

# Introduction to Robotics J-P. Merlet INRIA, COPRIN project team



#### COPRIN project team



#### **COPRIN** project team

A team involved in the development of

- analysis and modeling of robots
- management of uncertainties in robotics
- design methodology for mechanisms



#### **COPRIN** project team

A team involved in the development of

- parallel robot
- assistance robotics





What is a robot ?



What is a robot ?

No clear definition



What is a robot ?

- No clear definition
- etymology: robota in Czech  $\rightarrow$  labor slave





What is a robot ?

Historically an instrument of the gods and kings







What is a robot ?

For the Greek and Roman entertainment machinery





What is a robot ?

During the French Revolution: automata





#### What is a robot ?

#### In the 60's a science-fiction concept





What is a robot ?

In the late 60's industry is looking for machines that are able to produce controlled repetitive motion 24/24



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In the late 60's industry is looking for machines that are able to produce controlled repetitive motion 24/24

- to pick and place objects
- to perform assembly tasks
- for grinding and deburing operations

• . . .



What is a robot ?

In the late 60's industry is looking for machines that are able to produce controlled repetitive motion 24/24

they design the first robot manipulator





Nowadays robots are able to perform other tasks than *industrial manipulation* 

- navigation
- medical: surgery, assistance
- spatial exploration
- simulator
- domestic tasks
- . . .



















• a collection of links (rigid bodies)

- a collection of links (rigid bodies)
  - the end-effector: the link that has to perform the motion
  - the base: the link of the robot that is connected to the ground



- a collection of links (rigid bodies)
- that are connected to each other by joints that allow motion(s) between the links



Motion(s) of a rigid body

- a rigid body may translate in 3 directions
- a rigid body may rotate around these 3 directions





Motion(s) of a rigid body



They are the 6 degrees of freedom (dof) of the body



A joint will allow some dof between the links it connects



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• 1 dof: a rotation around a fixed axis (revolute joint)



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- 1 dof: a rotation around a fixed axis (revolute joint)
- 1 dof: a translation along a fixed axis (prismatic joint)



A joint will allow some dof between the links it connects But there are joint that allows more dof

• 3 dof: ball and socket, 3 rotations around a fixed point





A joint may be:

passive: the link may move freely along the dof of the joint

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There are numerous type of passive joints and they are very important for robotics

 $\Rightarrow$  Tuesday afternoon, T. Gayral

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- actuated: an actuator imposes motion of the dof of the joint

hard

#### A joint may be:

- passive: the link may move freely along the dof of the joint
- actuated: an actuator imposes motion of the dof of the joint
  - rotary motor for revolute joints
  - linear motor for prismatic joints

dof a robot: may be

- the number of dof of the end-effector that can be controlled by the robot
- the number of independent actuators

- a collection of links (rigid bodies)
- that are connected to each other by joints
- actuators that move the actuated joints

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- that are connected to each other by joints
- actuators that move the actuated joints
- sensors that measure the motion of the actuated joints



#### Mechanical architecture

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For *manipulators* 

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• serial structure: a serie of link-joint/link-joint



#### Mechanical architecture

The way the links and joints are assembled to produce the motion of the end-effector

For *manipulators* 

- serial structure: a serie of link-joint/link-joint
- parallel structure: several independent chains connect the base to the end-effector



#### Mechanical architecture A special case of parallel robot: parallel wire-driven robot: link are extensible wires







To define the pose of a rigid body you need:

• to define a reference frame (*O*, **x**, **y**, **z**)





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- to choose a point *C* on the body





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- to choose a point *C* on the body



the coordinates of C in the reference frame allows to define the position of the body



To define the pose of a rigid body you need:

• to define a mobile frame ( $C, \mathbf{x_m}, \mathbf{y_m}, \mathbf{z_m}$ ) that is rigidly attached to the body





To define the pose of a rigid body you need:

- to define a mobile frame  $(C, \mathbf{x_m}, \mathbf{y_m}, \mathbf{z_m})$  that is rigidly attached to the body
- to define a rotation matrix  ${\bf R}$  such that  ${\bf v}={\bf R}{\bf v_m}$





#### Rotation matrix:

• a 3  $\times$  3 orthogonal matrix:

$$\mathbf{R}^T \mathbf{R} = I_3 \quad ||R_i|| = 1 \qquad R_i \cdot R_j = 0$$



#### Rotation matrix:

- a  $3 \times 3$  orthogonal matrix:
- although a rotation matrix has 9 components its special properties allows to obtain it with a minimum of 3 parameters



For example the Euler angles  $\psi, \theta, \phi$ 





#### For example the Euler angles $\psi, \theta, \phi$

	$\cos\psi\cos\phi - \sin\psi\cos\theta\sin\phi$	$-\cos\psi\sin\phi-\sin\psi\cos\theta\cos\phi$	$\sin\psi\sin\theta$	
$\mathbf{R} =  $	$\sin\psi\cos\phi + \cos\psi\cos\theta\sin\phi$	$-\sin\psi\sin\phi + \cos\psi\cos\theta\cos\phi$	$-\cos\psi\sin heta$	
	$\sin heta\sin\phi$	$\sin  heta \cos \phi$	$\cos heta$	





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the parameters of the rotation matrix allows to define the orientation of the rigid body



To define the pose of a rigid body you need:

- 3 parameters for the translation
- at least 3 parameters for the orientation





Variables for a robot:

• X: the parameters that define the pose of the end-effector, generalized cartesian coordinates



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  - they are what you want to control



- X: the parameters that define the pose of the end-effector, generalized cartesian coordinates
  - they are what you want to control
  - but what you are able to effectively control is the actuators



- X: the parameters that define the pose of the end-effector, generalized cartesian coordinates
- $\Theta$ : the parameters of the actuator, the joint variables



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- X: the parameters that define the pose of the end-effector, generalized cartesian coordinates
- $\Theta$ : the parameters of the actuator, the joint variables
  - to reach a given value for a joint variable you may use open loop control: very approximate control
  - closed-loop control: you use the sensors to measure the value of the joint parameters and you have a control scheme that allows to reach the desired value: accurate control but not perfect



- X: the parameters that define the pose of the end-effector, generalized cartesian coordinates
- $\Theta$ : the parameters of the actuator, the joint variables
- $\Theta_m$ : the measured joint variables



Variables for a robot: you may also be in interested in the velocity

- X: the translation and angular velocity of the end-effector, generalized velocities
- $\dot{\Theta}$ : the joint velocities
- $\dot{\Theta_{m}}$ : the measured joint velocities



Variables for a robot: you may also be in interested in the force/torques

- $\mathcal{F}$ : the forces/torques exerted by the end-effector
- $\tau$ : the joint forces/torques



Generally speaking you are interested in

• controlling the parameters in the end-effector space



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- but by applying a control in the joint space



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Hence you have to establish the relations between these 2 spaces

This is the purpose of Modeling:

Monday 2-5 pm, Y. Papegay



kin



Kinematics: the relations between  ${\bf X}$  and  $\Theta$ 

# Modeling example: Kinematics

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• inverse kinematics:  $\mathbf{X} \to \boldsymbol{\Theta}$ 

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- inverse kinematics:  $\mathbf{X} \to \mathbf{Theta}$
- direct kinematics:  $\Theta_m \to \mathbf{X}$



A very simple example: 1 dof planar arm



Objective: starting from the current pose of the robot  $X_1$  grasp the object located at  $X_2$ 

# Modeling example: Kinematics



in the reference frame X=(x,y)

direct kinematics

$$x = l\cos\theta \qquad y = \sin\theta$$


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direct kinematics

$$x = l\cos\theta \qquad y = \sin\theta$$

inverse kinematics

$$\theta = \arctan(y/x)$$



- use the sensors to obtain  $\theta_1$
- use the inverse kinematics to determine  $\theta_2$



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Typical control law: proportional

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- use the inverse kinematics to determine  $\theta_2$

Typical control law: proportional, the order  $\theta_c$  (voltage, current) send to the motor at each sampling time is

$$\theta_c = K_p(\theta_2 - \theta_m)$$

where  $K_p$  is a constant gain that has to be determined, not too large, not to low



$$\theta_c = K_p(\theta_2 - \theta_m)$$

#### Drawback:

 when θ<sub>m</sub> become close to θ<sub>2</sub>, then θ<sub>c</sub> ≈ 0: static error, the end-effector does not reach X<sub>2</sub>



Solution: proportional-integral control

$$\theta_c = K_p(\theta_2 - \theta_m) + K_i \int (\theta_2 - \theta_m)$$



$$\theta_c = K_p(\theta_2 - \theta_m) + K_i \int (\theta_2 - \theta_m)$$

Still a drawback: at the start if  $\theta_1$  is far from  $\theta_2$  the robot may move very quickly and we may overshoot  $\theta_2$ 



$$\theta_c = K_p(\theta_2 - \theta_m) + K_i \int (\theta_2 - \theta_m)$$

Solution: add a derivative term that limits the initial acceleration of the robot

$$\theta_c = K_p(\theta_2 - \theta_m) + K_i \int (\theta_2 - \theta_m) - K_d \dot{\theta}$$

Note: in this example the inverse and direct kinematics are very simple. This is not always the case

- for serial structure: inverse kinematics is complex, direct kinematics is simple
- for parallel structure: inverse kinematics is simple, direct kinematics is complex
- there may be multiple solutions for both the inverse and direct kinematics

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- for serial structure: inverse kinematics is complex, direct kinematics is simple
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Kinematics requires sophisticated solving methods for non linear system of equations





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Here for example we may use an external measurement mean that locate the end-effector

Associated problems:

• control assumes a perfect knowledge of *l* 

the initial knowledge of *l* may be improved by calibration Here for example we may use an external measurement mean that locate the end-effector

- measure the end-effector location for various  $\theta$
- least-square estimation of *l*



• control assumes a perfect knowledge of *l* 

calibration: Tuesday 9-12 am, D. Daney

Associated problems:

- control assumes a perfect knowledge of *l*
- control assumes a perfect knowledge of  $\mathbf{X}_2$

Associated problems:

- control assumes a perfect knowledge of *l*
- control assumes a perfect knowledge of X<sub>2</sub>

External mean may measure the real location of the object

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Visual servoing: Wednesday 9-12am, R. Ramadour





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 in the modeling: the value of l in the previous example, in spite of the calibration



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- in the modeling: the value of l in the previous example, in spite of the calibration
- in the environment: the location of  $\mathbf{X}_2$



A robot is a mechatronic system for which uncertainties are unavoidable

- in the modeling: the value of l in the previous example, in spite of the calibration
- in the environment: the location of  $X_2$
- in the measurement: the value of  $\Theta_m$



These uncertainties leads to several problems



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 what are the effects of the modeling and sensing on the performances of the robot: the analysis problem



These uncertainties leads to several problems

- what are the effects of the modeling and sensing on the performances of the robot: the analysis problem
- what are the values of the modeling parameters that minimize these effects: the synthesis problem





We have seen that

 $x = l\cos\theta \qquad y = \sin\theta$ 



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$$x = l\cos\theta \qquad y = \sin\theta$$

Hence for small errors on  $\theta_m$  we have

$$\Delta x = -l\sin\theta\Delta\theta$$
$$\Delta y = l\cos\theta\Delta\theta$$



Hence for small errors on  $\theta_m$  we have

 $\Delta x = -l\sin\theta\Delta\theta$  $\Delta y = l\cos\theta\Delta\theta$ 

or in matrix form

$$\Delta \mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} -l\sin\theta \\ l\cos\theta \end{pmatrix} \Delta\theta$$



In general for a robotics system we have

$$\Delta \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{\Theta}) \Delta \theta \quad \Delta \theta = \mathbf{J}^{-1}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{\Theta}) \Delta \mathbf{X}$$

and  ${\bf J}$  is called the Jacobian matrix of the robot



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 as soon as the number of dof become large only one of the matrices J, J<sup>-1</sup> is known in symbolic form, while the other is not



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- as soon as the number of dof become large only one of the matrices J, J<sup>-1</sup> is known in symbolic form, while the other is not
- these matrices are pose dependent



In general for a robotics system we have

$$\Delta \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{\Theta}) \Delta \theta \quad \Delta \theta = \mathbf{J}^{-1}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{\Theta}) \Delta \mathbf{X}$$

- $|\mathbf{J}^{-1}| = 0$ : even if  $\Delta \theta = 0$  we have  $\Delta \mathbf{X} \neq 0$  (singularity)
- $|\mathbf{J}| = 0$ : even if  $\Delta \mathbf{X} = 0$  we have  $\Delta \theta \neq 0$  (singularity)



Managing uncertainties is important (imagine you are at the wrong end of a surgical robot!)

Thursday: 9-12 am, O. Pourtallier



### Interval analysis



### **Interval analysis**

There is another source of uncertainty that we have not yet mentioned ...


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the computer



ia

A computer knows only a limited set of real numbers



A computer knows only a limited set of real numbers For example

• a computer does not know the number 0.1



A computer knows only a limited set of real numbers For example

- a computer does not know the number 0.1
- the closest number to 0.1 it knows are
  - 0.099999994039536,
  - 0.10000008940697



A computer knows only a limited set of real numbers

A consequence is that a computer may calculate wrongly and sometimes by a very large amount: numerical roundoff errors



To manage this uncertainty we may use interval analysis



To manage this uncertainty we may use interval analysis Basically instead of computing with numbers that are wrong we calculate with intervals that are guaranteed to include the exact value



We may perform with intervals the same calculation than with numbers

For example if we have two intervals X = [a, b], Y = [u, v] then

$$Z = X + Y = [a + u, b + v]$$

- interval operators may be implemented so that numerical round-off errors are managed
- hence the interval Z is guaranteed to include the exact result of the addition of X, Y



There is no free lunch!. Hence we may have to pay for this guarantee

**Example:** let X = [-1, 2] and let us compute X - X

• 
$$[-1,2] - [-1,2] = [-1,2] + [-2,1] = [-3,3]$$

Hence

$$X - X \neq 0$$



**Example:**  $F = x^2 + \cos(x)$ ,  $x \in [0, 1]$ 

**Problem:** find [A, B] such that:  $A \leq F(x) \leq B \forall x \in [0, 1]$ 



#### $F = [0,1]^2 + \cos([0,1])$



$$F = ([0,1]^2) + \cos([0,1])$$



# $F = ([0,1]^2) + \cos([0,1]) = [0,1] + \cos([0,1])$



# $F = [0,1]^2 + \cos([0,1]) = [0,1] + \cos([0,1])$



$$F = [0,1]^2 + \cos([0,1]) = [0,1] + [0.54,1]$$



#### $F = [0,1]^2 + \cos([0,1]) = [0,1]+[0.54,1]$



### $F = [0,1]^2 + \cos([0,1]) = [0,1]+[0.54,1] = [0.54,2]$



#### $F = [0,1]^2 + \cos([0,1]) = [0,1]+[0.54,1] = [0.54,2]$

#### • 0 not included in [0.54,2] $\Rightarrow F \neq 0 \forall x \in [0,1]$



## $F = [0,1]^2 + \cos([0,1]) = [0,1]+[0.54,1] = [0.54,2]$

- 0 not included in [0.54,2]  $\Rightarrow F \neq 0 \forall x \in [0,1]$
- $F > 0 \quad \forall x \in [0, 1]$
- $\forall x \in [0, 1]$  we have  $0.54 \le F \le 2$  (global optimization)



#### **Another kinematic example**



## Another kinematic example

2 degrees of freedom planar robot:



- end-effector position defined by x, y
- joint variables:  $\theta_1, \theta_2$



#### **Another kinematic example**



 $x = l_1 \cos \theta 1 + l_2 \cos(\theta_2 - \theta_1)$  $y = l_1 \sin \theta 1 + l_2 \sin(\theta_2 - \theta_1)$ 



#### Hence

$$\begin{pmatrix} \Delta x \\ \Delta y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} l_1 \sin \theta_1 - l \sin(\theta_1 - \theta_2) & l_2 \sin(\theta_1 - \theta_2) \\ l_1 \cos \theta_1 - l_2 \cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) & l_2 \cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \Delta \theta_1 \\ \Delta \theta_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

A planar wire-driven parallel robot with 2 wires





- the platform has 3 dof:  $x_G, y_G, \theta$
- we control only two joint variables  $\rho_1, \rho_2$



inverse kinematics: if we give  $x_G, y_G, \theta$ , then the wire lengths are easy to calculate



inverse kinematics: if we give  $x_G, y_G, \theta$ , then the wire lengths are easy to calculate

But will the robot moves to the desired position ?



#### direct kinematics:

- we know  $ho_1, 
  ho_2$
- determine  $x_G, y_G, \theta$

direct kinematics:

- we know  $ho_1,
  ho_2$
- determine  $x_G, y_G, \theta$

Equations

•  $||A_iB_i|| = \rho_i$ : 2 equations

2 equations, 3 unknowns, something is missing ...

direct kinematics:

- we know  $ho_1,
  ho_2$
- determine  $x_G, y_G, \theta$

Equations

•  $||A_iB_i|| = \rho_i$ : 2 equations

mechanical equilibrium

$$\mathcal{F} = \mathbf{J}^{-\mathbf{T}} \boldsymbol{\tau}$$

3 equations, 2 more unknowns

- p.11/1

direct kinematics:

- 5 unknowns:  $x_G, y_G, \theta, \tau_1, \tau_2$
- 5 equations:  $||A_iB_i|| = \rho_i, \mathcal{F} = \mathbf{J}^{-\mathbf{T}}\tau$

#### direct kinematics:

- 5 unknowns:  $x_G, y_G, \theta, \tau_1, \tau_2$
- 5 equations:  $||A_iB_i|| = \rho_i, \mathcal{F} = \mathbf{J}^{-\mathbf{T}}\tau$

#### Result

- there cannot be more than 24 solutions
- these solutions may be obtained by solving two 12-th order univariate polynomial
- up to now only examples with 8 solutions have been found



#### Conclusions



#### Conclusions

Robotics is very multidisciplinary field that involves numerous other scientifi domains:

- mechanism science
- sensors and actuators
- electronic
- computer science
- mathematics: system solving, geometry
- control theory

We hope you will enjoy this module!