# ER-Force Extended Team Description Paper RoboCup 2015

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**Abstract.** This paper presents proceedings of ER-Force, the RoboCup Small Size League team from Erlangen located at Friedrich-Alexander-University Erlangen-Nürnberg, Germany. We present an innovative, robotbased method of ball detection that uses infrared light reflected from the ball. Furthermore, we share our experiences with the path planning algorithm.

# 1 Introduction

With RoboCup Small-Size-League using highly standardized mechanical designs and several of them being commonly available, we decided to pass on commenting on the minor changes we made on our design and focus on electronics and software. Hence, find information on our innovative, robot-based infrared ball detection device in section 2. Insights into our path planning algorithm is given in section 3.

# 2 Detecting the ball

A ball detection system is required because the camera system is not able to measure exactly the distance of the ball and the robot. Our approach is to notify the robot if the ball is located in immediate proximity, but have the final ball detection done locally on the robot. The requirements of ball detection systems suitable for this application are listed below.

- No interference with the camera-system,
- insensitive to the field lights,
- fast detection (within  $20\mu s$ ),
- no physical interaction with the ball, and
- failsafe decision between *ball detected* and *system malfunction*.

An answer to these requirements is an optical detection system based on infrared light. Find two possible implementations subsequently.

Linear light barrier In the 2012 robot generation a linear light barrier system was used. It was placed in the very front of the bot, below the dribbling device.

An infrared LED (IR-LED) on the one dribbler-side was transmitting a continuous light-beam. The beaming angle was set approx. 6 degree. On the opposite side, a photo transistor received the signal.

The electrical architecture of this system is quite simple. For the transmitting side (TX) a resistor and the IR-LED is needed. On the receiving side (RX) there are a photo transistor with a reference voltage source and a comparator with adjustable threshold voltage to create a digital signal for the microcontroller.

The performance of this system proved to be insufficient. The receiver was influenced from other light sources than the transmitter, thus required readjustment of the threshold voltage manually with a potentiometer. Additionally, LED or transistor were physically damaged by other bots. Therefore we decided to implement a better way of optical ball detection.

**Reflective light barrier** The principle of this kind of light barrier is to detect reflected light from a surface. Transmitter and Receiver are next to each other facing towards the detection area. Figure 1 shows the pictorial schematic. This design avoids sensible parts to be located in exposed positions of the bot. The sensor can be behind or above the ball. This prevents mechanical damage of the components and the related failure of the kicking system. Integrated parts are available from Vishay, like CNY70 or TCRT5000. Unfortunately, the detection distance is only specified in a very small range (0 to 15mm). For Sharp GP2Y0A21YK a detection is only possible above 100mm. As our robot-dimensions require a 50mm operating distance, the Sharp sensor is not suitable as well. For that reason, a custom solution was developed and is in use since 2014.

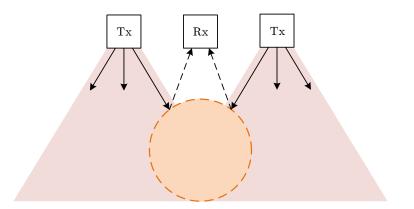


Fig. 1. Pictorial schematic of a reflective light barrier

Our first try of a suitable system was in the 2014 robot generation for last year's RoboCup. It was built from a small PCB with one pulsed IR-LED and one

photo transistor with charge amplifier. We tried to use discrete components to be able to optimize the circuit for best performance. The analog sensor output was transmitted as voltage level single-ended via the connecting cable to our microcontroller to read only the triggering level dynamically. It turned out that this design was failure-prone because of small analog current and voltage levels. Difficult calibrations were required and the system worked still quite unstable.

Concerning the problems of last year's ball detection system, two more rules for ball detection systems were defined.

- Integrated part for signal-receiving and -amplification, and
- Only digital signals on cable connection with EMC protection on both ends.

At this moment the further requests are already implemented into a new design. The first prototype is working and shows promising results. Figure 2 shows the 2015 PCB.

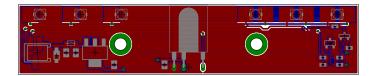


Fig. 2. Ball detection PCB 2015

The following changes were made in comparison to the 2014 board. The infrared illumination of the whole width of the dribbler is ensured by two transmitting IR-LEDs (Vishay VSMB3940X01) with a beaming angle of  $60^{\circ}$  each. They are pulsed with 36kHz to fit the specific receiver. The integrated receiver Vishay TSOP1736 processes the signal. It is a standard IR communication IC for remote controls with a carrier frequency of 36kHz. On the output a digital voltage level (one bit) is measured which corresponds to the ball states (*ball detected* and *no ball detected*).

These modifications make the circuit very simple compared to the 2014 version. For this purpose and the noisy robot environment the new solution seems to be a better realization without sensible signals on wires across the board. Tests proved our development to be successful and we are highly pleased with the results so far. At the moment, we are experimenting with the position and the light intensity of the LEDs to get the best detection results.

# 3 Path planning

Like with most other teams our path planning is broken up into two steps. First a collision free path is calculated using the ERRT algorithm. Then the found path is processed by the motion control to generate the actual move commands. The following sections detail our usage and modifications of ERRT.

### 3.1 Modeling

Each robot is handled separately, thus providing no direct coordination between robots.

The used state space is two-dimensional representing the x and y-dimension. The orientation  $\phi$  is not included. As long as the robot is moving freely on the field, this causes are no drawbacks. However the situation changes when approaching the ball, as the robot dribbler is flat. That allows the ball to get nearer to the robots center without actually colliding with the robot hull. Thus additional obstacles and modifications to the robot radius are required.

As the modeling does not include time, an optimal generated path would be the shortest path. This does not necessarily imply that it is also the fastest path.

The obstacle space consists of circles, line segments with round caps and a given width and axis aligned rectangles. As the state space does not contain time, all obstacles are assumed to be at a fixed position. A robot is modeled as a circle with a radius of  $radius_{robotA} + bound(0, |speed_{robotA} - speed_{robotB}| * 0.05, 0.05)$ . For opponent robots whose future movement is unknown a larger safety margin is added. Calculating the safety margin between robots based on the speed differences ensures that robots with different movement directions do not collide while allowing two robots moving into the same direction to get as close as possible.

The goal is modeled using line segments, whereas the keeper area is set up with two circles connected with a rectangle. While the stop command is issued by the referee, an extra circle is added around the ball enforcing the minimum distance from the ball.

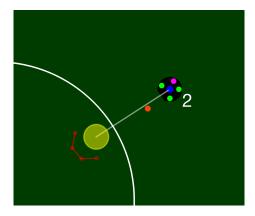


Fig. 3. Robot hunting a ball rolling away from it

During a game the ball is usually added as an obstacle for each robot. In case the robot is chasing the ball like in figure 3, no obstacle is added. This allows planning a straight path to the ball without trying to plan a path around the current ball position.

In order to allow the robot to move next to the ball, it must be modeled using a smaller radius. That radius must be the "shoot radius" which is the distance of the dribbler mid to the robot center. This would allow the robots sides to touch the ball without detecting a collision. Thus several obstacles around the ball forming a cone are added.

#### **3.2 ERRT**

The ERRT algorithm (described in [3]) is implemented as bidirectional RRT with a way point cache and using RRT-Connect (see [4]). The bidirectional RRT grows two trees starting at the start and end point. Using RRT-Connect these are not only extended towards the random state but also towards each other.

A kD-Tree is used to speed up the calculations. The simple case that a robot can move straight towards its target is checked first to avoid unnecessary calculations. Just returning the start and end points as a path while being valid is incorrect. This would skip the way point cache what will cause unstable paths whenever an obstacle enters the free path. Thus our implementation splits the line into several small segments using the step size used by the ERRT algorithm. These way points are used to update the cache.

#### 3.3 Obstacle handling

RRT based algorithms are designed to find a path from start to end without colliding with obstacles. Due to the dynamic environment and sensor or actuator noise a robot may enter an obstacle which requires special handling.

To allow the path planner to leave obstacles a modified collision check is used:

A position is considered free if the robot (modeled as a circle with configurable radius) can be placed there without intersecting with an obstacle. In case the position is obstructed, that is not free, a path to a new position is valid if equation 4 holds.

 $startObstacles = \{ o \in Obstacles | o \text{ collides with } pos_{start} \}$ (1)

$$otherObstacles = Obstacles \setminus startObstacles \tag{2}$$

distInObstacle(pos) =

$$\sum_{o \in startObstacles} \min\left(-distance(o, pos) + robot\_radius, 2 \cdot robot\_radius\right) \quad (3)$$

$$\forall p \in [pos_{start}, pos_{end}] : distInObstacle(p) \le distInObstacle(pos_{start}) \\ \land \neg (pos_{end} \text{ collides with } otherObstacles)$$
(4)

 $[pos_{start}, pos_{end}]$  denotes every point on the line segment between  $pos_{start}$  and  $pos_{end}$ . The implementation just checks a point every 2 millimeters on the line segment. This is sufficient as even the smallest obstacles, the goal sides, are a magnitude larger.

Calculation of *distance*(*obstacle*, *pos*):

- For a circle:  $|center_{obstacle} pos| radius_{obstacle}$
- For a line:  $distance\_to\_linesegment(obstacle, pos) radius_{obstacle}$
- For a rectangle (axis-aligned):

smallest distance to side or corner *pos* outside *obstacle* 

negative distance to nearest side otherwise

The check using distInObstacle ensures that it is not possible to enter further into an obstacle. The second part of equation 4 ensures that no new obstacles are entered.

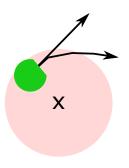


Fig. 4. Two paths a robot could use to leave an obstacle

The construction of equation 4 allows sliding along an obstacle. Two possible paths are shown in figure 4. If the new added path segments were infinitesimal short, it would be possible to move along a circle inside an obstacle. As this is very unlikely to happen, each new point will be further outside the obstacle than its predecessor. Allowing small movements inside an obstacle can be beneficiary when trying to keep the required distance to the ball during stop. If the shortest path out of that obstacle is blocked by other robots, an alternative can be found.

While the robot has fully entered an obstacle, it is allowed to move freely within it. This case should only occur if a new obstacle suddenly appears, like the blocked zone near the ball during stop. By limiting the intersection distance the chances to find a path towards the preferred direction are increased. The obstacle used to represent other robots is small enough to prevent the current robot from being fully covered by it. Thus the planned path is always pointing away from the other robot in case of a collision.

If the robot gets moved outside the play field, a similar calculation is used. This allows the robot to reenter the field after leaving. The condition is applied on both trees thus allowing a bidirectional search even with the end point being inside an obstacle. For extracting the path once both trees touch, care has to be taken to not include points of the tree grown from the target which are inside an obstacle. To allow moving as near as possible to an obstacle, a binary search is used between the last point outside and the first point inside the obstacles. By implementing obstacle handling for the start and end point RRT is also more likely to find a path within the given iterations limit, thus decreasing the average worst case latency.

Handling the leaving of obstacles directly within RRT however has a drawback. The point where the path leaves the obstacles near the start point or enters them near the end point exhibits some random movement. At the start point this is handled by the path post-processing using a simple modification. Improving the end point is more complicated: As end points inside obstacles are cutoff the new end point is noisy and cannot be smoothed that way. This could be mitigated by smoothing the whole path before cutting of the end part inside the obstacle. We have found that the simple cutoff is sufficient, if some care is taken during target generation.

#### 3.4 Path smoothing

RRT generates jagged paths that require some post-processing. Our implementation uses a simplification and a corner cutting algorithm. Both algorithms are in turn executed three times followed by a final simplification run. This creates smooth paths like the one in figure 5.

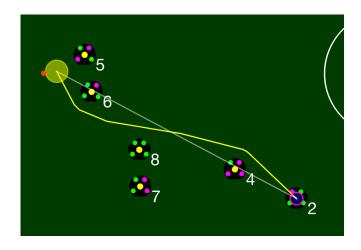


Fig. 5. Smoothed path

Simplification is done using the following algorithm. *path* is the list of way points.

- for pA in path:
  - $\circ$  for *pB* in reversed(*path* starting after *pA*):
    - \* if the line segment between pA and pB does not collide with any obstacle, then remove all points in between from *path*

The collision check uses the modifications described in the previous section. The simplification algorithm just tries to generate straight lines that skip as many points as possible.

In order to generate a smooth and short path around obstacles the following algorithm is used:

- for pB in path:
  - $\circ$  Get predecessor pA and successor pC of point pB
  - Calculate  $dist = \min(|pB pA|, |pC pB|)$
  - Find largest  $l \in [0, dist]$  with binary search for which the line segment  $pB + \frac{pA pB}{|pA pB|} \cdot l, pB + \frac{pC pB}{|pC pB|} \cdot l$  does not collide with any obstacle replace pB with these two points

The algorithm cuts off corners symmetrically. This ensures that smoothing does not differ if the path direction is flipped.

#### 4 Conclusion

We are very happy to help new teams having any issues with published system parts. New teams entering the league are crucial for the survival of SSL, so we invite everyone to contact us with any requests.

In the past, the characteristics of SSL have been pointed out over and over again - entry league, many students. This applies to our team as well. The number of lessons learned by building a SSL team is by far higher than it is in traditional lectures. Unfortunately, many students are not given any credit points by their universities. This leads to the uncomfortable situation of doubled workload by traditional classes and the approach of RoboCup deadlines, reducing quality of the SSL systems. We would welcome a push of the RoboCup committee into this direction.

# References

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