v_{y_n})$  and radius of 1.

In this algorithm, the robot is assumed to follow the constant acceleration equations of motion with  $a_n$  for time interval  $t \in [nh, (n+1)h)$ . Once  $a_n$  is determined, the velocity and the position at next sample time are calculated by applying the constant acceleration equations with  $a_n$ :

$$\mathbf{v}_{n+1} = \mathbf{v}_n + h\mathbf{a}_n, \quad \mathbf{a}_n \in \mathfrak{A}_n, \tag{17}$$

$$\mathbf{z}_{n+1} = \mathbf{z}_n + h\mathbf{v}_n + \frac{h^2}{2}\mathbf{a}_n, \quad \mathbf{a}_n \in \mathfrak{A}_n.$$
(18)

In the problems that we consider,  $v_0$  and  $z_0$  are initially given. So  $a_0$  is solely determined by selecting  $\theta_0$  in (16).

Once  $a_0$  is determined,  $v_1$  and  $z_1$  are obtained by applying (17) and (18) and using  $a_0$ , and so on. Thus we only need to find  $\theta_n$  for all *n*'s in order to fulfill motion planning of the robot, represented by a set of  $z_n$ . We also can generalize that  $v_n$  and  $z_n$  are give when we calculate  $\theta_n$  at t = nh.

Equation (18) can be rewritten as the sum of two vectors:

$$\mathbf{z}_{n+1} = \mathbf{c}_{n+1} + \mathbf{r}_{n+1}, \tag{19}$$

where

$$\mathbf{c}_{n+1} = \begin{bmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} + (h - \frac{h^2}{2}) \begin{bmatrix} v_{x_n} \\ v_{y_n} \end{bmatrix}, \qquad (20)$$

$$\mathbf{r}_{n+1} = \frac{h^2}{2} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta_n \\ \sin \theta_n \end{bmatrix}.$$
 (21)

Since  $v_n$  and  $z_n$  are given at t = nh,  $\mathbf{c}_{n+1}$  is known, while  $\mathbf{r}_{n+1}$  depends on  $\theta_n$ . So the set of all  $z_{n+1}$  corresponding to  $\mathfrak{A}_n$ ,  $\mathfrak{Z}_{n+1}$  is given by

$$\mathfrak{Z}_{n+1} = \{ \mathbf{z}_{n+1} | | \mathbf{z}_{n+1} - \mathbf{c}_{n+1} | = \frac{\hbar^2}{2} \}.$$
 (22)

Geometrically,  $\mathfrak{Z}_{n+1}$  can be interpreted as the circle that has center at  $\mathbf{c}_{n+1}$  and radius of  $\frac{h^2}{2}$  as shown in Fig. 3(a). The intersections of  $\mathfrak{Z}_{n+1}$  and the pre-generated Bézier curve  $P(\lambda)$  satisfy the optimal condition (7). We will select  $z_{n+1}^*$ , the intersection further from current position since that provides a shorter travel time (See Fig. 3(a)).

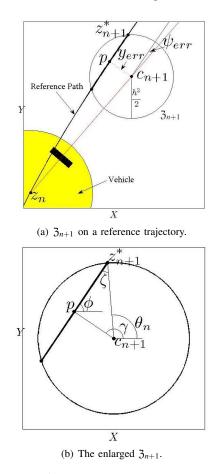


Fig. 3. Geometry of  $\mathfrak{Z}_{n+1}$  from  $z_n$  on a reference trajectory. p is defined by the point on the reference trajectory, which is the closest to  $c_{n+1}$ 

In reality, the acceleration cannot be constant over the sample interval because the dynamic constraint (4) operates at all times. That is, even though  $a_n \in \mathfrak{A}_n$  guarantees satisfaction of the optimal condition (7) at t = nh, the velocity changes due to  $a_n$  over the sample interval  $t \in (nh, (n+1)h)$  and that will violate the dynamic constraint. To resolve this problem, we provide the closed-form analytical solution that obeys the dynamic constraints at all times as follows.

The constraint operating at  $t \in [nh, (n+1)h)$  is

$$\mathbf{a}(t) = \frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt}(t) = -\mathbf{v}(t) + \mathbf{A},$$
(23)

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \frac{d\mathbf{z}}{dt}(t),\tag{24}$$

where

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta_n & \sin \theta_n \end{bmatrix}^T.$$
 (25)

Assuming  $\theta_n$  is constant over the sample interval  $t \in \lfloor nh, (n+1)h \rfloor$ , the velocity and position can be found in closed form

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = e^{-t}\mathbf{v}_n + (1 - e^{-t})\mathbf{A}$$
(26)

$$\mathbf{z}(t) = \mathbf{z}_n + (1 - e^{-t})\mathbf{v}_n + (t - (1 - e^{-t}))\mathbf{A}$$
(27)

A second order Taylor series is used for small time intervals, h, yielding an expression for the position at the end of the sample interval

$$\mathbf{z}(nh+h) = \mathbf{z}_n + (h - \frac{h^2}{2})\mathbf{v}_n + \left(h - (h - \frac{h^2}{2})\right)\mathbf{A}, \quad (28)$$

which is the exact same equation as the expression of  $z_{n+1} \in \mathfrak{Z}_{n+1}$  in (22). That is, the exact closed-form solution is the same, to second order, as the assumption of constant acceleration.

Assuming that the reference path is planned such that  $\mathfrak{Z}_{n+1}$  intersects the path for all *n*'s, we only need to find  $\theta_n$  corresponding to  $z_{n+1}^*$  for motion planning of the vehicle. However, noise in a real system and large parh curvatures may cause  $\mathfrak{Z}_{n+1}$  to miss the path. For this case, another path following heuristic is required. The algorithm is divided into two modes depending on whether  $\mathfrak{Z}_{n+1}$  intersects the reference path or not: *intersect-reference-trajectory (IR)* and *out-of-reference-trajectory (OR)*.

# A. IR mode

In *IR* mode,  $\theta_n$  corresponding to  $z_{n+1}^*$  is calculated in computationally efficient way. Firstly, we define the point on the Bézier curve, *p* which is the closest to  $c_{n+1}$  as shown in Fig. 3(a). To calculate *p*, we introduce the function *f*:

$$f(\lambda) = (X(\lambda) - c_{x_{n+1}})^2 + (Y(\lambda) - c_{y_{n+1}})^2, \quad \lambda \in [0, 1].$$
(29)

Let  $\lambda^p$  denote the parameter that minimizes  $f(\lambda)$ :

$$\lambda^{p} = \arg\min_{\lambda \in [0,1]} f(\lambda).$$
(30)

 $\lambda^p$  is computed by the steepest descent or Newton algorithms using the backtracking line search. Then *p* is given by

$$p = (X(\lambda^p), Y(\lambda^p)).$$
(31)

In Fig. 3(a), the portion of the Bézier curve inside of the circle  $\mathfrak{Z}_{n+1}$  can be considered to be line segment of which the slope is the slope of tangent at p, given that time interval h is small enough. So we can approximate  $z_{n+1}^*$  as the intersection point between the circle and the straight line segment. Let  $\phi$  denote the slope of the tangent line:

$$\phi = \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{\dot{Y}(\lambda^p)}{\dot{X}(\lambda^p)} \right). \tag{32}$$

Looking at the geometry of p,  $z_{n+1}^*$ , and  $c_{n+1}$  in Fig. 3(b),  $\theta_n$  is given by

$$\theta_n = \phi + \zeta, \tag{33}$$

where  $\zeta$  can be calculated by applying law of sines for  $\triangle z_{n+1}^* pc_{n+1}$ :

$$\zeta = \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{2|p - c_{n+1}|}{h^2} \sin(\pi - \gamma + \phi) \right).$$
(34)

and  $\gamma$  is the signed angle of direction of the vector  $\overrightarrow{c_{n+1}p}$ .

## B. OR mode

To account for noise present in a real system, an efficient path following heuristic is presented. To describe this method, we introduce two terms:  $y_{err}$  and  $\psi_{err}$ .  $y_{err}$  is defined by the distance between  $c_{n+1}$  and p.  $\psi_{err}$  is defined by the angle difference from the current heading of the robot,  $\psi_n$  to the slope of tangent at p (See Fig. 3(a)).

The feedback control is designed such that the robot approaches the reference trajectory while making  $\psi_{err}$  small. So we use a PID steering control given by

$$\delta \Psi = k_p y_{err} + k_d \Psi_{err} + k_i \int y_{err} dt, \qquad (35)$$

where  $\delta \psi$  is the deflection of the heading of the robot:

$$\delta \psi = \psi_{n+1} - \psi_n. \tag{36}$$

The angle  $\theta_n$  of the acceleration  $a_n$  that produces the desired  $\delta \psi$  can be calculated in cost efficient way. Fig. 4 shows the relationship of  $\delta \psi$  and  $\theta_n$  in acceleration frame. From (16),  $\mathfrak{A}_n$  is the circle that has center at  $(-v_{x_n}, -v_{y_n})$  and radius of 1. Rewriting (17), the acceleration can be represented as the sum of two vectors:

$$\mathbf{a}_n = -\frac{1}{h}\mathbf{v}_n + \frac{1}{h}\mathbf{v}_{n+1} \tag{37}$$

The direction of the known vector  $\frac{1}{h}\mathbf{v}_n$  is  $\psi_n$ . The other vector  $\frac{1}{h}\mathbf{v}_{n+1}$  depends on the value of  $a_n$ . If we choose some point on the circle as  $a_n$ , then the vector from the tip of  $-\frac{1}{h}\mathbf{v}_n$  to  $a_n$  will be  $\frac{1}{h}\mathbf{v}_{n+1}$  whose angle is  $\psi_{n+1}$ . Since the desired  $\delta\psi$  determines  $\psi_{n+1}$ , the intersections between the vector  $\frac{1}{h}\mathbf{v}_{n+1}$  and the circle  $\mathfrak{A}_n$  determine the acceleration at t = nh. When the number of intersections is two, the longer  $-\frac{1}{h}\mathbf{v}_{n+1}$  is chosen so that travel time is smaller.  $|\delta\psi|$  is bounded within  $|\delta\psi|_{max}$  when the tip of the vector  $-\frac{1}{h}\mathbf{v}_n$  is outside of the circle.  $|\delta\psi|_{max}$  is defined by the  $|\delta\psi|$  when the number of the intersections is one. So

$$|\delta \psi|_{max} = \begin{cases} \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{1}{(1/h-1)|v_n|} \right), & \text{if } (\frac{1}{h}-1)|v_n| > 1\\ \pi, & \text{if } (\frac{1}{h}-1)|v_n| \le 1 \end{cases}$$
(38)

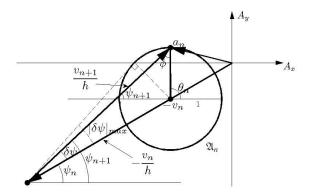


Fig. 4. Geometry of  $\theta_n$  and  $a_n$ .

In Fig. 4,  $\theta_n$  can be represented as

$$\theta_n = \psi_{n+1} + \phi = \psi_n + \delta \psi + \phi, \qquad (39)$$

where  $\phi$  can be obtained by using law of sines:

$$\phi = \sin^{-1}\left(\left(\frac{1}{h} - 1\right)|v_n|\sin(\delta\psi)\right). \tag{40}$$

Note that  $\delta \psi$  is a signed angle and so  $\phi$  is determined by  $\delta \psi$ . Equation (35) can be written as (41) by using (38), (39), and (40).

$$\theta_n = \psi_n + \phi + k_p y_{err} + k_d \psi_{err} + k_i \int y_{err} dt \qquad (41)$$

subject to

$$\psi_n + \phi - |\delta\psi|_{max} \le \theta_n \le \psi_n + \phi + |\delta\psi|_{max}$$
 (42)

In order to satisfy obstacle avoidance, the maximum  $y_{err}$  should be less than the minimum distance from obstacles to the pre-generated Bézier curve. For computational efficiency, the minimum distance is measured as minimum distance from obstacles to control points of the Bézier curve.

#### V. NUMERICAL SIMULATIONS

Simulations provided in this section demonstrate improvement of trajectory generation and control by the proposed algorithm in terms of travel time, satisfaction of the dynamic constraint, and smooth motion control compared to Sahraei's algorithm. Also, they show robustness of the proposed algorithm. Fig. 5 shows the course used for the simulation. Red circles indicate obstacles.

The initial and final conditions are given by:

$$z_0 = (1.75, 0.54)[m], \tag{43}$$

$$v_0 = (0,0)[m/s],$$
 (44)

$$z_f = (6.85, 3.28)[m]. \tag{45}$$

The sample time interval h is given by

$$h = 0.0033[s]. \tag{46}$$

Characteristic variables are given by

$$\alpha = 1[N/V], \ \beta = 1[kg/s], \ m = 1[kg], \ Umax = 3[v].$$
 (47)

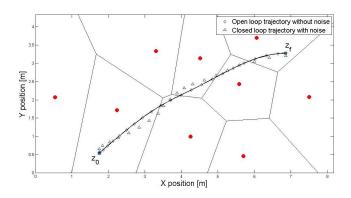


Fig. 5. The resulting trajectories by different algorithms over the reference trajectory (bold black curve).

The reference trajectory is constructed by a Bézier curve for which the control points are

$$p_0 = (1.75, 0.54), p_1 = (3.49, 2.05), p_2 = (3.72, 2.14), p_3 = (4.55, 2.04), p_4 = (5.35, 3.24), p_5 = (6.85, 3.28), (48)$$

and illustrated as bold black curve in Fig. 5. The simulation of Sahraei's algorithm has been done with the same parameters above and  $\varepsilon = 0.01$ .

In Fig. 5, two kinds of trajectories are generated depending on addition of noise. The open loop trajectory without noise is generated by applying two different algorithms: the proposed algorithm and Sahraei's algorithm. The closed loop trajectory with noise is generated by the proposed algorithm. The reference trajectory is generated smooth enough that  $\mathfrak{Z}_{n+1}$  contains a portion of the trajectory for all *n*'s. So, in simulation of the proposed algorithm, only IR logic is used for the open loop trajectory while combination of IR and OR is used for the closed loop trajectory. The resulting closed loop trajectory shows the robustness to noise in Fig. 5. The noise was modeled as white noise with magnitude of 0.05m and added to actual position. The simulation results are listed in table I. The resulting final times  $t_f$  by the proposed algorithm are substantially shorter than the one by Sahraei's algorithm. In the table, the cross track error  $c_{err}$  is defined as the distance of the line normal to the path and passing through the vehicle position. Sahraei's algorithm leads to violation of the dynamic constraint (4). We can see that  $q_x^2 + q_y^2$  exceeds boundary condition 1 in Fig. 6(f). On the other hand,  $q_x^2 + q_y^2$  by the proposed algorithm is 1 at every sample time interval as shown in Fig. 6(d) and 6(e). In addition, the proposed algorithm generates smoother controls  $q_x$  and  $q_y$  and velocities  $v_x$  and  $v_y$  than Sahraei's algorithm as shown in Fig. 6(a), 6(b), 6(g) and 6(h).

#### **VI. CONCLUSIONS**

This paper proposes a collision-free real-time motion planning algorithm for an omnidirectional mobile robot. It has been shown that planned motion of the robot is a computationally effective way to satisfy obstacle avoidance as well as robustness, and the proposed algorithm leads to short travel times. Numerical simulations demonstrate the

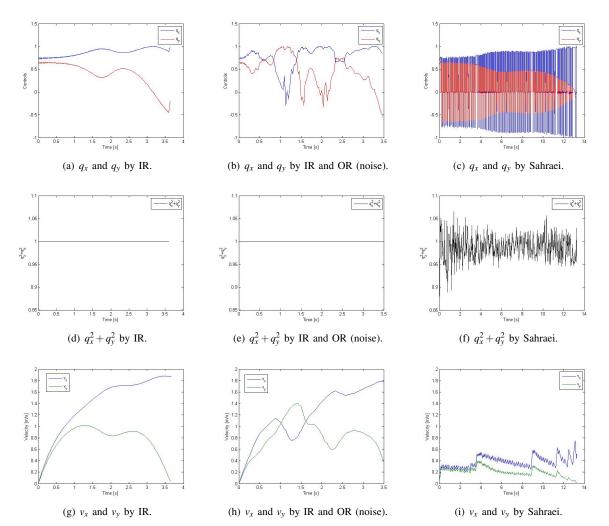


Fig. 6. The results obtained by the proposed algorithm and Sahraei's algorithm.

TABLE I RESULTS OF THE SIMULATION

Methods	$t_f[s]$	Violation of (4) [%]	$\int_0^{t_f}  c_{err}  dt$
IR without noise	3.6667	0	0
IR and OR with noise	3.4667	0	0.0018
Sahraei without noise	13.2667	31.91	0

improvement of the motion planning compared to Sahraei's algorithm.

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