A.S.R. The Autonomous Sentry Robot

Department of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science
University of Central Florida
Summer 2015
Senior Design II
Group #9

Project Sponsored By Boeing

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1. Executive Summary

Robots are becoming more prevalent in the world. They are no longer seen just in movies. They are being used for industrial purposes, and research projects. Robots can be found being used by the military and police departments as drones for aerial surveillance or Explosive Ordnance Disposal. Robots are now found in the home as toys, such as the MIP or Sphero, and cleaning assistants like the iRobot Roomba vacuum cleaner. They can be found in hospitals, being used for surgery. Robots are being developed in labs that can map and localize themselves. Most of the robots mentioned are teleoperated by humans, or perform simple, repetitive tasks. There is an area which seems to not be well covered in consumer robotics. The area is land based, autonomous surveillance robots that implement mapping and localization. The goal of this project is to create a robot that does this.

The Autonomous Sentry Robot is an automated home surveillance system with mapping and motion detection capabilities, powered by ROS and OpenCV. The ASR utilizes a kinect for it's depth sensor and webcam, two ultrasonic sensors and four tactile sensors for it's reactive navigation system, and a laptop which acts as a server. The user is alerted through an email containing the time-stamped frame where motion occurred.

2. Project Description

In this section, we will provide an overview of the project. We will give details for our motivation for the project as well as goals and specifications that is should obtain.

2.1 Motivation

The motivation of this project is to expand our knowledge of robotics and computer vision. Our group consists of two students studying electrical engineering and one studying computer engineering. We knew that we wanted to do a robotics project, one that had both hardware and software components. We did not want to solely design a teleoperated robot, we wanted one that would be autonomous. We also wanted to build a platform that could be useful as a product, one that had not been widely seen.

We wanted to work on a project that combined our experience in the two fields. For the electrical engineering students, we wanted to learn how to design and build electrical subsystems for the project, such as the power distribution board and charging station. We also wanted to increase our knowledge of embedded systems programming, since we will be using microprocessors to interface with the motors, sensors, and the computer. The computer engineering student wanted to increase his knowledge and skills in computer vision, robotics programming, and software engineering.

2.2 Objectives and Goals

The main goal for the project is to create a robot can autonomously map and navigate enclosed areas. The robot will be able to map an unknown room and localize itself on the map. It will also be able to determine if motion has occurred in the room. Once the motion is detected, it will alert the user. The user can then assume control of the robot or take other action. The project has the following main objectives to help with these goals: Autonomous Control, Mapping and Localization, Object Avoidance, Motion Detection, and Remote Control.

A main objective for this project is Autonomous Control. The robot must be able to perform its tasks without user control. It must implement Mapping and Localization, Motion Detection, and Object Avoidance. It must map the enclosed area and localize itself in that area, while avoiding any obstacles in its way. It must be able to detect motion, like humans entering the room, and alert the user when motion is found. The alert can include an image, or video, of what the robot discovered.

Another main objective is Remote Control. Once motion is detected, the user will be alerted and be given the option to take control of the robot. The user will be able to control the robot on a computer, and if we have time, via a phone app.

2.3 Requirements and Specifications

The basic requirements and specifications for the project will be listed below. The requirements and specifications will be our guide to successfully achieving the goals and objectives stated in the previous section. The requirements and specifications will be split into several categories. The categories are: Form Factor (Section 2.3.1), Sensors (Section 2.3.2), Power (Section 2.3.3), and Processing (Section 2.3.4).

2.3.1 Form Factor

Table 2.3.1, shown below, lists the requirements for the ASR's form factor.

Requirement ID	Requirement Description
FF1	The chassis must be low profile, no more than 1ft high, and 1.5ft wide.

Table 2.3.1: Form Factor requirement

2.3.2 Sensors

Table 2.3.2, shown below, lists the requirements for the ASR's sensors.

Requirement ID	Requirement Description
S1	The robot's sensors must be able to detect obstacles that are 2cm away.

Table 2.3.2: Sensors requirement

2.3.3 Power

Table 2.3.3, shown below, lists the requirements for the ASR's power.

Requirement ID	Requirement Description
PW1	The robot must be able to operate for at least 2 hours on a full charge.

Table 2.3.1: Power requirement

2.3.4 Processing

Table 2.3.4, shown below, lists the requirements for the ASR's processing.

Requirement ID	Requirement Description
P1	The robot must reliably operate, react, and make decisions within 1-3 seconds.
P2	The robot must have 75% certainty of detections before alerting its user.
P3	The user must receive alert notifications from ASR within 5 seconds of detection.

Table 2.3.1: Processing requirement

3. Research

Research was divided among group members by our own sense of individual expertise and interest. Our EEs investigated primarily the hardware systems of our robot, while our CpE investigated the software systems.

3.1 Similar Projects

We have found several similar projects to ours. There have been several robotics projects that have covered a few of the goals we plan to achieve. There are some that

cover several to all of the goals we plan to achieve. Some of the projects are autonomous, some are manually controlled. Some do mapping and localization, some only do object detection and tracking. While we have ideas on how to obtain our goals, we have looked to these projects for insight on how to help achieve them.

3.1.1 T-100 Watchdog

The T-100 Watchdog, shown in Fig. 3.1.1, is a University of Central Florida (UCF) Senior Design project from 2014. The project was the work of Ismael Rivera, Journey Sumlar, Chris Carmichael, and Warayut Techarutchatano. The T-100 Watchdog is a home security robot. The group designed a robotic system that could detect and track targets. One of the goals of the project was to use OpenCV algorithms and a thermal camera to detect movement and then track a specific target. As the vehicle tracks and moves towards the targets, it autonomously maneuvers across a room while avoiding obstacles that might be in its way.

The Watchdog also has a webcam to relay images and video to the user via a wireless communication system. The user can take control of the robot via a mobile application. While this project has many similar goals to ours, like autonomous control, obstacle avoidance, target detection and tracking using OpenCV, wireless communication, and user alert and control, it does not share one of our main goals, mapping and localization. Another difference is that the Watchdog only reacts to movement, where our robot would actively patrol rooms.

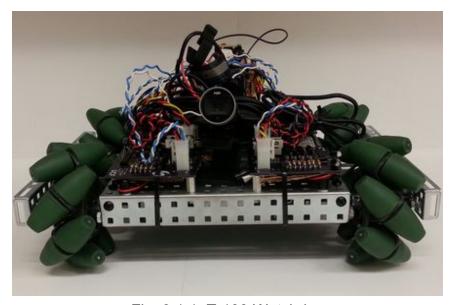


Fig. 3.1.1: T-100 Watchdog (Reprinted with Permission from Ismael Rivera)

3.1.2 KnightCop

KnightCop, shown in Fig.3.1.2, is another UCF Senior Design project, from 2013. It was the work of Elean Atencio and Nitin Kundra. KnightCop was meant to be a tool for law enforcement to use in life threatening scenarios. It is equipped with a video camera, temperature sensors, ambient light sensors, lights, proximity sensors, which will give the user feedback, and a robotic arm that will allow the user to interact with the environment. The proximity sensors are used to add some autonomous functionality, while the robot is mainly teleoperated. Teleoperation is done over Wi-Fi. While this project seems similar to ours, it is not. Its meant to be controlled mainly by a user, allowing them access to life threatening environments while allowing to manipulate their surroundings with the robotic arm. It does not autonomously patrol and map its surroundings, which is the focus of our project.



Fig.3.1.2: KnightCop (Reprinted with Permission from Wesley Edmund)

3.1.3 RHINO

RHINO, shown in Fig.3.1.3, was the University of Bonn's entry to the 1994 AAAI, Association for the Advancement of Artificial Intelligence, Robotic Competition and Exhibition. RHINO was based on the B21 mobile robot platform from Real World Interface Inc. It is equipped with a sonar ring and a camera system for sensors. For processing, it had two onboard i486 computers and communicated with two SUN Sparcstations via tetherless Ethernet link. RHINO was a fully autonomous robot, with a neural network learning to adapt to "its sensors and the environment." [1].

The key features of RHINO's control software are Autonomy, Learning, Real-time operation, and Reactive control and deliberation. Rhino was designed to operate completely autonomously and used a neural network to interpret sonar data. It could act in real-time continuously with anytime algorithms to make decisions. During navigation, it would use a reactive obstacle avoidance algorithm with "knowledge- and computation intense map building and planning algorithms."[1] Our project will share some of the same features, but it will not incorporate any learning for interpretation. We plan on

using sensor data to reactively avoid obstacles, and a control algorithm to determine how it should do so.



Fig. 3.1.3: Rhino [1]

3.1.4 Minerva

Minerva, shown in Fig.3.1.4 (a) and (b), was an interactive tour-guide for the Smithsonian Museum for two weeks. It was designed by the same team as RHINO. It goes beyond RHINO's key features in several ways. Minerva had the ability to learn maps. For localization, it used ceiling mosaics. Its path planner took uncertainty into account, so it would avoid featureless spaces. Robotic Programming language, RPL, was used for high level control. According to Thrun et al., RPL used learning for creating tours "on-the-fly, and execution monitoring to accommodate exceptions." [2]

Minerva has able to interact with people using "emotional" states and used learning to develop its interactions. Minerva could use facial expression to convey "emotions." Fig. 3.1.4(b) Is a closer view of its face. Minerva was designed for face to face human interaction, while our project will have comparatively minimal human interaction, via an app. Our project will also use mapping and localization, while Minerva could compare what its camera saw to a stored map for localization, we will be using a SLAM, Simultaneous Localization and Mapping, algorithm to map and determine the robot's position.

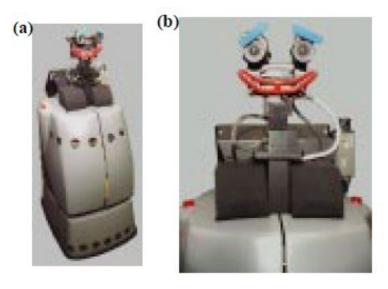


Fig. 3.1.4: (a) Minerva. (b) Minerva's Face [2]

3.1.5 Heatseekr

Heatseeker, shown in fig. 3.1.5, is another UCF Senior Design project, from 2013. It was the design of Matt Erdelac, Erik Ferreira, Armin Sadri, and Bernadeau Charles. They designed Heatseekr to be an autonomous robot that detects and extinguishes fire. It uses ultraviolet radiation detectors to detect fires. Once a fire was detected by an ultraviolet sensor in a room, Heatseekr would respond to it. The fire sensors alert the robot as to which room it needs to find. Heatseekr has the ability to put out a small fire with an onboard tank of water and water pump. While it is an autonomous robot, it navigates by a line following algorithm following tracks and reading addresses printed next to the tracks. Heatseekr's autonomous movement is reliant on tracks and printed addresses for localization, it does not keep track of its location or map its surroundings. Our Autonomous Sentry Robot does both of these things in both its autonomous and teleoperated modes.



Fig. 3.1.5: Heatseekr (Permission pending)

3.2 Autonomous Vehicles

Autonomous vehicles are one kind of robotic system. They are robotic systems that can move themselves without human input. A robotic system consists of three components: Perception, Cognition, and Action. For an autonomous vehicle, its sensors would be used for perception. Cognition is the part where the robot takes the information that is has perceived and uses it to create maps, determines its location, and decides on how to act. Action is the component where the robot manipulates its environment, moves, and/or navigates. There are different robotic architectures that can be used for cognition or control. Robotic architecture "provides a principled way of organizing a control system. However, in addition to providing structure, it imposes constraints on the way the control problem can be solved."[3] The three main robotic architectures are deliberative control architecture, reactive control architecture, and hybrid control architecture. In deliberative control, a robot builds a model of the world, deliberates over the model, and then acts on it.

In other words, the robot senses, use that data with a planner, and then acts based on what the planner has determined. For reactive control, the robot simply senses and then acts or reacts. It has no maps or states. Its behavior is based on what it senses. If its design is to wander and it senses an obstacle, it will move to avoid the obstacle. However, it does not keep track of previous states, so it will not "remember" where the obstacle was. Hybrid control, also called three-tiered architecture, is a combination of deliberative and reactive. This also a robot to have a model of the world, remember previous states, and quickly react to sensor data. For example, a robot that has been programmed to map an area can map it while quickly reacting to any obstacles that may be in its way. This architecture is by most real world robotic systems and will be the architecture that will be used in our project.

3.3 SLAM

SLAM (Simultaneous Localization and Mapping) is the basis of our project. We seek to make a robot which can be released into a room, and without any outside knowledge, navigate and output a map of that room. After this first stage, the robot will enter its second stage, patrol mode, where it uses the map to plan a path through the room and watch for unexpected stimuli. SLAM is not so much an algorithm as it is a concept, there are no SLAM algorithms, but rather implementations of the concept. The only input from SLAM is from sensors, like Lidar or a Kinect point cloud, to measure distance of the robot relative to other objects. From this the robot will create a map (mapping), and determine its "pose" within the environment (localization). For the purposes of our project we do not seek to reinvent the wheel. This is not a project about inventing a new SLAM algorithm. Rather, we would like to utilize existing libraries to implement SLAM on our robot. There are many open source options available, and we should theoretically be able to tweak them to our needs.

For our SLAM implementation we are most interested in using a Kinect sensor. The reason for this is because not only do we want to map and navigate, but we would also like to detect motion, and possibly, humans from the camera feed. The Kinect is an RGBD camera capable of both of these, where depth is measured via a 3D point cloud. Our idea right now is to take a horizontal slice of this point cloud to get something like a Lidar scan. Depending on how things go during the development phase, we may end up just using a Lidar. Because of this, we have focused our research on SLAM implementations that use Kinect or Lidar. OpenSLAM.com provides descriptions, documentation, and repositories for various SLAM algorithms, some of which have actually been integrated into ROS. The following examples are from OpenSLAM. It's hard to say what will be most useful until we start digging into the code, but based on the documentation these seem like good candidates to work with and focus on. We will most likely implement some combination of the three, or simply use them as models for our own approach.

3.3.1 RGBDSLAM

RGBDSLAM is a graph based approach which generates 3D models of objects and indoor scenes using the Kinect, but hand-held and not on a robot. Therefore, it does not appear to use odometry data to evaluate error. It uses SURF or SIFT to match landmarks, and RANSAC to estimate the transformation between them. The graph is then optimized using HOG-Man. It was developed on Ubuntu with ROS Diamondback. RGBDSLAM is now available as a ROS package, but it does not indicate that it is still being maintained. Figure 3.3.1 below illustrates how RGBDSLAM operates.





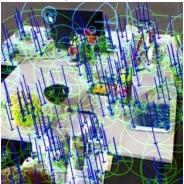


Figure 3.3.1: RGBDSLAM 3D Scan Output (Left), Camera Image (Center), Camera Image with Keypoints Visible (Right)
(Permission Pending)

At a glance from the images, RGBDSLAM is not quite so much a map generator as it is a 3D scanner. Nowhere does the documentation indicate that it cannot be used for mapping however. For our purposes we probably wouldn't use it to map but, rather to learn more about how they used the Kinect as a sensor. Since the code is open source, we may be able to modify or translate it to suit our purposes. Our current plan is to

generate 2D maps, but should we decide to step our approach to modeling the rooms themselves, RGBDSLAM may provide us with the means to do so.

3.3.2 GMapping

GMapping is a Rao-Blackwellized particle filter that generates grid-based maps from laser data, where each particle carries it's own map of the environment. The maps generated are 2D, it utilizes odometry data and requires a mounted laser range-finder. GMapping was developed on Linux with the Carmen Robot Navigation Toolkit. It has already been used to successfully autonomously map old mining tunnels. The full library is available and can be modified, but only in C++. Gmapping is still being maintained and is available as a ROS package. GMapping examples are shown in Figure 3.3.2 below.



Figure 3.3.2: Examples of GMapping Final Map Outputs (Reprinted with Permission from Cyril Stachniss and Wolfram Burgard)

The output of GMapping is much closer to what we imagine for our implementation of SLAM, since we desire 2D maps. None in our group are familiar with C++, so this would ramp our difficulty in terms of working with the code. Since a Lidar was used, we would have to figure out how to slice the point cloud if we decide to try it with a Kinect.

3.3.3 HectorSLAM

HectorSLAM is a 2D grid based approach that can be used with or without odometry data. It uses Lidar to generate maps at a low computational cost. HectorSLAM has already been implemented on several unmanned ground, surface, and quadcopter vehicles. It is still being maintained and is available as a ROS package and coded in C++. Examples of HectorSlam are shown in figure 3.3.3 below.

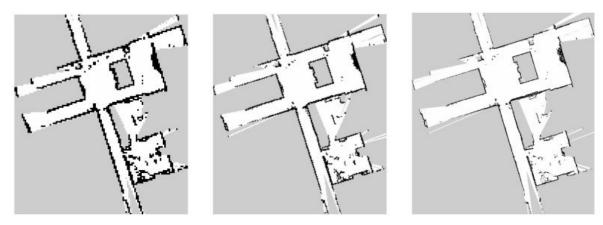


Figure 3.3.3 Examples of HectorSLAM Intermediate and Final Map Outputs (Reprinted with Permission from Stefan Kohlbrecher)

HectorSLAM is much the same as GMapping in terms of output, but interesting because of its computational efficiency. It can generate poses for the robot at the same refresh rate as the Lidar sensor used. Since we are planning to process on the robot, most likely on a Raspberry Pi 2, it would be advantageous for our SLAM approach to be as efficient as possible. This would hopefully also result in lower power consumption.

3.3.4 BreezySLAM

BreezySLAM is self described as a "simple, efficient, multiplatform, and open source Python library" for SLAM. It utilizes C extensions for Python, which allow it to work off of already existing SLAM implementations as a base. It is marketed as being accessible to students for guick and efficient use. BreezySLAM builds 2D maps with a Lidar scanner and has an easy to understand open source API. A paper written by the authors of BreezySLAM indicates that one of it's requirements was that the processing be done via SoC, just like what we require for our ASR. With this requirement, the SLAM implementation they chose to wrap was TinySLAM (aka. CoreSLAM), a SLAM implementation written in 200 lines of C code that is light on memory usage. It provides three Python classes: Robot, which translates odometry to velocity, Laser, which takes in parameters describing the lidar being used, and Odometry, which is measured at each instant. These three classes are the only one's that need to be modified by a coder who wants to use BreezySLAM, as everything else is CoreSLAM wrapped to Python. Everything about BreezySLAM is attractive for our robot. It's light, efficient, meant to be run on a SoC, coded in Python, 2D, open source, and built with accessibility in mind. Examples of maps generated follow below in figure 3.3.4.

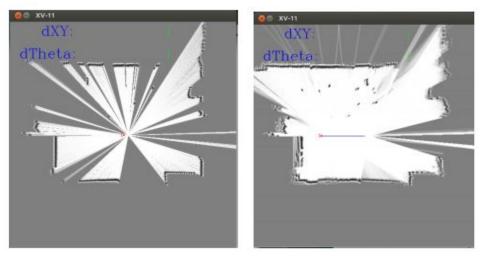


Figure 3.3.4: Examples of BreezySLAM Intermediate Mapping Outputs (Reprinted with Permission from Dr. Simon Levy)

3.4 Sensors

The robot will need a combination of sensors to successfully achieve all of its goals. It will need sensors for obstacle avoidance and collision detection. It will need sensors for implementing SLAM. It will also need a camera to send images and video for when the robot alerts the user. In the next few sections we have listed several sensors that we have considered.

3.4.1 Microsoft Kinect

One of the sensors that is being considered for the vision portion of the project is the Microsoft Kinect. The Kinect was is a motion sensing device designed by Microsoft for their Xbox 360 game console. It allows controllerless control of games via gestures and spoken commands. According to Microsoft, the Kinect has four sensors, as seen below in Fig.3.4.1: a RGB camera, an infrared (IR) emitter and an IR depth sensor, a microphone array, and a 3-axis accelerometer. The Kinect also has a tilt motor. The camera stores three channels of data in a 1280x960 resolution. The IR emitter emits a speckled pattern which the IR depth sensor can sense the reflected beams and convert that into depth information. The microphone is a multi-array microphone that contains four microphones. This array can be used to record audio while also finding the source and direction of the sound. The 3-axis accelerometer can be used to determine the orientation of the Kinect. [5]

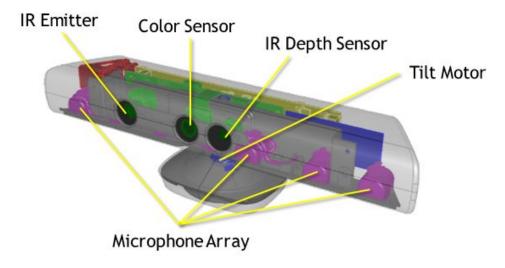


Fig.3.4.1: Microsoft Kinect (Reprinted with Permission from Microsoft)

The Kinect has several components that can be used for SLAM. If we were to use the Kinect, we would be using the camera and the IR emitter and IR depth sensors. If we have time, we might be able to use the microphone array to help determine the location of an intruder. A used Kinect and an adapter can be purchased for less than \$50, making it very economical for all of the features it has.

3.4.2 LIDAR

LIDAR is another technology that is being considered for the mapping and localization portion of our project. LIDAR is a sensing technology that uses a laser(s) to measure ranges. LIDAR stands for Light Detection and Ranging. A LIDAR scanner consists of a laser(s), a sensor(s) to detect the reflected laser beam(s) and one or more motors to move the laser and scanner. A LIDAR system measures the time-of-flight of light to determine distances to objects. LIDAR is used in 2D and 3D mapping. A 2D system will return a discrete line of points of data, while a 3D system will return a discrete point cloud of data. An example of a 3D point cloud can be seen below in Fig.3.4.2.

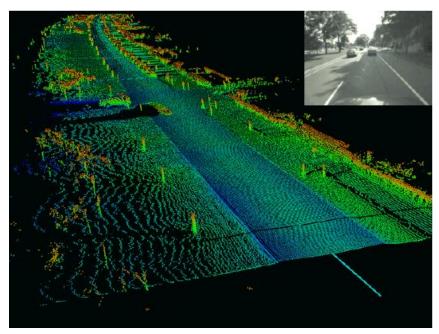


Fig. 3.4.2: Graphical example of a LIDAR point cloud (Permission Pending)

LIDAR is where useful for SLAM and is used by many roboticists. It is very accurate. We would only be using it for 2D mapping. However, LIDAR systems can be very expensive, especially when compared to the Kinect. Systems can range from thousands of dollars to tens of thousands of dollars.

3.4.3 SONAR

SONAR, Sound Navigation And Ranging, is being considered for obstacle avoidance. The SONAR sensors that would be considered are ultrasonic range finder. The sensors emit ultrasonic sound waves and measure the time of flight for the for a returning wave. Some sensors have a range from 2 centimeters to 3 meters. This would work well for obstacle avoidance and mapping small rooms, but not mapping large rooms. To get the best results, the sensor should be perpendicular to a surface or else false readings can occur as shown in Fig.3.4.3 below. To overcome this many robotics projects use multiple sonars and/or a ring of sonars around the robot. There are many ultrasonic distances sensors to choose from. Three have been listed below in Table 3.4.3, along with their specifications.

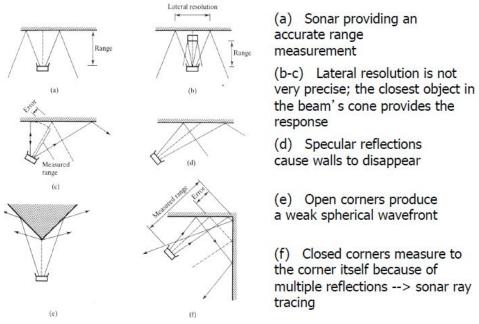


Fig. 3.4.3: Sonar Sensing (Permission Pending)

Sensor	HC-SR04	LV-MaxSonar-EZO	PING))) Ultrasonic Distance Sensor
Working Voltage (V)	5	2.5-5.5	5
Working Current (mA)	15	2	35
Minimum Range (cm)	2	15.2	2
Maximum Range (M)	4	6.45	3
Measuring Angle	15 degree	varies	20 degrees
Price (\$)	8.99/2	27.95	29.99

Table 3.4.3 Ultrasonic Rangefinders and Specifications

The HC-SR04 and PING Ultrasonic Distance Sensor can detect objects as close as 2 cm, while the LV-MaxSonar-EZ0 cannot. However, it can detect objects further than the other two. That would be useful for mapping, but these sensors are not being considered for mapping. The HC-SR04 and PING have comparable specifications, but vary greatly in price. The lower cost, with similar specifications, makes the HC-SR04 the more attractive of the two.

3.4.4 Tactile

Another type of sensor that is being considered for obstacle avoidance are tactile sensors. Tactile, or bump, sensors are useful for detecting objects that the other sensors might miss. They are considered the last resort. Bump sensors are switches, they are activated when they are pressed by running, or bumping, into an object or wall. Since they will be part of the reactive control, as soon as they are activated, the robot will move away from the object.

The VEX chassis kit that is being taken into consideration has some bump switches, seen in Fig. 3.4.4-1 (a), as well as limit switches, seen in Fig. 3.4.4-1 (b), that also can be used to detect bumping into something. SparkFun also has a limit switch, seen in Fig. 3.4.4-2, designed for their RedBot robot. The SparkFun limit switch act like whiskers, and have a longer range on the sides of the robot. If sonar is used for close range obstacle avoidance, the longer whiskers will not be needed. The VEX tactile sensors would make more sense to use. especially if we use the VEX chassis kit which comes with them.

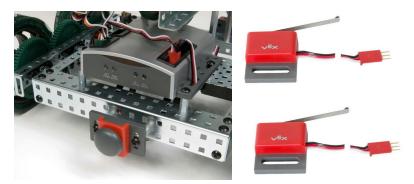


Fig.3.4.4-1: (a) Vex Bumper Sensor and (b) Vex Limit Switch (Reprinted with Permission from Vex)



Fig. 3.4.4-2: SparkFun RedBot with limit switches. (Reprinted with Permission from Sparkfun)

3.4.5 Webcam

Since computer vision is a goal of our project, the robot will need a video camera to supply images for object detection and possibly for mapping. The images and video from the camera must be of a high enough resolution to detect changes in its environment. There are three cameras that we are considering: the Logitech c310 webcam, the Logitech c920 HD webcam, and the webcam from the Microsoft Kinect. We are considering the Logitech c310 webcam since we have one from a previous robotics project. The Logitech c920 is a recommended web camera for robot vision projects from several places on the internet and that is why it is being considered. Since we are considering using a Microsoft Kinect for SLAM, we are considering using its camera to help simplify the design of our robot. We have compared the three in Table 3.4.5.

Camera	Logitech c310	Logitech c920	Microsoft Kinect
Video Resolution	1280x720	1920x1080	1280x960
Photo Resolution	Up to 5 megapixels	Up to 15 megapixels	1.3 megapixels
Price (\$)	49.99	99.99	25.00(used)

Table 3.4.5 Webcam Specifications

The c920 is clearly the best in terms of video resolution and photo resolution, but is the most expensive. The Kinect has a slightly higher video resolution that the c310, but the c310 has better photo resolution. If we were to consider the overall package, including price, the Kinect is the clear winner since it's a more robust sensor than a webcam and it costs less than either of the Logitech cameras.

3.5 Microprocessors

Onboard image processing, mapping, navigation, and programming necessitates something more powerful than a simple microcontroller. A good microprocessor will allow our robot to have a full OS, more RAM, and greater processing power. The increasing popularity of ARM architecture for small electronics makes it the obvious choice to focus on. We already see it's use in phones, tablets, TVs, and countless other applications. There are now several open source single board computers available for less than \$100.00, all compatible with various ARM-based distributions of Linux. Raspberry Pi and BeagleBone products are familiar to the members of our group and are widely documented with tutorials and guides.

3.5.1 Specification Comparison

Since low cost is one of our goals we are interested getting the best processing to price ratio possible. The first board considered is the Raspberry Pi 1 Model B and its information is displayed below in Table 3.5.1a.

Released	February 2012
Price	\$35 USD
os	Linux, RISC OS, FreeBSD, NetBSD, Plan9, Inferno
SoC	Broadcom BCM2835 (CPU, GPU, DSP, SDRAM, 1 USB)
CPU	700 MHz single-core ARM1176JZF-S
GPU	Broadcom Videocore IV 250MHz, OpenGL ES 2.0
RAM	512MB SDRAM
Storage	MicroSDHC
Network	10/100 Mbit/s Ethernet (8P8C)
Video Output	HDMI 640x350 - 1920x1200
USB	4x USB 2.0
Power	5V, 600mA, 3.0 W
Size	85.6mm x 56.5mm
Weight	45g

Table 3.5.1a Raspberry Pi 1 Model B+ Specifications

The Raspberry Pi 1 Model B+ has a new model that was recently released. The Raspberry Pi 2 Model B is an impressive upgrade of the 1 B+ for the exact same price. Its specifications can be seen in Table 3.5.1b below.

Released	February 2015
Price	\$35 USD
os	Linux, Windows 10, RISC OS, FreeBSD, NetBSD, Plan9, Inferno
SoC	Broadcom BCM2836 (CPU, GPU, DSP, SDRAM, 1 USB)
CPU	900 MHz quad-core ARM Cortex-A7
GPU	Broadcom Videocore IV 250MHz, OpenGL ES 2.0
RAM	1GB SDRAM
Storage	MicroSDHC
Network	10/100 Mbit/s Ethernet (8P8C)
Video Output	HDMI 640x350 - 1920x1200
USB	4x USB 2.0
Power	5V, 800mA, 4.0 W
Size	85.6mm x 56.5mm
Weight	45g

Table 3.5.1b Raspberry Pi 2 Model B Specifications

A popular competitor to the Raspberry Pi is the BeagleBlone, which we will examine next. The specifications of the BeagleBone can be seen in Table 3.5.1c below.

Released	October 2011
os	Linux
SoC	AM3358/9 (CPU, GPU, DSP)
СРИ	720Mhz Cortex-A8 + 2xPRU(200Mhz)
GPU	200Mhz PowerVR SGX53
RAM	256MB DDR2
Storage	MicroSD
Network	MII Based "Fast Ethernet" 100Mbit/s
Video Output	None, must be peripheral
USB	1x Standard, 1x Mini
Power	5V, 300-500mA, 1.5-2.5W

Table 3.5.1c BeagleBone Specifications

The BeagleBone Black is a newer version of the BeagleBone with overall better specifications. The BeagleBone Black will be examined next in Table 3.5.1d.

Released	April 2013			
os	Linux			
SoC	AM3358/9 (CPU, GPU, DSP)			
CPU	1000Mhz Cortex-A8 + 2xPRU(200Mhz)			
GPU	200Mhz PowerVR SGX53			
RAM	512MB DDR3			
Storage	MicroSD			
Network	MII Based "Fast Ethernet" 100Mbit/s			
Video Output	MicroHDMI			
USB	1x Standard, 1x Mini			
Power	5V, 210-460mA, 1.05-2.3W			
Size	86.4mm x 53.3mm			
Weight	39.68g			

Table 3.5.1d BeagleBone Black Specifications

3.5.2 Benchmarks

After researching benchmarks for our boards of interest, some very clear results emerged. One enthusiast, David Hunt ran four sysbench tests on five boards, three of which we are interested in. He covers the Raspberry Pi 1 B+, Raspberry Pi2 B, BeagleBone Black, Intel Edison, and Imagination MIPS Creator C120. The first figure shows the specs for each of these microprocessors. Figure 3.5.2a shows the specifications for various microprocessors below.

	Pi 1 B+	Pi 2 B	BBB	Edison	CI20
CPU	Arm11	Cortex A7	Cortex A8	Atom + Quark	MIPS
Cores	1	4	1	2+1	2
Clock	700MHz	900MHz	1000MHz	500MHz	1200MHz
GPU	Videocore IV	Videocore IV	PowerVR SGX530	None	PowerVR SGX540
Memory	512MB	1GB	512MB	1GB	1GB
USB Ports	4	4	2	1*	2
Flash	None	None	2GB	4GB	8GB
Storage	microSD	microSD	microSD	microSD*	SD
Network	10/100	10/100	10/100	None	10/100
GPIO	40-pin	40-pin	2x46-pin	70-pin Hirose	40-pin
Wifi	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
Bluetooth	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
RRP	\$35	\$35	\$49	\$85*	\$65

Figure 3.5.2a: Table of Specs for Various Microprocessors (Reprinted with Permission from David Hunt)

The following images shown in in figures 3.5.2b-3.5.2e are benchmark tests were performed across all of the microprocessors in the above figure. A discussion of the results will follow.

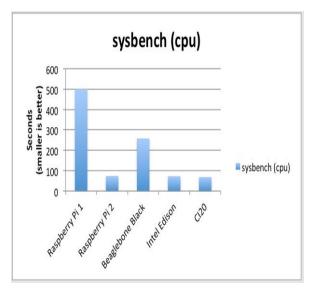
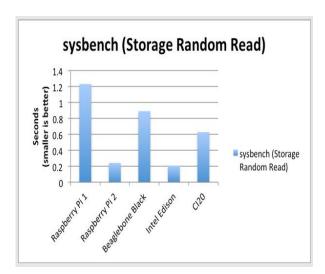


Figure 3.5.5b: Sysbench CPU

Benchmark
(Reprinted with Permission from David

Hunt)



3.5.5d: Sysbench Random Read
Benchmark
(Reprinted with Permission from David
Hunt)

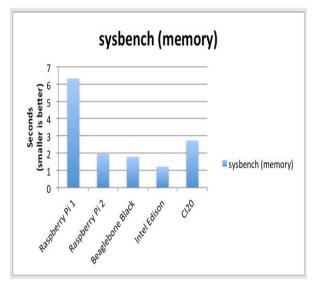
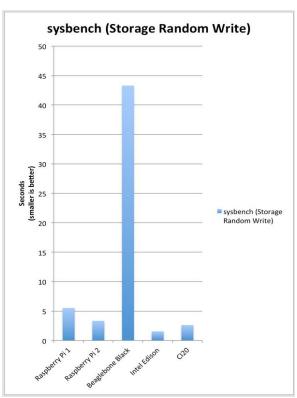


Figure 3.5.5c: Sysbench Memory
Benchmark
(Reprinted with Permission from David
Hunt)



3.5.5e: Sysbench Random Write Benchmark (Reprinted with Permission from David Hunt)

The results indicate that the Edison performs best, but only slightly better than the Raspberry Pi 2 overall. Our most important metric is CPU performance, and for these they are nearly identical. Reading and writing from memory are slightly less important to us, but we may be accessing memory often as we update our map and localize our bot within it, so it is important to consider. The BeagleBone Black's performance in random memory read and write is quite poor, but we're not sure how this differs from the normal memory test, where the BeagleBone Black performs on par with the Pi 2 and Edison.

The clear winner for us is the Raspberry PI 2 B because it performs nearly as well as the Edison, which costs twice as much. The Pi 2 B far outperforms the Pi 1 B+ in every test, but costs the same amount. The BeagleBone Black performs less than half as well in all but the memory test, in comparison to the Pi 2 B, but costs more. What further makes the Pi 2 B attractive is the fact that it has twice as much RAM as the BeagleBone Black, and 4 cores. If we are able to optimize our SLAM algorithm for parallel processing we could potentially gain a performance boost.

3.6 Microcontrollers

Our robot will be using a microcontroller to interface with the sensors, motors, and the microprocessor. One of its functions will be to use sensor data and react to obstacles by avoiding them. The other function is to send/receive sensor data to/from the microprocessor. It will use the data received from the microprocessor to move the motors. Due to the popularity of Arduino, and the are lots of resources and libraries to use. Arduino also has a simple programming environment. That is why we are considering the ATmega328P and ATmege2560. both with an Arduino bootloader. We have shown in the figures and tables below the pinouts for each chip, along with some specifications, compiled from each of the microcontrollers' datasheets [4], that we used to consider for the design of our robot.

3.6.1 ATmega328P vs. ATmega2560

Appendix C: Fig.3.6-1: ATmega328 (with Arduino bootloader) Pinout

Appendix C: Figure 3.6-2: ATmega2560 Pinout

As seen in the table below, the ATMega328P has a faster clock frequency, but less Program Memory, less RAM, less I/O pins, and less USARTs/SPIs. They both have the same maximum operating voltage, 5.5 Volts. According to the Atmel datasheets for each microcontroller, they both have a maximum throughput of 1 million instructions per second per MHz. For our robot, the ATmega328P will be the microcontroller. It has more than enough I/O pins than we need. It runs faster than the ATmega2560, and will not need the larger memory of the ATmega2560. Since we are counting on the microcontroller to control the robot's reactive architecture, using a faster processor

should help the robot react to sensor data more quickly. Table 3.6-1 below illustrates the difference between the two microcontrollers.

Microcontroller	ATmega328	ATmega2560
Architecture (bits)	8	8
Frequency (MHz)	20	16
Max Operating Voltage (V)	5.5	5.5
Program Memory (KB)	32	256
RAM (KB)	2	8
USART/SPI	1/1	2/4
I2C	1	1
I/O Pins	23	86
Analog to Digital Convertors	8 ch, 10-bit	16 channels, 10-bit

Table 3.6-1 - ATmega328P Specifications

3.7 Operating Systems

Our choice of operating system is most directly affected by our choice of microprocessor. Since we opted for the Raspberry Pi 2, we have a wide variety of choices at our disposal. The Raspberry Pi 1 is a popular platform, and many ARM distributions of linux have been made to work with it, some even made specifically for it. The Raspberry Pi 2 is still very new, so not all of these distributions have been ported over to work with the new SoC in the Pi 2. There are however, still several linux options available. Even Microsoft has pledged to make a Pi 2 compatible version of Windows 10, however it is still in development. The linux distributions currently available are Raspian, OpenELEC, OSMC, Snappy Ubuntu Core, and Debian. OpenELEC and OSMC are for creating media centers, so we won't be interested in them for this project. Raspbian, Debian, and Snappy Ubuntu Core are the only feasible options for the requirements of this project. Raspbian is our distribution of choice, and while not technically an operating system, ROS will also be explored as a robotics framework for our project,

3.7.1 Raspbian

Due to the fact that we desire ease of programming, and maximum compatibility, we are interested primarily in Raspbian. Raspbian is a free, unofficial port of Debian Wheezy for ARM, optimized for use with Raspberry Pi 1 and 2 hardware. Both Raspbian and Debian are recognized for their stability by the Raspberry Pi and Linux community, and is recommended by the Raspberry Pi Foundation. After trying it out ourselves we found it to be very responsive and extremely easy to set up. It comes with around 35,000 packages by default, with most of the basic functionality one would expect from a normal Linux distribution.

3.7.2 **ROS**

From the ROS website: "ROS is an open source, meta-operating system for your robot. It provides the services you would expect from an operating system, including hardware abstraction, low-level device control, implementation of commonly-used functionality, message-passing between processes, and package management. It also provides tools and libraries for obtaining, building, writing, and running code across multiple computers. ROS is similar in some respects to 'robot frameworks'...". ROS distributes processes across "nodes" which represent different functionality for a robot. The benefit of this is that we can simultaneously code, test, and implement different parts of our robot's core functionality without worrying about collisions with other functions.

We will also be able to take advantage of ROS's vast library of robotics functions for anything from mapping to locomotion. Because ROS is open source we can also work with the code directly and make modifications to suit our own needs. SLAM is a very difficult problem to solve, and probably out of our scope to code up from scratch. ROS has multiple implementations of SLAM using different sensors and algorithms, so having these at our disposal makes ROS a very attractive option. Additionally, ROS is compatible with Python, which is our desired programming language.

3.8 Memory

Memory will be a necessary addition to the microprocessor we choose. While they all have RAM, most have no on-board memory for storing an OS or software that might be used, but they do have MicroSDHC slots. The external memory card of our robot is important because it constrains the size of our OS, libraries we may import, drivers for other hardware, stored navigation or mapping data, and any other software we may implement. In addition to that, the read and write speeds need to be sufficient so that accessing memory isn't too costly. There are a plethora of affordable high quality SD cards available, and so we won't worry too much about the individual sizes of OS installations or packages. Most ARM OS distributions recommend at least a 2GB SD card, so this will be at least our minimum. We will aim for more memory than we could hope to use, and instead focus on quality, cost, and transfer speed. Since read/write speed is important we will only be interested in speed class 10 (greater than or equal to 10 MB/s), or UHS MicroSDHCs. We will narrow our focus to two brands, Sandisk and Samsung, this choice is mostly arbitrary, but they are popular brands and known for their reliability. Figure 3.8a below displays the comparison of SDHC cards.

Brand and Model	MicroSDHC Card (Model No.)	Max Transfer Speed (MB/s)	Size (GBs)	Cost (USD)
Samsung Evo	MB-MP32DA/AM	48	16, 32, 64	11, 17, 33
Samsung Pro	MB-MG32DA/AM	90	16, 32, 64	19, 28, 55
Sandisk Ultra	SDSDQUAN-032G-G4A	48	8, 16, 32, 64	7, 12, 16, 33
Sandisk Extreme	SDSDQXN-032G-G46A	60	16, 32, 64	15, 23, 45

Figure 3.8a: Comparison of SDHC Cards

The transfer speeds above represents the maximum capabilities of the card, however there are other factors which constrain and bottleneck our speed. The microprocessor itself will throttle this speed. Benchmarks on a variety of different microSDHC cards have already been performed on the Raspberry Pi and Pi 2. Since we are already certain we'll be using the Pi 2, and since the Pi 1 and 2 have a similar design, we'll assume that these would be at least approximate for the Pi 2 as well. The following benchmarks are from crowdsourced data. We will only be interested in cards similar to or matching those listed above, and if available, tested on the Raspbian Linux distribution. Figure 3.8b below illustrates the difference between memory cards.

MicroSDHC Card	Read (MB/s)	Write (MB/s)	Distro	Kernel	Notes
Samsung microSDHC 16GB Class 10 (MB-MP16DA/ AM)	17.33	13.1	Raspbian OS from NOOBS v1.4.0	Linux raspberrypi 3.18.7-v7+ #755 SMP PREEMPT Thu Feb 12 17:20:48 GMT 2015 armv7l GNU/Linux	Tested on Pi 2 Model B by FastEddie 19 Mar 2015; More Details
Samsung PRO microSDHC 16GB Class 10 (MB-MGAGB)	17.5	11.3	Debian Wheezy "Raspbian"	Linux raspberrypi 3.12.35+ #730 PREEMPT Fri Dec 19 18:31:24 GMT 2014 armv6l GNU/Linux	Model B+
SanDisk Ultra microSDHC 32GB class 10 "48MB/s" (SDSDQUAN- 032G-C4A)	18.9	16.73	Debian Wheezy "Raspbian"	Linux raspberrypi 3.18.5+ #744 PREEMPT Fri Jan 30 18:19:07 GMT 2015 armv6l GNU/Linux	Raspberry Pi B, 2015-02-12
SanDisk Extreme 16GB UHS-I/U3 Micro SDHC Memory Card Up to 60MB/s Read with Adapter- SDSDQXN-01 6G-G46A	19.8	24.7	OSMC Alpha 4	Linux osmc 3.18.5-v7+ #225 SMP PREEMPT Fri Jan 30 18:53:55 GMT 2015 armv7l GNU/Linux	Raspberry Pi 2

Figure 3.8b: Crowdsourced Raspberry Pi Read/Write Speed Benchmarks with Different Memory Cards

Beyond what is listed here, across all cards tested, the read and write speeds seem to range from 2.5MB/s to 24.7MB/s. From this, we can assume that regardless of the card used, we will never achieve much better than 24.7MB/s. Immediately we can see that even though the stated transfer speed of all these cards is well beyond 20MB/s, we're getting less than that in all but the SanDisk Extreme. SanDisk seems to have clear the edge as far as write speed goes, but is only slightly better in terms of read speed. In terms of cost at comparable maximum transfer speeds, all cards are nearly the same,

but when we take into practical transfer speed, SanDisk has far better speed per cost. This data isn't 100% reliable in that it is user reported, and all on separate models of the Pi 1 and 2. The SanDisk Extreme test was also also not run on Raspbian Linux. These numbers are more to give an approximation, or get a general idea of how the different cards might perform in practice. We will end up going with one of SanDisk cards listed, probably between 16 or 32 GBs so that we can have a comfortable buffer for extra data.

3.9 Wireless Connectivity

While our robot may be autonomous in its primary use case, we are also interested in wireless connectivity for the sake of the user assuming manual control, as well as observing various outputs from the robot. There are also practical reasons, such as remote programming during development. To establish wireless connectivity is as simple as buying a wireless USB adapter, also known as a NIC (network interface card), however there are important considerations, such as data rate, frequency band, range, cost, security, and compatibility. The below table has three options. We will compare the merits of each and consider which device best fits our needs. Operating system and architecture compatibility is not considered because all three options are known to be compatible with Linux, specifically Raspbian on the Raspberry Pi. The differences between NICs is shown in Figure 3.9 below.

NIC	Max Data Rate	Frequency	Security	Cost
PAUO5	300Mbps 802.11n	2.4GHz	64b/128bit WEP, WPA and WPA2 (TKIP+AES)	\$16
PAUO6	300Mbps 802.11n + 5dBi antenna	2.4Ghz	64b/128bit WEP, WPA and WPA2 (TKIP+AES)	\$20
EW-7811Un	150Mbps 802.11n	2.4Ghz	64/128bit WEP Encryption and WPA-PSK, WPA2-PSK security; WPS	\$10

Figure 3.9: Comparison of NICs

Everything is fairly standardized across these NICs, differing only in cost and data rate. The cost difference is so small, it needn't factor heavily into our decision. All are 802.11n compliant, which means they are backward compatible with older routers. No specific range could be found, but the additional antenna of the PAUO6 is a nice bonus. Since our focus is on a single room, wireless range shouldn't be that big of an issue, assuming the router is local to the room. If we factor in the situation that the router is

located a great distance away, it would be wise to choose a NIC with an antenna, or buy one separately.

3.10 Movement

The style of movement for the Autonomous Sentry Robot is extremely important. The robot must be able to maneuver around several obstacles in a room that could be in different positions each time they are passed. Paths could be narrower or the robot could encounter obstacles that weren't there before. The robot will need to be able to move around the room efficiently in order to function properly as a sentry vehicle. Our team has researched many different types of drive systems. They include:

- Tank Drive
- Car Steering
- Holonomic Drive Systems

3.10.1 Tank Drive

Tank drive is a very simple drivetrain. From the name it is clear that the system is modeled off of tanks. Tank drive is where the left side of the robot, whether it be individual wheels or wheels attached together by tank tread, moves in the same direction. The same goes for the right side. The robot responds as if there is one moving part on either side to propel it. This drive system has many pros to it. This drive system is very easy to program for simple movement. As there are essentially only two moving parts, the left and right side, motion is controlled by changing the speed and direction of motion for each side. For this system to move forward and backwards, both sides move in the same direction. When the robot wants to turn ninety degrees left or right, the left side moves one way and the right side moves a different way. If the robot needs to either side then the speed can be reduced on one side of the robot to force the robot to slowly turn in that direction.

Although this method is easy to manipulate it doesn't have the best maneuverability. If the robot encounters an unexpected obstacle immediately in front of it, the robot would need to turn ninety degrees left or right to move around it or back up and then turn wasting time and power. In general this method would be hard to make autonomous as homes have narrow hallways and the margin for error when turning is very small. This method works better when under user control as it is intuitive and easy to learn. Figure 3.10.1-1 below illustrates how a tank drive system works. Note that the image is for a two wheel differential drive system. The concept is the same for a multi wheel system as the left side and right side each move as one.

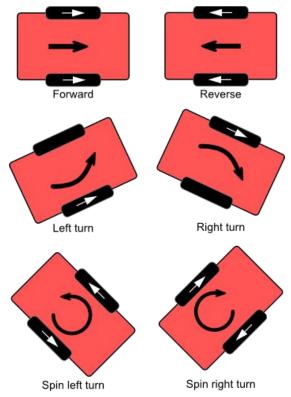


Figure 3.10.1-1: Differential Drive Example (Reprinted with Permission from Robotoid)

3.10.2 Car Steering

Car steering is exactly as it sounds. For most cars, the front two wheels turn and point in the direction the car is trying to go. If the robot needs to turn right, the wheels point diagonally right. If the robot needs to turn left, the wheels point to the left. This drive system is great because it is simple and once again intuitive for when the ASRis under user control. This type of drive system is more suited for turning corners smoothly than a traditional tank drive. If obstacles are never encountered at close range this drive system is incredibly maneuverable. However, it faces a similar drawback if an obstacle is encountered directly in front of the vehicle.

The robot will need to back up, and turn to get around the object as it doesn't have the ability to strafe. There are two ways to create a car steering robot. The first is to have a steering motor attached to each of the front steering wheels. The motors will be attached in a way that causes the wheels to turn. The second way is using a rack and pinion system that physically connects the wheels. A single steering motor would be used to control the rack and pinion and turn the wheels together. This way is much easier to program. An example of the rack and pinion method is shown below in Figure 3.10.2-1. Note that the two methods function identically.

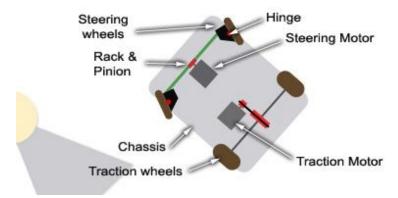


Figure 3.10.2-1: Car Steering (Reprinted with Permission from Ikalogic)

3.10.3 Holonomic Drive Systems

A holonomic drive system is a drive system that can move in any direction at any time. These drivetrains are generally more complicated but their maneuverability is unmatched. With this drive system, strafing becomes available. This means if an object is detected immediately in front of the robot, it can safely slide to the left or the right and continue on its way. There are a few drawbacks to this type of system. The first drawback is that it is complex to create. The system generally requires careful placement and fine tuning to run as expected. The drive system is also heavier due to the more complex components.

The final drawback is it is more difficult to program and control. Being able to move in any direction is great but for the robot to be perfectly efficient its decision making must be very strong. There are two different types of holonomic drive systems our team has considered for the Autonomous Sentry Robot. The first is a swerve drive. A swerve drive works by turning all wheels in the direction that the robot wants to go. This works using steering motors for each of the drive wheels. When the robot needs to move in a different direction the wheels are adjusted accordingly. The drive system is modular and an example of this is in figure 3.10.3-1 below.



Figure 3.10.3-1: Swerve Module (Reprinted with Permission from AndyMark)

For this drive system, each wheel would need to use this module in order for the robot to run properly. This type of system allows for more traction than the others as it uses normal tread wheels to maneuver. However it is generally the most complicated and heaviest of the holonomic drives. As each wheel can spin completely around this drive system requires incredible programming and feedback to ensure no wheels are misaligned. However, if it was fully functional the ASR would be able to surveil and map a home with great speed.

The next type of holonomic drives are based on fixed wheel designs. The wheels themselves are special and that is what allows for the holonomic motion. With these fixed wheel designs, varying which motors are active is how the robot moves. In general, the wheels of the robot fight each other in order to move forwards. The specifics of the wheels themselves will be discussed in the next section. Figure 3.10.3-2 below gives a general idea how a mecanum drive is implemented. Notice how the robot can maneuver in several different directions based on which wheels are active.

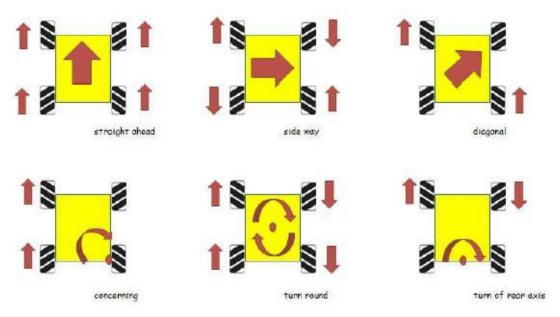


Figure 3.10.3-2: Mecanum Drive (Reprinted with Permission from VEX Robotics)

Figure 3.10.3-3 below is a holonomic drive system that uses omni wheels. This is only one variation as it is possible to use these wheels in many different ways.

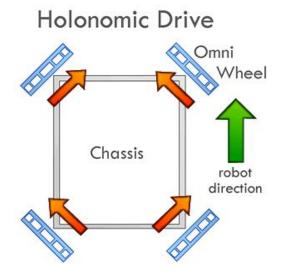


Figure 3.10.3-3: Omni Wheel Drive (Reprinted with Permission from VEX Robotics)

3.10.4 "H" Drive

The "H" drive drivetrain is designed to allow for normal tank drive steering as well as the added bonus of being able to strafe. This is accomplished by using four omni wheels in

place of traction wheels in a tank style setup. Then, a fifth omni wheel is placed in the center creating the "H" drive. This wheel is also powered and its sole purpose it to allow the robot to strafe left and right. This drive system has increased mobility compared to the tank drive without the complexity of a fully holonomic system. The layout of the "H" drive is shown in Figure 3.10.3-10.

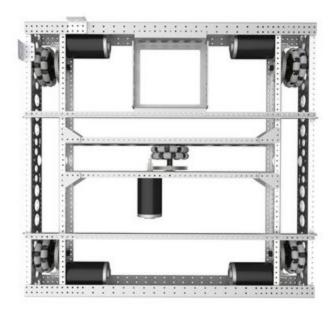


Figure 3.10.3-4: "H" Drive System (Reprinted with Permission from VEX Robotics)

3.11 Wheels

The wheels chosen for a robot are just as important as the drive systems they are implemented in. In this section we will discuss the pros and cons of several wheel types.

3.11.1 Traction Wheels

Traction wheels are your standard wheel for everyday use. They are on cars, trucks, machines, and many other things. Unless used in a swerve drive system, these wheels are not designed to be holonomic. Their purpose in robotics is to reduce slippage. When slippage occurs, the torque from the robot's motors is essentially wasted and the robot becomes less efficient. These wheels are designed to ensure the robot continues to move in the intended direction even at high speeds and in adverse conditions. An example of a traction wheel in consideration for use on the ASR is shown in Figure 3.11.1-1 below.



Figure 3.11.1-1: Traction Wheel (Reprinted with Permission from VEX Robotics)

3.11.2 Tank Treads

Tank treads were designed for a similar purpose as the traction wheels. However they perform much better in adverse conditions. They are designed to get as much of the torque from the motors to the ground as possible. The tread's themselves are used to put as much surface area on the ground as possible to facilitate this. The more contact there is with the ground the more traction the robot has. An example of tank tread can be seen in the photo below.

3.11.3 Mecanum Wheels

Mecanum wheels are designed to allow omni-directional movement. This is done by placing smaller wheels or rollers around the outside of a wheel at forty-five degree angles. These wheels work in a four wheel tank drive system. The wheels are designed to carry a large amount of weight even though they have high mobility. This is helpful in robotics as weight capacity is very important. For the ASR weight capacity is not as important but mobility certainly is. Moving through a room requires a good range of motion that mecanum wheel can provide. Figure 3.11.3-1 below shows mecanum wheels designed by VEX robotics.



Figure 3.11.3-1: VEX Mecanum Wheel (Reprinted with Permission from VEX Robotics)

3.11.4 Omni Wheels

Omni wheels are designed to provide increased mobility much like mecanum wheels. However, these wheels use rollers/smaller wheels at ninety degree angles, instead of forty-five, around the outside of the main wheel hub. This allows them to move forward as normal traction wheels do. These wheels have less friction when turning which allows for greater mobility. They can also be configured to allow the robot to move side to side by placing one or two omni wheels perpendicular to the main drive wheels. The perpendicular wheels would also have drive motors to allow the robot to move left and right. The wheels can also be configured to move in any direction as shown above in section 3.11.3 on holonomic drive systems. The system with the perpendicular wheels would work very well for the ASRas it would be less complicated to program. The robot would also be able to strafe which is incredibly helpful when navigating obstacles. Figure 3.11.4-1 below illustrates an omni wheel that could be used on the ASR.



Figure 3.11.4-1: VEX Omni Wheel (Reprinted with Permission from VEX Robotics)

3.12 Motors

Choosing the proper electric motor for the project is essential. There are many different types of motors available for use. They are broken down into two main categories. They are: DC motors and AC motors.

3.12.1 DC Motors

DC motors are used in many engineering applications. The motors run off of DC voltage. Some of these include textiles, conveyor systems, aircraft, speed control, automobile, marine, and elevators. They allow for incredibly precise control. The precise control leads to most servo motors being DC motors. Control is a very important aspect of the ASR. If the robot is not precisely controlled, navigation of the environment will prove to be incredibly difficult. These motors are also generally smaller than their AC motor counterparts. This makes them ideal for the ASRas space is limited. The main disadvantage for all DC motors is that they are expensive in comparison to their AC counterparts. All DC motors use a mechanical switch or commutator to turn the constant current to alternating current in machines. Therefore, DC machines are also known as commutating machines. Figure 3.12.1 below shows the different types of DC motors available.

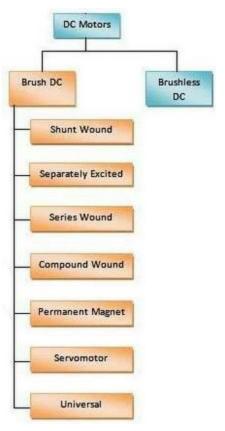


Figure 3.12.1: DC Motor Types (Reprinted with Permission from Electrical-Knowhow)

3.12.1.1 Brush DC

From the image one can see that there are two subcategories of DC motors. The first category is Brush DC motors. A brushed DC motor is commutated internally. They are run using a DC power source. They are very versatile motors with several applications including robotics. These motors are relatively inexpensive making them ideal for our project. They also come in several shapes and sizes which allows for flexibility in the chassis design for the ASR. The motors are also very easy to drive. Figures 3.12.1.1-1 and 3.12.1.1-2 below illustrate the design of a brush DC motor.

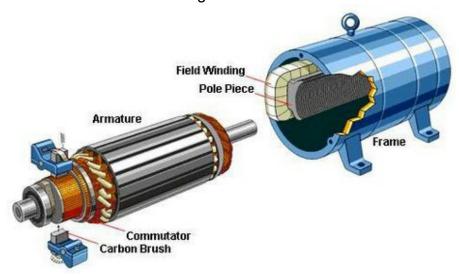


Figure 3.12.1.1-1: Brush DC Motor Internals (Reprinted with Permission from Electrical-Knowhow)

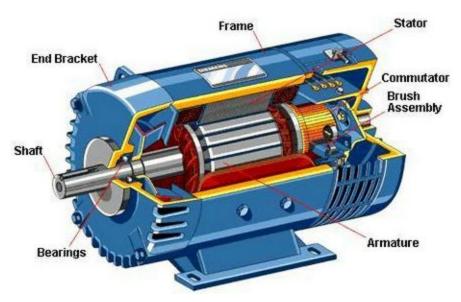


Figure 3.12.1.1-2: Brush DC Motor Assembly (Reprinted with Permission from Electrical-Knowhow)

Brush DC motors do not require controllers to switch the current. Instead, the commutator mechanically switches the current. Carbon brushes move against the commutator to create a dynamic magnetic field[13]. The motion is important as it creates wear on the brushes and the commutator itself. Figure 3.12.1.1-3 below illustrates the operation of the commutator.

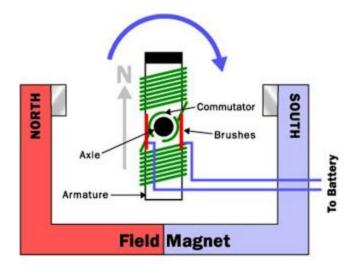


Figure 3.12.1.1-3: Commutator Operation (Reprinted with Permission from Electrical-Knowhow)

Brush DC motors do have some disadvantages. The brushes are needed to connect to the rotor winding. This can lead to brush wear which decreases the use of the robot. This effect is intensified when the motor is in low pressure environments. This means that the ASR would be less effective as altitude increases. The sparks created by DC motors can also be dangerous. If explosive materials are in the area the sparks can ignite causing a possible explosion [13]. This is a factor as many homes use natural gas for cooking, heating, and other applications. A leak could cause major issues if the ASR is roaming the house. The brushes also create RF noise. The noise can interfere with televisions and other electronic devices. For our purpose the RF noise should have no effect as the ASR is meant to patrol the house at night or when no one is home to be watching TV.

There are many types of brush DC motors available. We researched a few of the options to find out what the best possible option was for the ASR. The first is the permanent magnet. These motors have some advantages of the other types. The motors can be smaller because they do not need field windings. As previously stated, smaller motors allow for lighter weight and take up less space. They are also used in low power applications [13]. This means that they do not take as much power to run so the ASR can run longer. There are some disadvantages to these motors though. Excessive heat can demagnetize the permanent magnets. This would cause the motor and the ASR to fail. Excessive heat can be an issue with robotics. If the robot were to get stuck while traversing the environment the motors could continue to run and build up

heat due to the stall. These motors also have another disadvantage as they cannot produce as much torque as some of their counterparts. Less torque means that the robot cannot move as much weight. Figure 3.12.1.1-4 below shows the design of a permanent magnet motor.

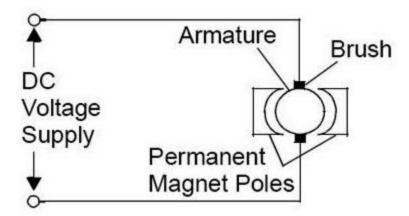


Figure 3.12.1.1-4: Permanent Magnet Motor Design (Reprinted with Permission from Electrical-Knowhow)

The next type of motor we researched are called series-wound motors. These motors are designed for high-torque applications [13]. They are commonly found on cranes, hoists, electric cars and elevators. The advantage to this motor is the high torque. During the research phase we thought about having the ASR be able to carry a load for the user. These motors would have been extremely helpful in increasing the load. However, the motors do not have precise speed control and the speed is limited. Precision is essential in a robot that maps the room making that a very large drawback. The design of a series-wound motor is shown in Figure 3.12.1.1-5 below.

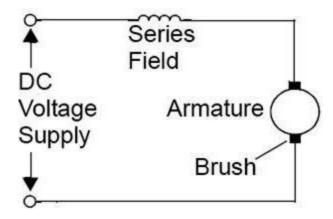


Figure 3.12.1.1-5: Series-Wound Motor Design (Reprinted with Permission from Electrical-Knowhow)

The final type of brushed DC motor we researched are servo motors. Servo motors are a special type of motor that consist of a DC motor, internal position sensor, and a gear system. Servo motors are very good for several reasons. The motors have superior position control when compared to most other motors. Position control is very important for the ASR. Navigation through space can be very difficult. If the motors do not move precisely, the robot could become stuck or crash into an object. Moving into the charging station would also become difficult as the robot must align itself accurately in order to enter the charger.

Servo motors are designed to consistently move to the position the user tells them to go to making environment traversal much easier. Servo motors also have good speed control. They can move very quickly or very slowly. For the ASR this means that the robot can patrol at one speed and dock at another. When under user control the robot can go as fast or slow as the user would like. Finally, servo motors are able to move large loads. They can be configured to have high torque. With a high torque servo motor, the ASR would be able to carry more weight. This would be useful if more sensors or functionality were to be added in future models. Figure 3.12.1.1-6 below illustrates the inner workings of a standard servo motor.

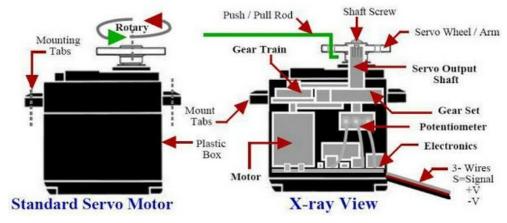


Figure 3.12.1.1-6: Servo Motor Design (Reprinted with Permission from Electrical-Knowhow)

3.12.1.2 Brushless DC

Brushless DC motors have several advantages over their brushed counterparts. These include:

- Higher Efficiency
- Longer Operating Life
- Noiseless Operation
- Higher Speed Capabilities
- Higher Dynamic Response
- Better Torque to Weight Ratio

These characteristics make brushless DC motors ideal for use on the ASR [13]. Efficiency is key as the battery only has so much capacity. Poor efficiency can drain battery power unnecessarily. The ASR is designed to patrol over a long period of time which makes efficiency important. The motors will also last longer as they do not have brushes. The noiseless operation is a nice bonus as well. The objective of the ASR is to patrol an area and alert the owner to any changes or if anyone is in the area that shouldn't be. If the ASR can silently traverse its environment, then it can alert the owner to any suspicious activity without alerting the person in the room. The torque to weight ratio is also a great feature. The motors can move loads that are very heavy even though the motors remain smaller than the brushed DC motors. Figure 3.12.1.2-1 below shows the internal components of brushless DC motors.

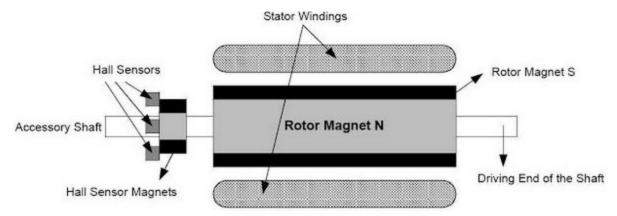


Figure 3.12.1.2-1: Brushless DC Motor Design (Reprinted with Permission from Electrical-Knowhow)

Typical applications for these motors include[13]:

- Constant Load
- Varying Load
- Positioning Applications

The ASR falls in line with these positioning applications. The dynamic speed response being very important in controlling the robot. Figure 3.12.1.2-2 below shows summarizes the differences between brushed and brushless DC motors.

Feature	BLDC Motor	Brushed DC Motor	
Commutation	Electronic commutation based on Hall position sensors.	Brushed commutation.	
Maintenance	Less required due to absence of brushes.	Periodic maintenance is required.	
Life	Longer.	Shorter.	
Speed/Torque Characteristics	Flat – Enables operation at all speeds with rated load.	Moderately flat – At higher speeds, brush friction increases, thus reducing useful torque.	
Efficiency	High – No voltage drop across brushes.	Moderate.	
Output Power/ Frame Size High – Reduced size due to superior thermal characteristics. Because BLDC has the windings on the stator, which is connected to the case, the heat dissipation is better.		Moderate/Low – The heat produced by the armature is dissipated in the air gap, thus increasing the temperature in the air gap and limiting specs on the output power/frame size.	
Rotor Inertia	Low, because it has permanent magnets on the rotor. This improves the dynamic response.	 Higher rotor inertia which limits the dynamic characteristics. 	
peed Range Higher – No mechanical limitation imposed by brushes/commutator.		Lower – Mechanical limitations by the brushes.	
Electric Noise Low. Generation		Arcs in the brushes will generate noise causing EMI in the equipment nearby.	
Cost of Building Higher – Since it has permanent magnets, building costs are higher.		Low	
Control	Complex and expensive.	Simple and inexpensive.	
Control Requirements	A controller is always required to keep the motor running. The same controller can be used for variable speed control.	No controller is required for fixed speed; a controller is required only if variable speed is desired.	

Figure 3.12.1.2-2 BLDC and Brushed DC Comparison (Reprinted with Permission from Electrical-Knowhow)

3.12.2 AC Motors

AC motors run on alternating current as the name suggests. There are three main types of AC motors. These include [13]:

- Induction (asynchronous) Motors
- Synchronous Motors
- Linear Motors

3.12.2.1 Induction Motors

These are the most common motors used in industry. The voltage is induced in the rotor so there are no brushes involved. The motors have many advantages. They are low cost, low maintenance motors. In a robotic system, like the ASR, low maintenance is important. The robot is designed to work without much interaction if that is what the owner desires. The motors are also able to run at a constant speed without much consideration for the load. The motors have a unique ability to run at full speed with a full load or no load [13]. The motors are also very robust.

The ASR will have sensors to avoid obstacles but collisions will most likely still occur. Robustness is an important quality in motor selection. The motors also create no sparks as they have no brushes. This means they can be used safely in a hazardous environment. Figure 3.12.2.1-1 below shows the many different types of induction motors available today.

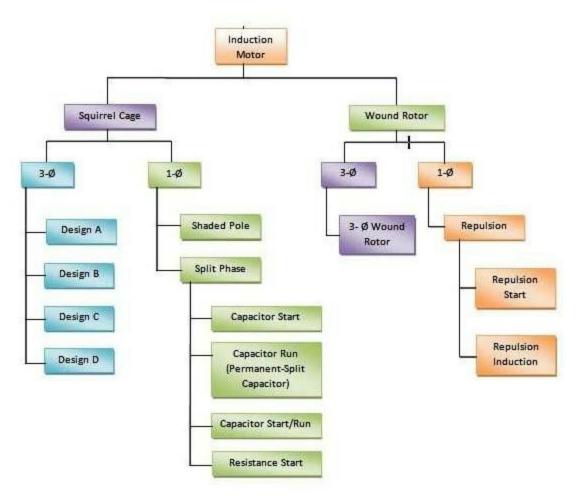


Figure 3.12.2.1-1: AC Motor Types (Reprinted with Permission from Electrical-Knowhow)

Induction motors have major drawbacks. It is very difficult to have variable speed control. They require a complicated variable frequency power-electronic drive to have optimal speed control. They also have power lag issues. These issues would be detrimental to the ASR. Variable and precise speed control is necessary when traversing the environment.

3.12.2.2 Synchronous Motors

In synchronous motors, the rotor tries to line up with the magnetic field in the stator. The motor runs at a constant speed caused by the frequency of the system. These motors

require a direct current for excitation. There are many advantages to synchronous motors. Synchronous motors are designed to improve the power factor of a system. This helps to stabilize the systems voltage[13]. The motors run at the same speed no matter what load is applied. The ASR would be able to carry any load and continue to operate full if these motors were in use. Many of the synchronous motors are "DC excited" Figure 3.12.2.2-1 below shows the operation of the DC excited synchronous motor.

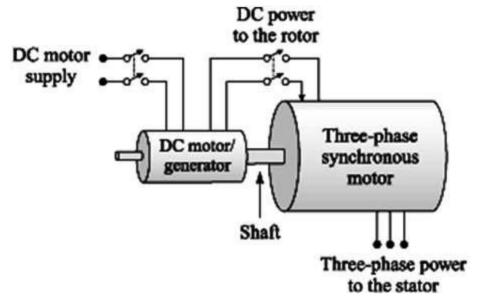


Figure 3.12.2.2-1: DC Excited Motor (Reprinted with Permission from Electrical-Knowhow)

These motors are more complicated as they require a DC excitation to operate and will not function without it. Another type of synchronous motor is the stepper motor. This type of motor is very common. It is designed to rotate by a specific number of degrees per electrical impulse. Stepper motors are often compared to servo motors as they are used in precise control applications. Advantages of a stepper motor include[13]:

- Inexpensive
- No feedback is required
- Great holding torque
- Brushless
- Durable
- Precise precision control
- Do not need tuning

The motors would be great for the ASR they are inexpensive and have great precision. Traversing the environment and docking to charge would be made easy by these motors. The motors are brushless and durable meaning they are low maintenance. This lines up with the project goal of having the robot operate without much, if any,

interaction from the owner. The motors are also ready to go out of the box meaning they don't have to be tuned first. This would be useful when constructing the ASR and for ease of programming. However, the motors are not without disadvantages. These include[13]:

- Noise level
- Poor torque at high speeds
- Can stall without a control loop
- Limited size availability
- Consumption of current without load
- Poor performance at low speeds

The noise level is bad because the point of the ASRis to patrol an area. If someone has broken into your house the ASR would never get close as the intruder would hear it coming. Losing torque with higher speed is also an issue. The ASR will not weigh a lot but it may not be able to run at a high speed at its weight. The issue with low speed operation is also problematic. When docking the robot will need to move fairly slowly in order to successfully dock. The robot needs to complete the docking process in a smooth motion.

3.12.2.3 Linear Motors

During the research phase on motors our team came across linear motors. Linear motors are what propel magnetic levitation trains [13]. They are essentially rotary motors that have been cut in half and rolled out. They are sometimes used for creating large rotary motion. In our case these motors would be nearly unusable as the ASR is designed to find its own path around the environment and not run on a track.

3.13 Control and Navigation

Our robot will have two modes of control. First and foremost, it's primary mode of control will be autonomous. The main usage of our bot is intended to be as a sentry which will alert the user when exposed to various stimuli. This requires that the bot roam and navigate on it's own accord, without any intervention from the user. There are, however, certain situations where the user's intervention may be necessary. Because of this, we wish to include the ability for the user to assume control and receive a streamed view from the robot's camera.

3.13.1 Autonomous Control

As stated above, the purpose of our bot is to be used as a mobile security system. For it to be fully autonomous, we require it to have a phase of operation for mapping out the room, then using that map to plan a path for the patrol phase. In the mapping phase, a

reactive exteroceptive sensor environment combined with a simple navigation algorithm will be implemented. A state machine with sonar, bump, and if possible Kinect depth sensor data as inputs will be relied upon for obstacle avoidance (note that this Kinect data is already being used elsewhere to generate the map). At this stage the map can't be relied upon for obstacle avoidance because it will be incomplete. Instead, we will rely on this sublayer of sensors to split up the computation. In the event that the bot falls into an infinite cycle, getting stuck navigating the same segment of the room over and over, the map may be referenced to determine a new orientation. With this approach, we should be able to simultaneously navigate, localize, and map autonomously.

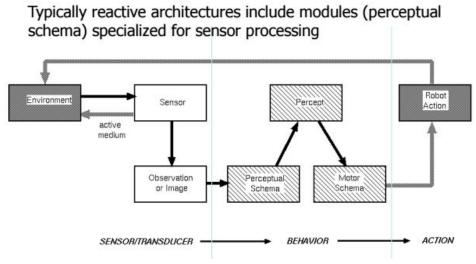


Figure 3.13.1: Reactive Behavior Model (Reprinted with Permission from Dr. Gita)

The patrol phase differs from the mapping phase in that there is already a fully developed map. The robot no longer needs to wander blind, but will still rely upon its sensors to avoid obstacles as it traverses the map. There are many different ways this map could be used and that navigation could be performed. Our goal for this project is to build a patrolling sentry, so ideally the robot should travel on a closed loop and report any important events on the way. There are two possibilities for how this can be handled. The first case is handled automatically by the robot. A flood fill algorithm can be implemented to create a navigation mesh for the map, where a certain amount of space in the coordinate system will represent a node which can be traversed by the robot. After the flood fill, all traversable space will be known. A pathfinding algorithm can then be used to find the best possible loop through the environment from node to node, either in terms of shortest/longest distance, or most observed area. Simultaneously, object avoidance and security algorithms will run and detect events such as motion.

The second case gives the user more control. After the map is generated, the user should be able to view it in the paired application. Rather than having the robot spend time on expensive computation, the user could simply plot navigation nodes through the areas that they desire from the application UI. They could specify a start and stop node,

and indicate the direction of travel or sequence of nodes they wish to be traveled. In this way, the robot can simply seek directly toward nodes while falling back on it's sensors for obstacle avoidance. This approach is overall much simpler and would probably be more appealing from a user standpoint, it also lowers the chance of the robot finding a bad path or getting stuck in an infinite cycle..

3.13.1.1 **SONAR**

Sonar sensors emit sound, and wait some span of time for return echoes. This time can be used to calculate distance to the objects which reflected the sound. The math to calculate this distance is simple. An illustration of how sonar works can be seen in Figure 3.13.1.1 below.

- **s**: speed of sound in air, ~343 meters per second
- t: amount of time it took to send sound and receive echoes, seconds
- **d**: approximate distance of object from sensor, meters

Distance Equation:

s * (t / 2) = d

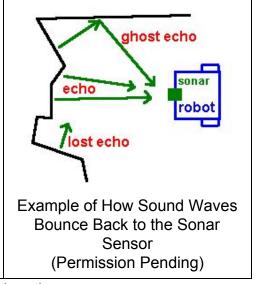


Figure 3.13.1.1 Sonar Explanation

Sonar is not the most reliable due to ghost echoes, and different materials' ability to absorb sound waves. Should we be able to get our depth data from the kinect at the same time it is being used to generate the map, we will most likely drop sonar altogether.

3.13.1.2 Tactile Sensor

Bump sensors are basically simple switch circuits. A mechanical button fixed to a "feeler" shorts the circuit when the feeler comes into contact with another object. They essentially have an on or off state; on means we've hit something, off mean's we haven't. We can use an array of them fixed to different sides of the robot to detect collisions from all angles. Bump sensors will be our our last line of defense in the case that our bot has taken a bad path, and our sonar/kinect distance estimation has failed.

In the event that we run straight into a wall, we want the robot to react, stop, and reorient itself, otherwise it would just continuously drive into the wall.

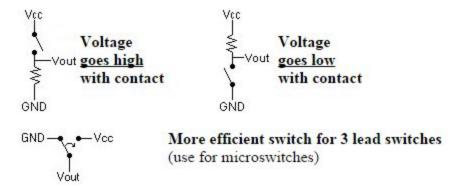


Figure 3.13.1.2: Example of Tactile Sensor Circuit (Permission Pending)

3.13.1.3 Finite State Machine

An abstract mathematical model for designing sequential logic via a finite set of states, where certain conditions force the transition of one state to the next. In our case, conditions would be things like specific, or ranges of sensor values, and our states would be what directions to move in, or what phase of operation the robot is in such as mapping or patrolling.

3.13.1.4 Flood Fill Algorithm

The flood fill algorithm determines what areas are connected in a multidimensional array by traversing all possible connected locations. It can be implemented in various ways and tailored to suit the needs of its application. In generic terms, it has only three parameters. A starting node, a color to be searched for, and a color to replace searched nodes with. The basic algorithm is as follows:

Flood Fill

- 1. If target color = replacement color, return
- 2. If color of node is not equal to target color, return
- 3. Set the color of node to replacement color
- 4. Perform Flood Fill recursively, one step in each direction (N, NE, E, SE, S, SW, W, NW)
- 5. Return

This algorithm is recursive and will overflow the stack given a large map, so this must be taken into account during implementation.

3.13.1.5 Dijkstra's Algorithm

Dijkstra's Algorithm is a search algorithm used for finding the shortest path in a graph. Dijkstra utilizes nodes and weights between vertices to make this calculation, and its worse case performance is bounded by O(Edges + Vertices * log(Vertices). In our case, the nodes of the graph would be a connected navigation mesh projected onto our map, and the edges would the relative distance between points. The algorithm is as follows: Dijkstra:

- 1. Select a starting node, set tentative distance to all other nodes to infinite and the distance of this node to zero. Mark the starting node as visited and add all other nodes to the unvisited set.
- 2. Calculate tentative distance to this nodes neighbors, compare the current distance to each neighbor to its assigned distance and set the distance to the assigned distance to the smaller value.
- 3. After all neighbors are considered, mark this node as visited and remove it from the unvisited set so that it is never checked again.
- 4. If all nodes have been marked visited, algorithm complete
- 5. Otherwise select the node from the unvisited set with the current smallest distance and start again from step 2.

3.13.2 User Control

User control will be an entirely different system from autonomous control. There is no need for sensors. Instead, the user will be able to remotely control the locomotion of the robot while viewing a video feed from the robot's camera. We'd like to allow this to occur during both mapping phase, and the patrol phase so that the user can map the room themselves if desired. The camera will either be the Kinect's built in camera, or a separate camera, depending on the unexpected limitations of our approach. The user will have access to basic directional controls: forward, backward, strafe right, strafe left, turn right, turn left. We also expect the user to have the ability to send the robot to it's docking station for recharging, and to turn the robot on and off. The implementation of this could come in multiple forms:

3.13.2.1 Remote Access

Our robot will most likely be utilizing a Raspberry Pi 2, which can easily be set up as a server that can be SSH'd into, or be remotely accessed and have it's graphical desktop viewed and interacted with from a different computer. We can develop a simple program that the user can run, and be granted access to the features outlined above. We would also include controls for switching between robot states, so that the user can put the robot back into autonomous mapping/patrol mode. We would also like the user to be able to see the map as it's being generated, and the robot's location within that map. Should the user remote into the system, we don't expect it to interrupt any running processes on the robot. Rather, the user will be able to access the system during any state, and provide directives, or just check on the robot's status, should they desire. This approach would allow for robust control and operation of the robot, which would be

beneficial for power users and technically-inclined, computer literate people. It would also be easier on us from a coding and implementation standpoint. However, this approach would be nearly impossible for the average person, who is not familiar with remote access, Linux, and is unfamiliar with the system and it's innerworkings.

3.13.2.2 Internet Application or Mobile Application

An alternative for the less technically inclined would be a simple mobile application, or web-based application. With this approach, more tasks would be automated and streamlined. The user would open the app, and immediately get a camera feed of whatever the robot is viewing. This access would be preconfigured so the user does not need to worry about SSH or remote access. We would try and keep the number of options as minimal as possible. We would have a button for initiating the mapping phase, initiating the patrol phase, assuming control of the robot and driving it around manually, pausing, powering down, powering on, and charging. Should the user pick any of these options, what is displayed on screen would change. For example, if the user takes control, all other options would be cleared off the screen and and UI for maneuvering the robot would appear. Figure 3.13.2.2a below shows the percentage of market share for browsers.

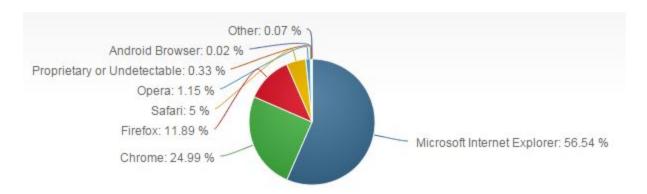


Figure 3.13.2.2a: Market Share for Browsers - 3/15/2015 (Permission Pending)

The above chart displays the market share of popular browsers as of March 15, 2015. With this knowledge, if we decide to go with the web based implementation, we know that we should target at least Internet Explorer for compatibility. This would enable over 50% percent of internet users the ability to use our application. If we target Chrome as well, we could capture over 75% of users. Figure 3.13.2.2b shows the mobile development market share.

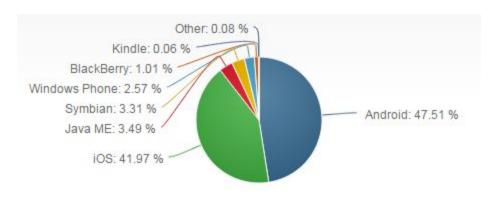


Figure 3.13.2.2b: Market Share for Mobile Operating Systems (Permission Pending)

The above chart is the market share of each popular mobile operating system as of March 2015. If we go the route of a mobile application, we know we should target at least Android to capture the majority of mobile users. If we implement the app for iOS users as well, we can capture almost 90% of mobile users.

Version	Codename	API	Distribution
2.2	Froyo	8	0.4%
2.3.3 - 2.3.7	Gingerbread	10	6.4%
4.0.3 - 4.0.4	Ice Cream Sandwich	15	5.7%
4.1.x	Jelly Bean	16	16.5%
4.2.x		17	18.6%
4.3		18	5.6%
4.4	KitKat	19	41.4%
5.0	Lollipop	21	5.0%
5.1		22	0.4%

Figure 3.13.2.2c: Market Share of Android Versions (Permission Granted via Creative Commons Attribution)

The right chart (Figure 3.13.2.2d) shows the market share of each iOS version as of March 2015. If we target iOS 8, we know we can capture at least 78% of the iOS version market share. While it would be nice to deal with only one version of an OS, iOS is expensive to develop for and none of us own Mac hardware to develop on, so for now this will not be an option for us.

The left chart (Figure 3.13.2.2c) shows the market share of each version of Android as of April 2015. If we target Android 4.4 - 5.1, we know we can capture at least 45% Android's version market share. Android doesn't require an special permissions, hardware, or money to develop for, so it is also a more desirable option overall.





As measured by the App Store on March 30, 2015.

Figure 3.13.2.2d: Market Share of iOS Versions (Permission Pending)

3.14 Batteries

Power is an essential component of the Autonomous Sentry Robot. As the vehicle is meant to move throughout a large area, a power source must be included as there is no practical way to receive power on the go. We have chosen to use a battery for this purpose. There are many things that are important when selecting a power source. These include:

- Capacity
- Recharging Ability
- Memory Effect
- Nominal Voltage
- Current

Capacity: The capacity of a battery is an incredibly important part of selecting a battery. Battery capacity is measured in Amp-hours. Amp hour rates are generally normalized to be 20 hour rates as a high discharge current lowers actual capacity. This means a 100 AH battery will be able to supply 5 amps for 20 hours. But it would more than likely not be able to supply 100A for 1 hour as that puts a lot of stress on the battery. For the purpose of the

Recharging Ability: The Autonomous Sentry Robot is designed to move around on its own with little to no interaction with people. This means that it must have a battery that is rechargeable. With a rechargeable battery, the robot can move around the room and complete all of its tasks with no human interaction. When the tasks are complete or the batteries are low, the robot can find its way to the charging station and dock itself to charge. If the robot were to use non rechargeable batteries, it would need to find the owner in order for its batteries to be removed and replaced.

Memory Effect: The memory effect is an important factor to consider when selecting a rechargeable battery. When a battery is not fully discharged between cycles, the battery has the possibly to "remember" the lower capacity [9]. This is known as the memory effect. If this is done several times. The battery will not store the proper amount of charge and the battery will become less efficient and effective. This is the newer term for voltage depression. Voltage depression is the over charging of a battery. Overcharging the battery can change the crystal structure of some batteries which results in a lower voltage. If a battery is chosen that can be adversely affected by the memory effect then it is important to only have the robot return to the charging station when the battery is considered to be low.

Nominal Voltage: The voltage, or more specifically nominal voltage, of a battery is also an important starting factor in selecting a proper battery. The nominal voltage is the reference voltage of the battery as well as the normal operating voltage. This is extremely important when selecting a battery to run the various components on the

Autonomous Sentry Robot. For example if the motors on the robot require 12V to run, anything less would reduce the performance of the robot or would cause the robot to not run at all. The battery chosen will need to maintain the required voltage over the entire operation period, around five hours, until it can return to the charging station.

Current: For batteries there are three very important current specifications to consider. The first is the standard discharge current. This is the discharge current that will allow the battery to use its fully listed capacity. Any discharge current that is higher will decrease available capacity and any value lower will extend it. If the battery capacity is lowered, the robot may not run for the required duration. The discharge rate is listed as a C-rate A 1C rate for a battery means that it is going to discharge the entire battery in one hour. The second important specification is the maximum continuous discharge current. This is the maximum value of discharge current that a battery can handle without damaging the battery.

This specification is important because a battery must be chosen that can handle the current draw of the Autonomous Sentry Robot. The final specification is the maximum charge current. The ASR will employ rechargeable batteries. Batteries have different charging rates. It is important to select a battery charger that is rated within the safe charge rate for the particular battery chosen. It is also important to select a charger with a high enough current that will allow the battery to charge at a reasonable pace. The ASR is only useful when on patrol. If it takes to much time to charge it reduces the robot's effectiveness.

3.14.1 Sealed Lead-Acid

Lead acid batteries were the first rechargeable batteries meant for commercial use [10]. The lead acid battery is still very common today being used in many automobiles, forklifts, and marine vehicles. The sealed lead acid battery is designed to be maintenance free. These specific lead acid batteries have a control valve to help vent gasses during a stressful charge or discharge. The batteries are also designed to be used in any orientation as the plates are no longer submerged in liquid. A moistened separator is used instead. This battery type is well known for being very dependable and inexpensive which makes it a great option for the Autonomous Sentry Robot. These batteries also have the ability to discharge a high amount of current at a time.

However, there are still many drawbacks to batteries of this type. These batteries are extremely heavy in comparison to other battery chemistries. Therefore they have a poor weight to energy ratio. These batteries also take a very long time to charge. Our system is designed to be on the move most of the time so spending ten plus hours to charge would be a large setback. Any backup batteries must be stored in a charged state as leaving batteries uncharged causes sulfation which can damage the battery. These batteries also have a lower limit to how many times they can be deep cycled, meaning that most of the capacity is used before it is charged again. These battery types are also not environmentally friendly. The advantages and limitations of SLA batteries are shown in figure 3.14.1-1 below.

Advantages	Inexpensive and simple to manufacture; low cost per watt-hour Low self-discharge; lowest among rechargeable batteries High specific power, capable of high discharge currents Good low and high temperature performance
Limitations	Low specific energy; poor weight-to-energy ratio Slow charge; fully saturated charge takes 14 hours Must be stored in charged condition to prevent sulfation Limited cycle life; repeated deep-cycling reduces battery life Flooded version requires watering Transportation restrictions on the flooded type Not environmentally friendly

Figure 3.14.1-1: Advantages and Limitations of SLA Batteries (Permission Pending from Battery University)

3.14.2 LiFePO4

Lithium iron phosphate batteries are a type of Lithium-ion battery. They are very energy dense meaning that they are extremely light in comparison to sealed lead acid batteries with the same capacity rating. These batteries also have a very low self discharge meaning they have a great shelf life after being charged [11]. The batteries also don't share the sulfate problem that can adversely affect SLA batteries and are environmentally friendly. These batteries also contain no liquid so they can be mounted in any position. This is extremely useful in robotics projects where it may be necessary to mount a battery on its side instead of having it stand straight up.

These batteries are specifically designed to be deep cycled meaning that there is no need to worry about damaging the battery from discharging almost the entire capacity between each charge. This property would allow the Autonomous Sentry Robot to

continue its patrols for longer periods of time. LiFePO4 batteries also can be charged very quickly so not only would the ASR be able to patrol for longer, it would be able to get back to its patrols more quickly. The largest drawback to this battery is that they are very expensive. Figure 3.14.2 illustrates advantages and limitations for all lithium-ion batteries below.

	High specific energy and commendable energy density	
	Available in Energy Cells and Power Cells	
	Rapid charge and high load capabilities	
Advantages	Sealed cells; format choices provide good flexibility	
	Long cycle and extend shelf-life; no maintenance	
	High coulombic efficiency; good energy efficiency	
	Low self-discharge (less than half that of NiCd and NiMH)	
	Requires protection circuit to limit voltage and current	
	Possibility of venting and thermal runaway if stressed	
Limitations	Degrades at high temperature and when stored at high voltage	
Limitations	No rapid charge possible at freezing temperatures (<0°C, <32°F)	
	Transportation regulations required when shipping in larger quantities	
	Higher cost than most other nickel and lead-based systems	

Figure 3.14.2-1: Advantages and Limitations of Lithium Batteries (Permission Pending from Battery University)

3.14.3 NiCd

Nickel-cadmium batteries were initially used in two-way radios, emergency medical equipment, video cameras, and power tools. They were improved to have a much larger capacity but they ended up with a shorter life cycle [12]. The batteries are very rugged which is a great advantage for use in a robot. However they need proper care to attain any sort of longevity. They batteries are extremely susceptible to the memory effect. Figure 3.14.3-1 below shows advantages and limitations of NiCd batteries.

Advantages	Fast and simple charging even after prolonged storage High number of charge/discharge cycles; provides over 1,000 charge/discharge cycles with proper maintenance Good load performance; rugged and forgiving if abused Long shelf life; can be stored in a discharged state Simple storage and transportation; not subject to regulatory control Good low-temperature performance Economically priced; NiCd is the lowest in terms of cost per cycle Available in a wide range of sizes and performance options
Limitations	Relatively low specific energy compared with newer systems Memory effect; needs periodic full discharges Environmentally unfriendly; cadmium is a toxic metal and cannot be disposed of in landfills High self-discharge; needs recharging after storage

Figure 3.14.3-1: Advantages and Disadvantages of NiCd Batteries (Permission Pending from Battery University)

3.14.4 NIMH

Nickel-metal-hydride batteries have several advantages over other battery types. The batteries have a higher specific energy than NiCd batteries and use no toxic materials. They also have advantages in price and safety over Li-ion batteries [12]. Hybrid vehicle makers state that these batteries cost about one third of a Li-ion system. However the batteries are not robust enough for hybrid vehicles as they have about one third less capacity than current consumer batteries. The batteries also have a high self discharge of about twenty percent of its capacity within twenty four hours. Figure 3.14.4-1 below shows the advantages and limitations of NiMH batteries.

30–40 percent higher capacity than a standard NiCd Less prone to memory than NiCd Simple storage and transportation; not subject to regulatory control Environmentally friendly; contains only mild toxins Nickel content makes recycling profitable	
Limitations	Limited service life; deep discharge reduces service life Requires complex charge algorithm Does not absorb overcharge well; trickle charge must be kept low Generates heat during fast-charge and high-load discharge High self-discharge; chemical additives reduce self-discharge at the expense of capacity Performance degrades if stored at elevated temperatures; should be stored in a cool place at about 40 percent state-of-charge

Figure 3.14.4-1: Advantages and Disadvantages of NiMH Batteries (Permission Pending from Battery University)

3.14.5 LiPO

Lithium polymer batteries are created by using a solid polymer electrolyte. The result was that the batteries could be created that are as thin as a credit card. The batteries could actually be made into almost any shape. The ultra thin batteries are still able to have a relatively good capacity. They are very light and safer than their Li-ion counterparts. The batteries also share charge and discharge characteristics with lithium-ion batteries allowing them to share chargers. However the batteries are a lot more expensive and are less energy dense making them less useful for a robot like the Autonomous Sentry Robot. Flgure 3.14.5-1 below shows just how small a lithium polymer battery can be.

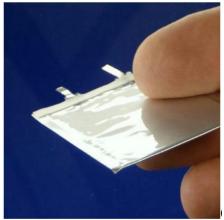


Figure 3.14.5-1: Size of a LiPO Battery (Reprinted with Permission from Powerstream)

3.15 Voltage Regulators

We plan to power the vehicle and all of its subsystems with a single battery. Since the motors, sensors, microcontroller, and microcomputer may require different voltages to operate than supplied by the battery, we will need to design a power distribution board to supply the correct voltages. We will consider common components for a power distribution board, such as linear voltage regulators, switching voltage regulators, and power boost converters, in the case of components needing a higher voltage than supplied.

3.15.1 Linear Voltage Regulator

Using a Linear voltage regulator is one way to convert a higher supplied voltage to a lower one used by components. Linear voltage regulators take any input voltage, within a range, and outputs a regulated voltage. For the microcontrollers and the sensors that we are considering, we will need an output of 5 V to 5.5 V. We have experience with a 5 V voltage regulator from the Electronics II laboratory Experiment #3. In that lab, we used a LM7805. Some characteristics for the LM7805 are listed below in Table 3.15.1.

Voltage Regulator	LM7805
Max Input Voltage (V)	35
Output Voltage (V)	5
Peak Current (A)	2.2

Table 3.15.1: LM7805 Characteristics [6]

According to Digikey's web article, "Understanding the Advantages and Disadvantages of Linear Regulators," efficiency is high for small differences between input and output voltages. [7] We can see this in the power dissipation equation for the voltage regulator:

$$P_{REG} = P_{IN} - P_{OUT} = (V_{IN} - V_{OUT})^*I_L + I_Q^*V_{IN}$$

Where P_{REG} is the power dissipated by the voltage regulator, P_{IN} is the input power, P_{OUT} is the out power, V_{IN} is the input voltage, V_{OUT} is the output voltage, I_L is the load current, I_D is the and quiescent current.

3.15.2 Switching Voltage Regulator

Switching regulators are another way to convert voltages. They can step up (boost), step down (buck), and invert voltages. For our project, we would need a step down regulator. They tend to be more expensive and more complex than linear voltage

regulators. We also have experience with a switching voltage regulator from Electronics II laboratory Experiment #4. In that lab, we used a LM2576-ADJ. Some characteristics for the LM2576-ADJ are listed below in Table 3.15.2. Since the LM2576-ADJ is an adjustable switching voltage regulator, we can adjust the output voltage to what we require. Figure 3.15.2 is an example of a circuit that has an output voltage of 5V.

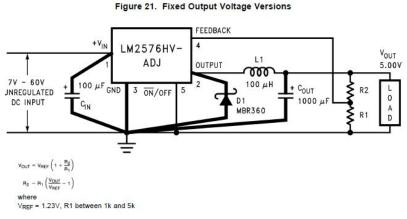


Fig. 3.15.2: Circuit with a 5V output (Reprinted with Permission from Texas Instruments)

Voltage Regulator	LM2576-ADJ
Max Input Voltage (V)	40
Output Voltage (V)	1.23 to 37
Peak Current (A)	3

Table 3.15.2: LM2576-ADJ Characteristics [8]

According to Digikey, efficiency is high "except at very low load currents" where the "quiescent current is usually higher."[7] In our lab we learned that the power dissipated in the switching regulator comes from when the MOSFET in the regulator is on, when it is off, no power is dissipated. The power dissipated is:

$$P_{MOSFET} = I_L^2 * R_{DS}$$

Where P_{MOSFET} is the power dissipated by the MOSFET, I_{L} is the load current, and R_{DS} is the drain to source resistance of the MOSFET.

3.16 Chassis

The chassis is an important part of every robotic vehicle. There are many factors to consider when designing or selecting a chassis. The chassis for the ASR must be large enough to contain all of the electronics required for the robot, but also small enough to

maneuver around obstacles with ease. The chassis should be easy to assemble and disassemble for maintenance purposes. The cost of the chassis is also an important factor to consider. In our case the robot is not meant to bear much more weight than the electronics required to drive it.

This means that minimizing component weight is not an issue for us. The largest component, other than the chassis and battery, is the Microsoft Kinect sensor we plan to use to map the environment. The Kinect weighs right around 2 lbs so our design will be able to handle it perfectly as we plan to use metal in our construction. For the ASR, our team decided that it would be best to purchase a chassis kit or easy to assemble chassis components rather than build one from scratch. We considered two different options for the ASR.

Actobotics Chassis: The first chassis we considered was from Sparkfun. Sparkfun has created a robotic building system under the name Actobotics. Actobotics has many pre made aluminum channels that can intuitively come together to create a solid chassis. The components are relatively inexpensive and are designed for ease of use. The components come with two standardized hole patterns for use with any of Actobotics' components and many others. Figure 3.16-1 below is of the 12" aluminum channel with the easy mounting hole pattern.



Figure 3.16-1: 12" Aluminum Channel (Reprinted with Permission from SparkFun)

VEX Chassis: The second chassis we considered was the VEX chassis kit. They come in several different sizes which allowed for flexibility in design. The components are very similar in design to the actobotics parts. They are designed with a single hole pattern for uniformity across the entire VEX robotics product line. The chassis kit comes with four rails and two bumpers. the rails are used for mounting wheels and motors. The inner rails can be moved closer to the outer rails or more towards the center to allow for larger or smaller wheels. The bumpers act as the front and the back chassis plates. Figure 3.16-2 below shows the assembled VEX chassis kit medium.



Figure 3.16-2 Chassis Kit Medium (Reprinted with Permission from VEX Robotics)

4. Related Standards

This section covers everything having to do with standards that relate to our project, and how they impact our design.

4.1 Standards Search

In Table 4.1, see below, are related standards that were found by searching www.nssn.org.

Standard Number	Scope	Title
IEEE 802.11n-2009	WiFi	IEEE Standard for Information technology -Telecommunications and information exchange between systems - Local and metropolitan area networks - Specific requirements Part 11: Wireless LAN Medium Access Control (MAC) and Physical Layer (PHY) Specifications Amendment 5: Enhancements for Higher Throughput
IEC 62680-1 Ed. 1.0 b:2013	USB	Universal serial bus interfaces for data and power - Part 1: Universal serial bus specification, revision 2.0
IEC 62680-2 Ed. 1.0 b:2013	USB	Univ. serial bus interfaces for data and power - Part 2: Universal serial bus - Micro-USB cables and connectors specification, revision 1.01
BSR/IEEE 1873-201x	Mapping	Standard for Robot Map Data Representation for Navigation
IEC 60335-2-29 Ed. 4.2 b:2010	Battery Charger	Household and similar electrical appliances - Safety - Part 2-29: Particular requirements for battery chargers
IEC 62676-1-1 Ed. 1.0 b:2013	Video Surveillance	Video surveillance systems for use in security applications - Part 1-1: System requirements - General
IEC 62676-2-2 Ed. 1.0 b:2013	IP video	Video surveillance systems for use in security applications - Part 2-2: Video transmission protocols - IP interoperability implementation based on HTTP and REST services

Table 4.1: Related Standards

4.2 Design Impact

Our design considerations were not greatly impacted by the standards that we have found. This is the case since we will not be manufacturing hardware and will be using established software libraries. We will be using standard hardware components for this project, while only designing our own printed circuit board for power distribution and the microcontroller and a housing for the battery charger.

5. Design Constraints

Listed below are several design constraints that our project will be facing. Many of the constraints pertain to restriction of design options due to cost, time, size, and etc. We do not foresee many constraints due to regulations or standards.

5.1 Cost

Cost is a major factor in our design. In our initial budget, we understood this and were determined to use parts that we either had, were low cost, or could combine functionality. For our initial budget, we determined that we would need \$901.77, which is what we requested from a Boeing sponsorship. We have been approved for funding from Boeing for \$580.11. This is less than what we requested, however we are fortunate to be in possession of some of the parts that we require to complete the project.

5.2 Time

Time is another main constraint. Since our section of Senior Design II will be held during UCF's summer term, we will have less time to work than if it were during the fall or spring terms. We will have twelve weeks compared to sixteen weeks.

5.3 Size

We have constrained the size of our robot in requirement FF1 to a maximum height of 1 foot and a maximum width of 1.5 feet. According to the specifications of the VEX kit which one of us owns, the chassis rails are 8 inches long and the chassis angles are 7.5 inches long. For the VEX medium chassis kit that we are considering, the chassis rails are 12.598 inches long. And according to the Actobotics specifications, the other chassis kit we are considering, the chassis channel lengths are 4.5 inches, 6 inches, 9 inches, 12 inches, 15 inches, 18 inches, or 24 inches.

5.4 Power Consumption

Power consumption is an extremely important factor for the ASR. In our initial project description we listed that the battery was to last for 2 hours. If the budget was no concern this would be achievable. However, with a limited budget and limited space we felt that it was necessary to compromise on this factor. For example, a robot drawing 10A of continuous current would need a battery with a capacity of 50Ah to run for 5 hours. We expect our robot to draw around 10A of current. Therefore we have chosen

to modify our run time to about a half hour. That means that we will need a battery with a capacity of 5Ah or more to achieve our new goal.

6. Hardware Design

The ASR is made up of both mechanical and electrical hardware systems. These systems must work together in order for the ASR be successful. That being said, it is important to design the system components to be independent so that if a part needs to be modified or replaced it can be taken care of without affecting the entire system. This section contains the decisions made for the mechanical and electrical hardware of the robot as well as the reasons for those decisions.

6.1 Mechanical System

In this section we will discuss the various components of the mechanical system. The mechanical system must be able to support the weight of all components and be simple to construct. The mechanical components should interface with each other easily to allow for design simplicity.

6.1.1 Chassis

The chassis is the main hub for the entire robot. It had to be able to accommodate every subsystem. Our team decided to go with the VEX chassis kit for the ASR. The kit is extremely well designed and something we had worked with in the past. There were three different kits to choose from. The specifications for each kit we considered are shown in figure 6.1.1-1 below.

Chassis Kit	Dimensions (in)	Weight (lbs)	Price (\$)
Small	8.092x7.598	0.84	18.99
Medium	12.592x12.592	1.3	21.35
Large	17.592x17.598	1.8	24.95

Table 6.1.1-1: Chassis Kit Comparison

From the specifications above we chose the medium chassis kit for the ASR. The dimensions of the medium kit are well within the form factor chosen for the ASR but it is also not too small. The chassis is also relatively inexpensive. As system compatibility is important for the ASR, the factors listed and discussed below also played an important role in choosing the medium VEX chassis.

6.1.2 Drive System

Our project requires the ASR to be able to maneuver around many obstacles. For this purpose a highly mobile drive system was initially preferred. However, we determined through our testing that the SLAM algorithm worked much better without any fancy movement. Holonomic drives are incredibly complex and allow for a level of mobility that was not needed in our project. Our team determined that even the ability to strafe while navigating and mapping was unnecessary and the only motion we needed was provided by a more standard drive system. Therefore our team elected to use the tank drive system for the ASR.

It was a very simple design to implement as it operates exactly like a tank where the left side acts as one unit and the right side acts as one unit. This cut down on computation needed to figure out which motion would be best for a the ASR if a holonomic system had been chosen to navigate the room. The VEX chassis was a perfect fit for this drive system. The chassis came with 4 rails and two bumpers for mounting wheels and motors. Those components are for the four main drive wheels. The chassis is very modular and components can be added to change the design. Figure 6.1-1 below illustrates the chassis design.

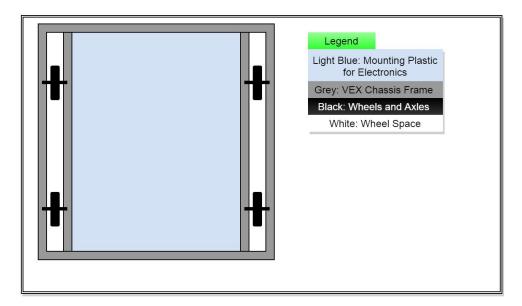


Figure 6.1.2-1: Tank Style Chassis Design

6.1.3 Wheels

The chassis design was a factor in our wheel choice. The tank style drivetrain really works effectively with omni wheels and traction wheels. The omni wheels would have allowed the robot to turn with less friction than any of the other wheels we looked into. The traction wheels have more friction when trying to strafe as they do not have rollers.

However, the traction wheels are less expensive which follows our goal of a cost effective system. Therefore, we chose to use traction wheels for our project. There were many types of traction wheels available to use. However, we decided to look at choices that VEX robotics had to offer as they would be directly compatible with our chassis.

All of the VEX wheels are designed to support the VEX chassis and required electronics. As the ASR was not meant to carry an extremely large load, there was no need to compare load specifications for the following wheels. The first option we looked into were 2.75 inch traction wheels. The second option we looked into were 3.25 inch traction wheel. The final set of traction wheels we looked into had a diameter of 4 inches. An example of the 2.75" and 4" wheels are shown in figure 6.1.3-1 below.





Figure 6.1.3-1: VEX Traction Wheels: 2.75" (Left) and 4" (Right) (Reprinted with Permission from VEX robotics)

Wheel (All Traction)	Weight (lbs)	Shaft	Price	
2.75"	0.074	0.125" Square Bar	\$9.99 (for four)	
3.25"	0.154	0.125" Square Bar	\$19.99 (for four)	
4"	0.232	0.125" Square Bar	\$19.99 (for four)	

Table 6.1.3-1: Traction Wheel Comparison

In the table it can be seen that the smaller 2.75" wheels are less expensive and lighter than the 4" wheels. After consideration we chose to use the 2.75" wheels. We determined that the price of the wheels made this choice extremely cost effective. The wheels are half the price of the others and perform the same function. The wheels are the lightest of our three options. The heavier the robot the more power it takes to move it as well as the more torque we need. Being lightweight is extremely important in robotic platforms and essential for the ASR to work properly.

If the ASR had been unable to enter a room because it couldn't make it over a threshold, it would have lost some of its functionality. We determined that even using the smaller diameter wheels allowed the robot to cross standard thresholds. The ASR should be able to enter any room with ease so this was an easy decision with such an low price. As we need four wheels total we bought one kit leading to a total price of about \$10.00. These wheels were chosen to work with the chassis. The chassis uses .182" standard VEX holes for mounting and the wheels use 0.125" square bars for shafts. The shafts of the wheels properly fit though the chassis holes for mounting. Bearings and a shaft collars from VEX robotics will be used to hold the wheels in place.

6.1.4 Motors

The motors chosen needed to be able to support the weight of the robot and all of its components. The robot weighs no more than 15 lbs. This meant that the motors needed to have a stall torque greater than 0.85 N-M in order to run properly. The torque value is based on the weight of the robot and the radius of the wheels. The motors should also not have a large current draw in order to maximize battery life. After conducting our motor research and tests, we chose to use a DC motor. Having chosen the VEX robotics chassis, we had decided that looking at VEX motors would be a good start for compatibility. The VEX motors we researched are shown in table 6.1.4-1 below.

Motor	RPM	Needs Controller	Stall Current (A)	Stall Torque (N-M)	Price (\$)
393	100	Yes	4.8	1.67	14.99
3 wire	100	No	Not Listed	Not Listed	Not Listed
269	100	Yes	2.6	0.972	12.99

Table 6.1.4-1: Motor Comparison

The 3 wire motors are motors that we already had. The third wire is for PWM signals and therefore it doesn't need a motor controller. However, there was not a lot of data available on them and we only had three. This eliminated them from being used on the ASR. The 2 wire 269 motors were less expensive than the 2 wire 393 motors. However, they had much lower stall current and stall torques. Therefore we chose to go with the VEX two wire 393 motors. The motor is a DC motor meaning it runs using DC voltage. That made them ideal for our system as we were using a battery. DC motors are very easy to control which is a necessity for the ASR. The motors are shown in figure 6.1.4-1 below.



Figure 6.1.4-1: VEX 2 Wire motor 393 (Reprinted with Permission from VEX Robotics)

With these motors having two wires it was necessary to get a motor controller for them. As our microcontroller is able to generate PWM signals we chose to get the VEX motor controller 29. The motor controller is specifically designed to work with the VEX two wire 393 motors so we chose not to look into any other options. The motor and motor controller combo is priced at \$24.98 on the VEX website making it a great option for our project.

6.2 Electrical System

The electrical system of the ASR contains the sections related to the power system, the microcontroller, and the sensors. The system has been designed to be simple.

6.2.1 Battery

The battery is an important aspect of the ASR. It needed to have a high capacity and it needed to be designed for deep cycling. The battery needed to be able to discharge enough current to run the motors and electronics on the robot. It also couldn't be affected by the memory effect. After careful research we chose to go with a NiMH battery because they don't require any special care and are safer than Lithium batteries. They also have a higher capacity than NiCd batteries. After that decision was made, three batteries were under consideration. The batteries' specifications can be seen in table 6.2.1-1 below.

Battery Brand	Voltage (V)	Capacity (mAh)	Price (\$)
Tenergy	7.2	3800	23.99
Tenergy	7.2	2000	9.99
Tenergy	7.2	5000	32.99

Table 6.2.1-1 Battery Comparison

For the ASR we chose the Tenergy 7.2V 5000mAh NiMH battery. We chose this battery because it has a higher capacity than most other 7.2V batteries. The battery is able to deliver 40A of current which is well above what the ASR can draw. The battery is designed to not be affected by the memory effect. Therefore it can be charged at any stage instead of only when it has been completely discharged. The battery is 7.2V making it perfect for running the motors we have chosen. The battery is relatively inexpensive and costs \$32.99. The battery is pictured in figure 6.2.1-1 below.



Figure 6.2.1-1 Tenergy 5000mAh NiMh Battery (Reprinted with Permission from Tenergy)

6.2.2 Charger

After selecting the battery there were two different options available to us for a charger. The first option was to design our own. The team decided that it would be safer to purchase a charger for the ASR battery as the robot is intended to complete many cycles. The chargers available to purchase are rigorously tested so we know they are safe to use with the NiMH battery. That left only the second option, purchase a charger, available to us. There were two charges under consideration for purchase. Table 6.2.2-1 below is a comparison of the two chargers.

Brand	Voltage (V)	Charge Rate (A)	Price (\$)
Tenergy	7.2-12	1.8	21.49
Tenergy	6-12	2	22.99

Table 6.2.2-1 Battery Charger Comparison

From the table it can be seen that the price difference was negligible and the voltage rating for both is perfect for our battery. Therefore, our group chose to go with the second charger with the charge rate of 2A. This allowed for a slightly faster charge time to get the ASR back out into the room for its patrol. The battery charger is able to detect the battery voltage to ensure a proper charge and is equipped with a temperature sensor to ensure that the battery doesn't overheat. The charger is shown in figure 6.2.2-1 below.



Figure 6.2.2-1 NiMH Battery Charger (Reprinted with Permission from Tenergy)

6.2.3 Power Distribution

The ASR's batteries will essentially have three loads, one load from the motors at 7.2 V, one load from the microcontroller, microcomputer, and sensors at 5 V, and one from the Microsoft Kinect at 12 V. Fig. 6.2.3-1, shown below, is a block diagram of how the power distribution will be organized.

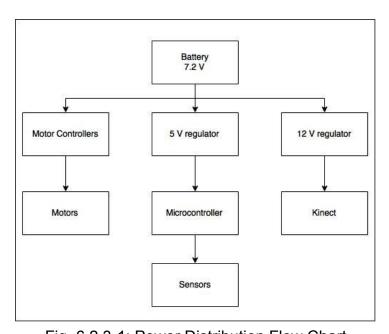


Fig. 6.2.3-1: Power Distribution Flow Chart

Our battery is 7.2 V and our motors run at 7.2 V with a maximum current draw of 19.2 A (4 x stall current). The motor controllers will be connected directly to the battery.

The ATmega328P, Raspberry Pi 2, Microsoft Kinect, tactile sensors, and ultrasonic sensors all run at 5 V. The maximum current draw from them is 1.10 A. Since we have experience from a previous laboratory with 5 V voltage regulation, we decided to use what we know. We decided to use the LM2576-5, 5V switching voltage regulator, as shown below in the Fig. 6.2.3-2. We will be using the reference design provided in the data sheet.

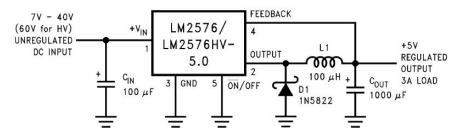


Fig. 6.2.3-2: Microcontroller and Sensor Power Supply (Reprinted with permission from Texas Instruments)

The Microsoft Kinect requires 12 V to operate. We designed a 12 V boost converter in Texas Instruments Webench Power Architect, as in in Fig. 6.2.3-3 below. The 12 V regulator will connect to the battery boost the 7.2 V to 12 V for the Kinect.

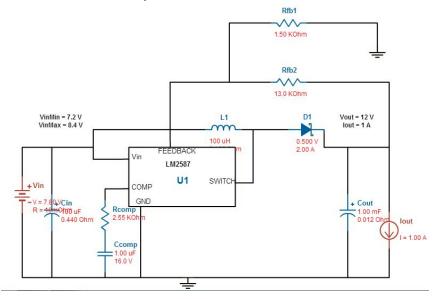


Fig. 6.2.3-3: Microsoft Kinect 12 V Power Supply

6.2.4 Microcontroller

From our research, we saw that the ATMega328P has a faster clock frequency, but less Program Memory, less RAM, less I/O pins, and less USARTs/SPIs than the ATmega2560. Since we do not plan to do anything complex with the microcontroller and need for it to react to obstacles quickly, we decided on using the ATmega328P. We will be using it with an Arduino bootloader to simplify the programming required,

thus saving us some time. All the microcontroller needs to do is take movement commands from the laptop and send the commands to the motor controllers, and take sensor data from the tactile sensor and ultrasonic sensors and then send movement commands to the motors, if needed. The faster clock frequency would result if faster reactive actions for the robot.

6.2.5 Sensors

To be successful, our robot will require long range, medium range, and short range sensors. For the short range sensors, we choose the VEX bumper sensor. It will compliment the HC-SR04 ultrasonic distance sensor. It'll work well for a medium range sensor with a range of 2 cm to 4 m. The bumper sensor can handle anything that is missed. We will have two bumper sensors in the front of the robot, along with one ultrasonic sensor. These sensors should be able to handle close to medium range object detection. If they are triggered, the microcontroller will react and move the robot away from the object. We will also have the same configurations on the back of the robot. This will cover the cases when the robot backs up and it'll ensure that it does not run into anything while backing up.

6.2.6 Status LEDs

The ASR to this point is a good robotics platform. However, we felt that it would be a better system if we were able to add or swap some features. To do this we decided to add a TLC5940NT common anode LED driver. We chose this chip in particular because not only does it have the ability to drive LEDs, it can drive anything that runs on a PWM signal. This would allow the user to add motors for a grabber or to make the robot move faster if they so choose. The TLC5904NT has 16, 12 bit grayscale PWM output channels allowing for a ton of flexibility. The chip uses serial communication with our second atmega328. It has the ability to sink up to 12 (Vcc>3.6V) which is great for running LEDs. The chip also has Dot correction which is for LED signs. LEDs vary in brightness and if you have a large amount of them it is very noticeable. Dot correction makes the brightness uniform across all of the LEDs.

For our design we chose to run seven LEDs. The outer LEDs turned on and stayed on constantly while the inner LEDs ran in a scanning pattern from left to right and then back again. The LEDs were designed to be feedback for when the robot was on. Figure 6.2.6-1 below shows the LED hardware.

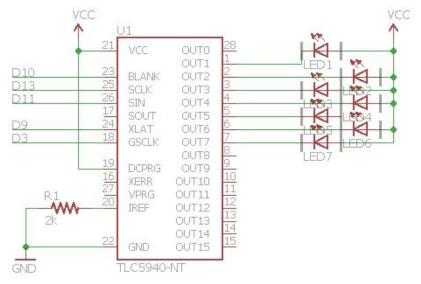


Figure 6.2.6-1: Status LED Hardware

7. Software Design

The ASR is a complex system of interconnected subsystems. The overall system has distinct inputs and outputs, and so should the individual subsystems. With this approach in mind, our design attempts to be as modular as possible. This way modifications can be made to one system without too much impact on other systems. This approach allows us to utilize ROS as a general purpose framework. First, a high level view of the overall system architecture will be presented. Following this, each system will be looked at in more depth. ROS requires the use of many different nodes and packages for things like creating coordinate transforms between sensor frames, viewing data, and performing navigation procedures using a map. Since these are features of ROS itself and not modules we will be programming, they will not be discussed.

7.1 High Level Software System Architecture

The overall system is contained within and being executed on a laptop running Ubuntu Linux. The subsystems are, manual navigation, autonomous navigation, mapping and localization, motion detection, and the state manager. The inputs to the system are the map, streams of data from various sensors, and input from the user. The outputs of the system are the current generated map which is fed back in as an input, alerts which are pushed to the user's Gmail account, and locomotion data to the motors. Figure 7.1-1 below illustrates the high level software architecture.

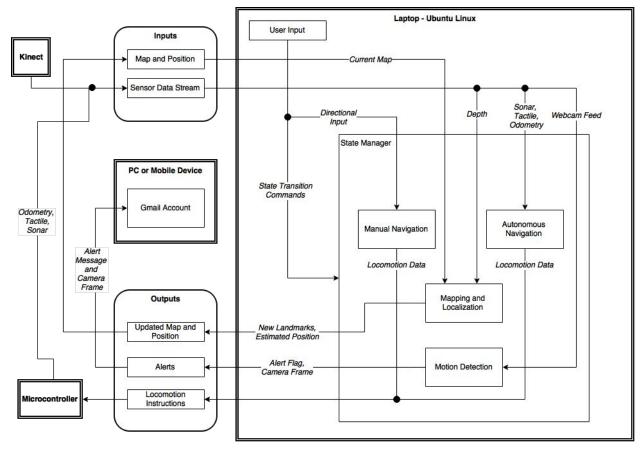


Figure 7.1-1 - High Level Software Architecture

The above diagram does not demonstrate the order of execution in the system, but the relationship of inputs and outputs to each subsystem, and the overall system itself. Arrows flowing in are inputs, arrows flowing out are outputs. The type of I/O data is indicated on each line. Some of these subsystems are running concurrently, so dedicated threads are necessary, luckily ROS safely handles this. For instance, if the user decides to map autonomously, both the autonomous navigation and mapping/localization subsystems will be executing. The map will be being updated while the robot is planning its path, and sending locomotion instructions to the robot's wheel controller. The black dots provide no functionality, but instead indicate connected branches for better clarity.

7.2 State Manager

The state manager is a singleton class which sets the given state of the robot based on input from the user to the terminal. Abstract states like "Autonomous Mapping Mode" selected in the state manager are not actually representative of a single state in the manager, but rather two states operating simultaneously. This approach helps us eliminate redundancy and keep code more modular for ease of modification. The State Manager class is simple in terms of methods and variables. The SetState() method

takes in a boolean array which flags states that are to be set active and inactive. The current state can be retrieved with GetState() which retrieves the global variable flags[], containing whatever states were last set. The global variable mapComplete is set when the mapping state has completed and is used by the state manager to decide which options are available to the user. The state manager needs no knowledge of sensors or any other input besides user input, as these are inputs to the classes of the subsystems. It needs no output except for other classes to be able to retrieve the current state for lower level decision making. Flags can be set by subclasses when certain procedures have been completed. Figure 7.2-1 below shows the State Manager Architecture.

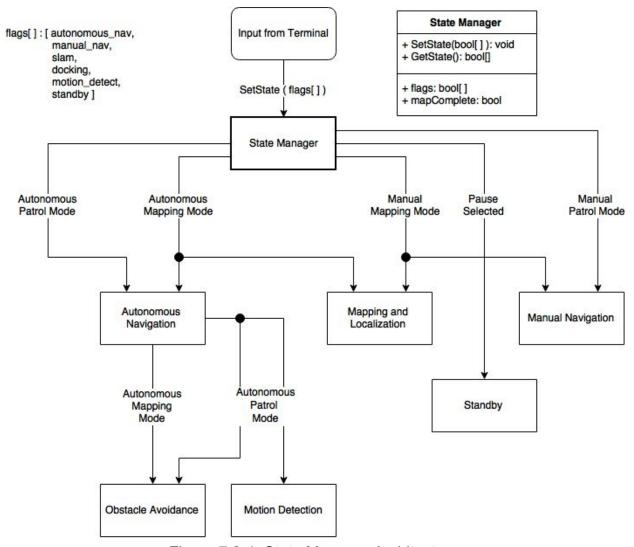


Figure 7.2-1: State Manager Architecture

7.3 Autonomous Navigation and Obstacle Avoidance

Autonomous navigation functions like a finite state machine. Autonomous navigation would occur when the user sets the ASR to either Autonomous Mapping mode or Autonomous Patrol mode. The only difference between these two modes is that during Autonomous Patrol mode, the ASR will periodically stop and engage the motion detection systems. Autonomous navigation starts by immediately moving forward while checking on sensor data, if no obstacles are detected it will briefly switch to the locomotion state to transmit motion data, then return to the wander state and repeat. If any obstacle avoidance warnings are triggered, then it will immediately trigger the stop state, switch to locomotion and transmit data, then return and switch to the avoid obstacle state. The avoid obstacle state contains logic for determining and calculating a new heading. Once the heading is calculated, it switches to the locomotion state and transmits data to reflect the new heading. Following this, it returns to the wander state and repeats the whole process. The wander state also checks if the standby flag has been triggered. If it has, the robot is told to stop and then exit this state and wait for instructions. Figure 7.3-1 below illustrates the autonomous navigation state machine.

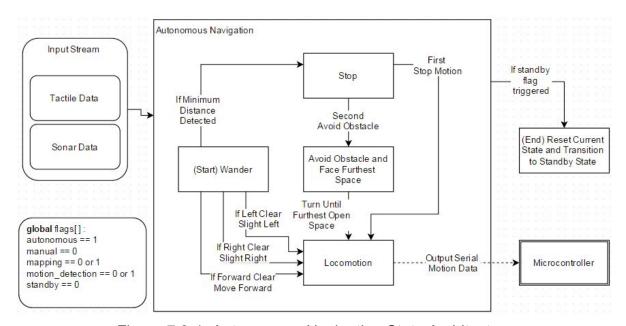


Figure 7.3-1: Autonomous Navigation State Architecture

7.4 Manual Navigation

Like the autonomous navigation system, the manual navigation system is a state machine. Manual navigation would occur if the user set the ASR to Manual Mapping mode or Manual Patrol mode. By default the robot sits and listens for instructions from the user. We use a WASD control scheme where W moves forward, A rotates left, D rotates right, and S moves backward. Manual navigation input occurs in it's own terminal separate from the main terminal which sets the state of the ASR. If the ASR is

in patrol mode, in the main terminal, the user can type 'capture' to capture a frame from the ASR's camera. Figure 7.4-1 below illustrates the manual navigation state machine.

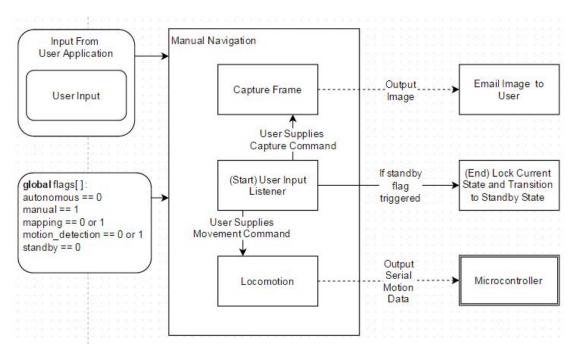


Figure 7.4-1: Manual Navigation State Architecture

7.5 Motion Detection

Like the other systems, the motion detection system is a state machine. Motion detection only occurs during the Autonomous Patrol mode. Motion detection starts by capturing two raw RGB frames from the camera. It then converts them to grayscale, and performs differential imaging on them. The image produced is then thresholded, blurred, and thresholded again. It then looks for contours in this image. Contours indicate movement in the image. If any contours are present then motion has been detected. The largest contour is selected as the moving object and a crosshair is edited into the image at the contours origin. This image is then sent to the user's GMail account with a timestamp and a message indicating that motion was detected. Depending on how the user's computing devices are set up, they will see this email immediately and take action. If no motion was detected, the procedures continue for a specified time interval and then exit. Figure 7.6-1 below illustrates the Motion Detection State Architecture.

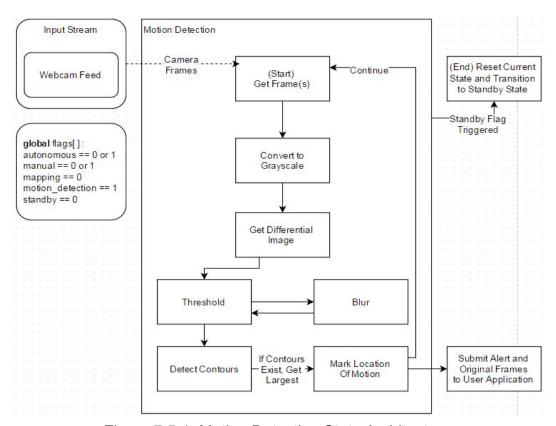


Figure 7.5-1: Motion Detection State Architecture

7.6 Mapping and Localization

We take a black box view of SLAM because we're not writing any of the code to actually implement it. Instead we utilize the hector_slam stack that is part of ROS. With hector_slam we have a verified SLAM algorithm with easily accessible inputs and outputs. It's only input is the formatted depth data from our Kinect, as well as the current map. It's output is the updated map, which some other states have access to. The depth data is formatted into a faked laser scan with the depth_image_to_laserscan node that is part of ROS.

7.7 Open-Source Libraries

ROS is the framework which holds our whole robot together. It is responsible for threading the programs we developed for the ASR, as well as the open-source programs and libraries we utilized. In addition to ROS we used OpenCV, Arduino libraries, and yagmail, a python-gmail interface. We will summarize what we used and how we used it in the table 7.8-1 below:

Source	Code / Libraries Used	Description
ROS	hector_slam	Used for mapping and localization systems.
ROS	depthimage_to_laserscan	Used to slice Kinect depth cloud into a fake laser scan.
ROS	ros_arduino_bridge	Drivers for communicating with Arduino and sensors through ROS. We customized it for our hardware and tuned it's PID controller.
ROS	libfreenect_stack	Kinect drivers
ROS	tf	Used for visualizing sensor data on the correct planes in RVIZ
ROS	map_server	Hosts and saves map
ROS	rviz	Used as a base to customized a user interface
Arduino	Vex 29 Motor Controller Drivers	Provides an easy interface with our motor controllers
Arduino	Vex 393 Encoder Drivers	Provides an easy interface with our motor encoders
Arduino	NewPing	Provides an easy interface with our sonar sensors
OpenCV	Image processing functions	Used in the motion detection system
yagmail	Python-Gmail client	Used to report alerts from the motion detection system

Table 7.7-1: Open SOurce Libraries

8. Prototype Construction

The following sections discuss the logistics of building our robot. First we discuss our plan for a high level PCB design as well as how we plan to manufacture the PCB. Last we discuss the order in which we plan to implement our software systems.

8.1 PCB

Designing our own circuits on a PCB, printed circuit board, is a requirement for Senior Design I. This will be a learning experience for us since there are no classes that teach printed circuit board, PCB, design. We will be using the online PCB design program Upverter.com. Upverter offers free membership for students. It is a PCB design site that let's one design a circuit and PCB with a large database of parts, create a BOM, bill of materials, from the design, and export the design to numerous formats. Will be ordering our board from Advanced Circuits' website, www.4pcb.com. They have student discounts for PCBs. They offer 2-layer PCB's for \$33 each and 4-layer PCB's for \$66 each. They also offer free PCB layout software.

To reduce costs, we will be using one PCB. The PCB will contain the both voltage regulation circuits and the ATmega328P along with ports for the sensors. We will also add add power ports for the motors to connect to. Fig. 8.1, seen below, is a high level design of our PCB.

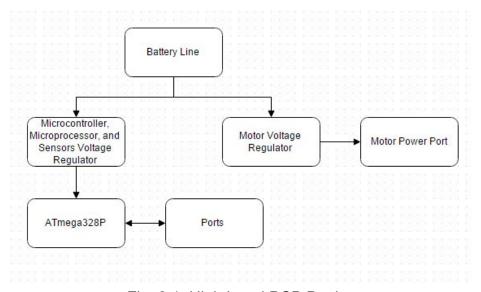


Fig. 8.1: High Level PCB Design

8.2 Coding Plan

A coding plan is necessary to establish which systems will be implemented first, but it also helps us determine what systems are most important. We've already determined that we're going to try and implement everything in Python, and that we will be using GitHub for source control. The following is our plan for the order in which we will implement our systems, followed by some justifications.

1. Sensor Processing

a. All systems rely on input to be formatted in a way that is easy for us to interpret, so this is critical to make implementing other subsystems easier.

2. Manual Navigation

- a. Manual navigation will allow us to move the robot around fairly simply and enable us to start working on SLAM and testing some of our hardware functionality.
- b. Since no user application exists a primitive debugger type placeholder application will be used.

3. Mapping and Localization

- a. This will be the hardest to implement as we will be trying to understand someone else's code, and how it will fit into ours.
- b. It's important to start early because this will most likely be the lengthiest system to implement.

4. Autonomous Navigation

- a. This system will also be difficult and time consuming to implement as it will require more advanced algorithms.
- b. Paves the way for motion detection system

5. Motion Detection

 Our scheme is fairly simple and shouldn't be difficult to implement later in development

6. State Manager

- a. After all our systems are in place we can finally implement the logic to control which ones will be active and when.
- b. Necessary for the user application.

7. User Application

- a. This system basically requires everything else to be finished as it will be responsible for sending instructions to the state manager.
- b. Will be fairly complex to implement, but not totally necessary to prove that our robot works. For this reason we will be willing to sacrifice it if we are running low on time.

9. Prototype Testing

In this section we will discuss the testing procedures of the ASR. We will begin by discussing the testing environment. We will continue by discussing the testing of the individual hardware components. Then we will discuss the testing procedure of the testing of integrated hardware. Next we will discuss our methods for testing the individual software components. Then we will discuss the software integration testing.

9.1 Hardware Testing

This section includes the testing procedures for the individual mechanical and electrical hardware components as well as the fully integrated system hardware system.

9.1.1 Environment

The testing environment will consist of the team members' homes as well as the senior design lab. The senior design lab will be used for testing the electrical components of the ASR due to the available equipment. The other subsystems can be tested at in the individual homes. The software and mechanical components do not require any special special equipment to be tested properly.

9.1.2 Chassis

This section contains the hardware test for the chassis.

Test Name	Strength Test
Objective	To ensure the chassis will support the weight of the electronics.
Supplies	Constructed VEX Medium Chassis Lexan (for electronics) 10lb weight
Preparation	Place the chassis on the ground with the lexan facing up.
Procedure	 Place weight in the center of the first lexan sheet Wait to see if it breaks or bends and touches the ground Place the weight in the center of the second lexan sheet Wait to see if it breaks or bends and touches the ground
Expected Result	The weight simulates the electronics that will be utilized on the chassis. The lexan should be able to support the weight without bending too much or breaking entirely. The electronics should not weigh more than 10 lbs so this should be a good test.

9.1.3 Wheels

This section contains the hardware test for the wheels.

Test name	Spin Test
Objective	To ensure that the small wheels spin properly
Supplies	Omni Wheels
Preparation	N/A
Procedure	 Pick up wheel Spin each of the small wheels by hand to ensure that they move Repeat with the other omni wheels
Expected Result	Each individual small wheel should spin freely. This ensures that the omni wheels are not damaged.

9.1.4 Power Distribution

This section contains the hardware test for the power distribution of the PCB.

Test Name	Power Test
Objective	To ensure that the power distribution components of the PCB output 5V and 12V.
Supplies	 PCB with power regulation circuitry Battery Multimeter
Preparation	Charge the battery before testing.
Procedure	 Connect the battery to the PCB Use multimeter to measure output of the motor voltage regulator. Use multimeter to measure output of the microcontroller, microcomputer, etc. voltage regulator
Expected Result	The output of the motor voltage regulator is 7.2 V. The output of the microcontroller, microcomputer, etc. voltage regulator is 5 V.

9.1.5 Sensors

This section contains the hardware test for the Sensors.

Test Name	Sensor test
Objective	To ensure that the bumper switch, ultrasonic distance sensor, and Microsoft Kinect are working properly.
Supplies	 4 bumper switches 2 ultrasonic distance sensors Arduino Uno Computer Arduino IDE
Preparation	 Connect sensors to the Arduino Uno. Connect Arduino Uno to to computer. Start Arduino IDE and load Ping sensor example code. Open a second window and load Button example code.
Procedure	 Load Ping sensor code to Arduino UNO. Open Serial monitor. Place hand in front of ultrasonic sensor and check results in serial monitor. Repeat for 50 cm intervals up to 4 m. Load Button example code. Press Bumper switch and check serial monitor for results.
Expected Result	For the ultrasonic sensor test, the serial monitor should display the distance that the hand is blocking sensor. For the Bumper switch test, the serial monitor should display that a button is pressed when the bumper is pressed, and the button is not pressed when the bumper is not pressed.

9.1.6 Microcontroller

This section contains the hardware test for the microcontroller.

Test Name	Microcontroller Test
Objective	To see if the microcontroller is working and can have a program loaded onto it.
Supplies	 ATmega328P Breadboard Jumper Wires Power Supply FTDI programmer USB cable Computer
Preparation	 Setup ATmega328P on the included breadboard. Plug jumper wires for ground and VCC and connect to power supply. Plug in jumper wires to the Rx and TX wires on the Arduino. Connect those wires to the Tx and Rx of the FTDI programmer. Connect jumper wires to VCC and ground on the FTDI programmer to the power supply Connect FTDI programmer to USB cable. Connect that USB cable to the computer. Open Arduino IDE Load Hello World sketch.
Procedure	 Turn on power supply and set it to 5 V DC. Load sketch to the ATmega328P
Expected Result	In the serial monitor on the computer, "Hello World" will be displayed.

9.1.7 Server Laptop

This section contains the hardware test for the server laptop.

Test Name	Server Laptop Test
Objective	To check to see if the laptop on the ASR is in working condition.
Supplies	Server Laptop Power cable
Preparation	 Remove the laptop from the ASR Plug in the power cable to the laptop
Procedure	 Turn on laptop. Let laptop boot. Log into the laptop.
Expected Result	The laptop will boot to the Ubuntu desktop.

9.1.8 Hardware Integration Testing

This section contains the hardware integration test.

Test Name	Hardware Integration Test
Objective	Test all of the hardware components together.
Supplies	 PCB with power regulation circuitry Battery 4 bumper switches 2 ultrasonic distance sensors ATmega328P Breadboard Jumper Wires FTDI programmer USB cable Server Laptop
Preparation	 Use the preparation and procedure from the Power Distribution Test. Use the preparation from the Microcontroller Test, but instead of using a power supply, use the Power Distribution circuit's 5 V output as the power supply. Use the preparation from the Sensor Test and plug them into the same pins on the ATmega328P instead of the Arduino Uno. Use the preparation from the Microcomputer Test, but instead of using the USB charger as a power supply, use the Power Distribution circuit's 5 V output as the power supply.
Procedure	 Turn on monitor. Plug in the battery to the Power Distribution test circuit. Let laptop boot. At the Ubuntu Desktop, start the Arduino IDE. Do the Sensor Test Procedure.
Expected Result	The laptop will boot to Ubuntu Desktop. Once Sensor Test procedure is completed, the Arduino serial monitor will show the results from the sensor tests.

9.2 Software Testing

Our software system is built up of smaller subsystems with known inputs and outputs, states, and use cases. Because of this, the following unit tests will be written in terms of those subsystems, which, at this prototyping stage, are still slightly high level representations. Our unit tests will be no different. Being that this a robotics project, hardware and software are very highly integrated in terms of functionality. Because of this, there may be some overlap between hardware testing and software testing, but we will do our best to separate the two areas. For ease of testing and to reduce the burden of how integrated our system is, our tests will be executed in a special testing mode which will output to our console as well as display any relevant material directly, rather than communicating it to one of the other subsystems.

9.2.1 Environment

Our testing environment will simply be whatever workstations our team members have for personal use. Software development is portable so there is no need for a restricted lab area. The server laptop will be running Ubuntu linux, must have adequate processing power for development and testing, and internet access. The server laptop is responsible for running all of the ASR's software systems. We will utilize GitHub for source control, keeping our repository on GitHub's servers to eliminate the possibility of losing code through hard drive failures or other unexpected issues. This will also allow us to easily manage conflicts and collisions in our code, and always have the most up to date version of the project for testing. Being that we are processing sensor data, whoever is currently performing tests must have access to the relevant sensors. We won't have multiple sensors of the same type, so these will have to be traded among the members of the group when necessary.

9.2.2 Terminal Application

This section contains the software tests for the terminal application.

Test Name	User Input and Menu Transition
Objective	Verify that the application is receiving user input, and that the correct menus and options are displayed for the selections that the user makes.
Supplies	Server Laptop
Preparation	Turn on laptop ASR software is installed
Procedure	Open the application Make a selection in one of the menus
Expected Result	The correct menu state is transitioned to for the selection you have made.

Test Name	Camera Feed
Objective	Verify that the camera feed is being displayed in the terminal application
Supplies	Server Laptop Kinect
Preparation	Laptop is set up with kinect ASR software is installed
Procedure	Open the application View the camera feed window Move camera around
Expected Result	Feed from the camera is visible to the user through the user application.

Test Name	Map Display
Objective	Verify that the map is displayed during the mapping state.
Supplies	Server Laptop Kinect
Preparation	Laptop is set up with Kinect ASR software is installed
Procedure	Open the application Select autonomous or manual mapping mode
Expected Result	Mapping view is displayed in user application, and map is updated as the kinect sensor moves

9.2.3 State Manager

This section contains the software tests for the state manager.

Test Name	State Manager
Objective	Verify that the state manager changes robot state given the correct boolean state flags.
Supplies	Server Laptop
Preparation	Laptop is on ASR software is installed
Procedure	 Open application terminal Type one of the ASR's modes into the application terminal Relevant subsystems should engage Relevant UI elements should be displayed Current mode should be declared in the application terminal
Expected Result	The state manager subsystem selects the correct state given corresponding state mode given by the user. Nonexistent states return an error warning.

9.2.4 Autonomous Navigation

This section contains the software tests for the autonomous modes of the ASR.

Test Name	Autonomous Mapping
Objective	Verify the state behavior of the autonomous mapping subsystem.
Supplies	1. Server Laptop 2. Sonar sensor 3. Tactile sensor 4. Kinect sensor
Preparation	Laptop is on Sensors are set up ASR software is installed
Procedure	 Open application terminal Execute 'map -a' Allow it to run for a few moments Place an object in front of the sonar sensor Allow it to run for a few more moments Touch the tactile sensors Observe console and current map output at all times
Expected Result	State machine state will be displayed in console. Begins with alternation between wander state and locomotion. When sonar is blocked, switches to stop state, locomotion, obstacle avoidance, locomotion, and finally wander again. When tactile sensor is touched, switches to stop state, locomotion, obstacle avoidance, locomotion, and finally wander again. Meanwhile the map is generated the whole time.

Test Name	Autonomous Patrol		
Objective	Verify the state behavior of the autonomous mapping subsystem.		
Supplies	 Server Laptop Sonar sensor Tactile sensor Kinect sensor 		
Preparation	 Laptop is on Sensors are set up ASR software is installed Internet connection 		
Procedure	 Open application terminal Execute patrol -a' Allow it to run for a few moments Place an object in front of the sonar sensor Allow it to run for a few more moments Touch the tactile sensors Observe console data and verify distances After time interval passes, wave hand in front of camera 		
Expected Result	State machine state will be displayed in console. Begins with alternation between wander state and locomotion. When sonar is blocked, switches to stop state, locomotion, obstacle avoidance, locomotion, and finally wander again. When tactile sensor is touched, switches to stop state, locomotion, obstacle avoidance, locomotion, and finally wander again. After the time interval has passed, the ASR detects motion and any registered motion is sent to the user's email.		

9.2.5 Manual Navigation

This section contains the software tests for the manual modes of the ASR.

Test Name	Manual Mapping		
Objective	Verify the state behavior of the manual mapping subsystem.		
Supplies	Server Laptop Kinect sensor		
Preparation	Laptop is on Sensors are set up ASR software is installed		
Procedure	 Open application terminal Execute 'map -m' Allow it to run for a few moments Press WASD to move Observe console and current map output at all times 		
Expected Result	Map is generated as Kinect sensor is moved		

Test Name	Manual Patrol		
Objective	Verify the state behavior of the manual patrol subsystem.		
Supplies	Server Laptop Kinect sensor		
Preparation	Laptop is on Sensors are set up ASR software is installed		
Procedure	 Open application terminal Execute patrol -m' Allow it to run for a few moments Press WASD to move Execute 'capture' Observe console and camera feed the whole time 		
Expected Result	Movement commands are properly displayed and captured images are present in user's email account		

9.2.6 Software Integration Testing

This section contains the software integration tests for the ASR.

Test Name	Robot State Control
Objective	Verify that a selection made in the terminal application manifests the correct state in the robot.
Supplies	 Client Laptop Server Laptop Sonar sensors Tactile sensors Kinect sensor
Preparation	 Computers are on VNC viewer and server are properly configured Internet connection is available ASR software is installed Sensors are set up
Procedure	 Open application terminal Repeat previous unit tests Observe output and behavior
Expected Result	Expected result of each unit test is the same.

10. Systems Operation

This section describes how to use the ASR from an end-user or technician perspective. First we will discuss how to setup the hardware systems of the ASR, then the software systems. Finally, we will discuss issues a user might run into and how to solve them.

10.1 Hardware Setup

- 1. Connect battery to battery charger.
- 2. Plug in battery charger.
- 3. When battery is finished charging, disconnect from charger.
- 4. Connect battery to ASR's power connectors.
- 5. Plug in FTDI programmer to USB cable and to the programmer pins on the Microcontroller board.
- 6. Plug in other end to the computer

- 7. Put Microsoft Kinect onto robot and attach to the velcro strips. Secure with zip ties.
- 8. Plug Kinect into the Kinect data/power cable.
- 9. Plug Kinect data/power cable's USB end into computer.
- 10. Turn on robot by flipping On/Off switch to ON.

10.2 Software Setup

- 1. Turn on your client laptop
- 2. Use a VNC viewer of your choice to remote desktop into the ASR's server laptop.
 - a. Ex) TightVNCViewer
- 3. Once connected to the ASR, the ASR's desktop should be visible.
- 4. Open up a terminal and execute the shell command './asr.sh'.
- 5. A new terminal will open and text will roll across it indicating that the ASR's various hardware drivers and software systems have launched successfully.
 - a. The State Manager terminal and Manual Navigation terminal should now be visible
 - b. RVIZ should launch with the ASR's configuration. A map, and two image frames will be visible. the top image frame is is the feed from the webcam. The bottom image frame should display 'No Image' this is where the motion detection images will be displayed when that system is active.
- 6. Close your original terminal
- 7. The state manager will display all possible commands and explain their use.
 - a. map -a Autonomous Mapping Mode
 - b. map -m Manual Mapping Mode
 - b. map m
 - c. map -r Reset current map
 - d. map -s Save current map
 - e. patrol -a Autonomous Patrol Mode
 - f. patrol -m Manual Patrol Mode
 - g. standby Standby Mode
 - h. report alerts Toggle reporting of alerts
 - i. shutdown Shut system down
- 8. Type one of these commands into the terminal to engage that mode or function.

10.3 Troubleshooting

In this section we will list some solutions to some common issues that may arise.

- 1. ASR is not moving.
 - a. Check to see that battery is charged.
 - b. Check to see that the battery is connected to the ASR.
 - c. Check to see if the power switch is set to "On".
- 2. One or more of the motors are the ASR are not moving.
 - a. Check the connection to the motor controller.
 - b. Check the motor controller's power connection to the terminal block.
- 3. One or more of the motors are moving in the wrong direction.
 - a. Reverse the connection of that motor to the motor controller.
- 4. Kinect is not found at launch
 - a. Unplug and plug back in from USB, wait for several seconds
 - b. If it's still not found, restart the system and check connections
- 5. Arduino is not found at launch
 - a. Shut down system
 - b. Unplug Arduino from USB and plug back in
 - c. Restart system
 - d. Repeat at least two more times if this doesn't work.
 - e. If the drivers still don't load, check the power and USB connections as well as the battery level
- 6. Alert reporter is caught in a loop of restarting and shutting down
 - a. You probably don't have an internet connection
 - b. If a connection is not available, go to the application terminal and execute 'report alerts False'
 - c. This will save images locally instead of trying to make a connection to GMail servers.
- 7. Most software bugs can be resolved by simply restarting the application.

11. Administrative

The following sections detail the administrative aspects of our project. First we establish a timeline of our goals, marked with specific milestones to accomplish. Then we discuss our budget.

11.1 Project Milestones

Below is a rough estimate of our project milestones. All dates are subject to change depending on revaluation of goals. We would like to spend the majority of our time researching this Spring, and prototyping this Fall, while still allowing adequate time for writing our reports and testing. We decided to begin our reports while in the process of designing and testing because they are the last task for each respective season. This should maximize our available information while also distributing our workload, allowing us a better chance to finish the project on time. Table 11.2-1 below Illustrates our Project Milestones

Task	Begin Date	Deadline	Duration
Brainstorm Ideas	1/12/2015	1/26/2015	14 Days
Define Project	1/26/2015	2/2/2015	7 Days
Research	2/2/2015	3/14/2015	40 Days
Design	3/4/2015	4/3/2015	20 Days
Finish Report 1	3/4/2015	4/30/2015	57 Days
Prototyping	5/18/2015	7/7/2015	50 Days
Testing	7/7/2015	8/1/2015	25 Days
Finish Report 2	7/7/2015	8/6/2015	30 Days

Table 11.2-1 Illustrates Project Milestones

11.2 Project Budget

Our project has received sponsorship from Boeing. We have been approved for \$580.11 from Boeing to cover the cost of parts. This is less than we requested. Our initial budget estimate was \$901.77, almost twice than what we were approved. We have updated our budget, as seen below in Table 10.1, with the parts that we have selected after researching them.

Part	Amt.	Unit Price	Total
Ultrasonic Module HC-SR04 Distance Sensor	2	\$8.99 (for two)	\$8.99
VEX Bumper Switch	4	\$12.99 (for two)	\$25.98
Microsoft Kinect	1	\$20.00 (Used)	\$20.00(Used)
Vex Motor 393 Motor Encoders	4	\$29.99 (for two)	\$59.98
ATmega328P	1	\$3.70	\$3.70
PCB	1	\$21.75 (for three)	\$21.75
Vex 393 Motors and Motor Controller 29	5	\$24.98	\$124.90
3.25 inch Vex Wheels	4	\$19.99 (for four)	\$19.99
Robot Chassis - Vex medium chassis	1	\$21.35	\$21.35
Tenergy 7.2V 5000mAh NiMH battery	1	\$89.00 (set of two)	\$89.00
Tenergy Battery Charger	1	\$22.99	\$22.99
Power Regulators and LED circuit components	N/A	N/A	\$20.00
Grand Total			\$437.63

Table 10.1: Parts and Budget

We have been able to reduce our budget to \$437.63, by using parts that we owned. We funded most of the project ourselves so that we could keep the ASR intact.

12. Personnel

Our team consists of three members: Brian Dodge, Nicholas Musco, and Trevor Roman.



Brian researched and designed the circuit board and power distribution system for the ASR. He also helped design the ASR's reactive system. Brian is currently a senior at the University of Central Florida, and will be receiving his Bachelor's of Science in Electrical Engineering in August of 2015. He hopes to pursue a career in electrical engineering and/or robotics, He is a member of Tau Beta Pi and Eta Kappa Nu.



Nicholas Musco researched, designed, and constructed the mechanical system, and propulsion system for the ASR. He also designed the hardware and software for the status LEDs. Nick is currently a senior at the University of Central Florida, and will be receiving his Bachelor of Science in Electrical Engineering in August of 2015. Nick will pursue a career in Electrical Engineering and hopes to focus on robotics, theme parks, or anything space related.



Trevor Roman researched, designed, and programmed the ASR's software systems. Trevor is currently a senior at the University of Central Florida, and will be receiving his Bachelor of Science in Computer Engineering in August of 2015. Trevor will pursue a career in software engineering and hopes to focus on robotics, computer vision, AI, or other interesting software.

Appendices

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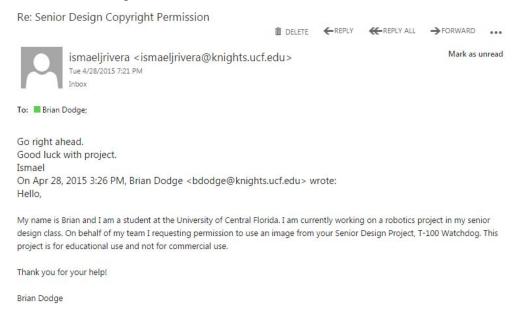


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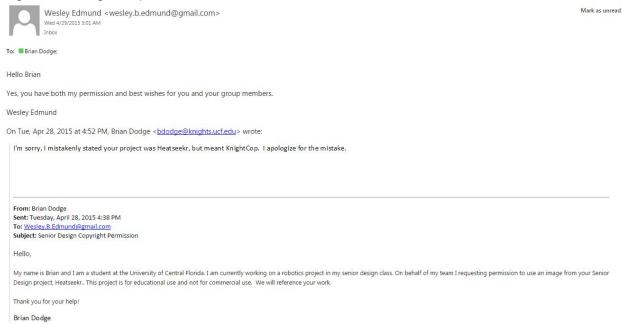


Fig. 3.1.5: Heatseekr: (Permission Pending)

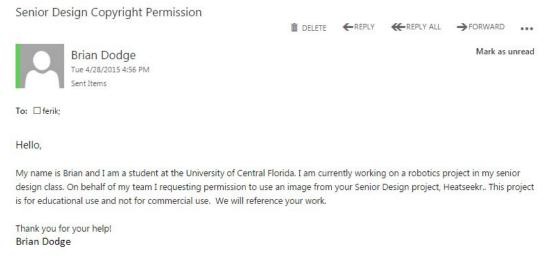


Fig. 3.3.1: RGBDSLAM 3D Scan Output (Left), Camera Image (Center), Camera Image with Keypoints Visible (Right)
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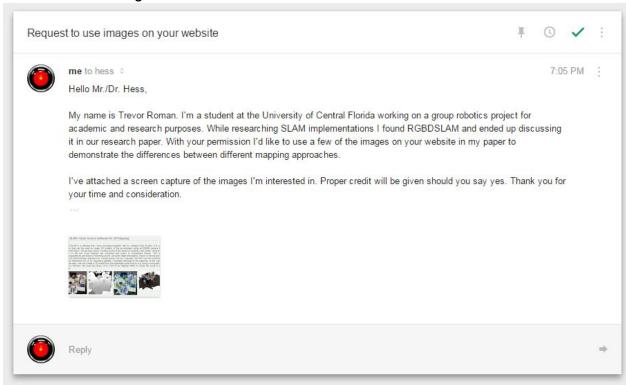


Fig. 3.3.2: Examples of GMapping Final Map Outputs Reprinted with Permission from Cyril Stachniss and Wolfram Burgard

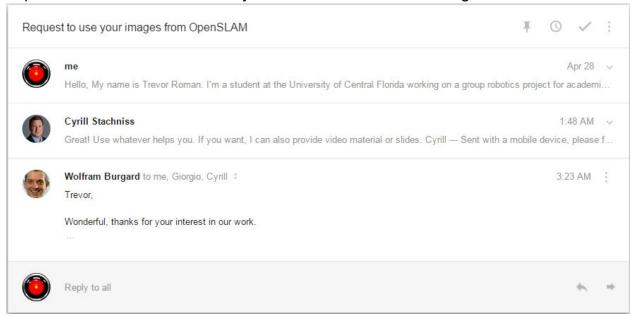


Fig. 3.3.3 Examples of HectorSLAM Intermediate and Final Map Outputs Reprinted with Permission from Stefan Kohlbrecher

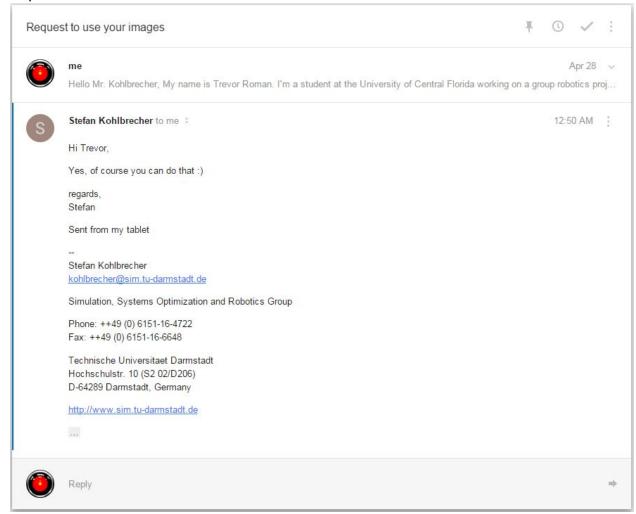


Figure 3.3.4: Examples of BreezySLAM Intermediate Mapping Outputs Reprinted with Permission from Dr. Simon Levy



Fig.3.4.1: Microsoft Kinect

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Fig. 3.4.2: Graphical example of a LIDAR point cloud

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Fig. 3.4.3: Sonar

Fig. 3.13.1: Reactive Behavior Model

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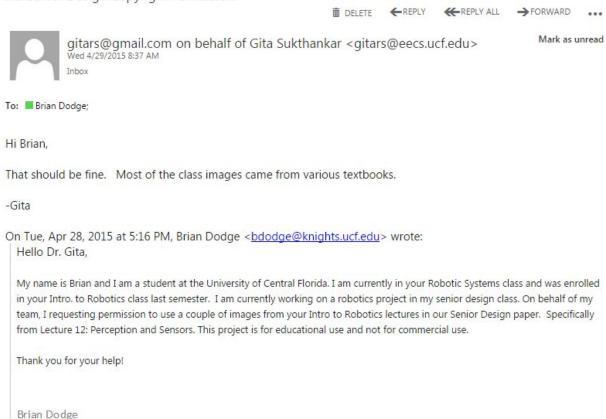


Fig. 3.4.4-2: SparkFun RedBot with limit switches. Permission Obtained

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Figure 3.5.5a: Table of Specs for Various Microprocessors -We Only Consider the First Three

Figure 3.5.b-e:Microprocessor Benchmarks Reprinted with Permission from David Hunt

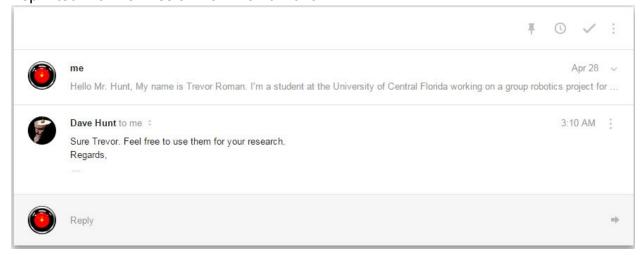


Figure 3.6-1:ATmega328 (with Arduino bootloader) Pinout. Permission Obtained Figure 3.6-2: ATmega2560 Pinout. Permission Obtained Permission obtained from:

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Fig 3.13.1.1: Example of How Sound Waves Bounce Back to the Sonar Sensor Fig 3.13.1.2: Example of Tactile Sensor Circuit

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Fig 3.13.2.2a: Market Share for Browsers - 3/15/2015 Fig 3.13.2.2b: Market Share for Mobile Operating Systems Permission Pending

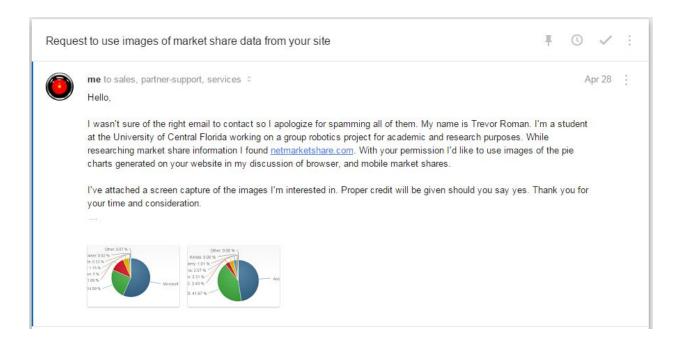


Figure 3.13.2.2c: Market Share of Android Versions
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Figure 3.10.3-2 Mecanum Drive, Figure 3.10.3-3 Omni Wheel Drive, Figure 3.10.3-3 "H" Drive System

Figure 3.11.1-1 Traction Wheel

Figure 3.11.3-1 VEX Mecanum Wheel

Figure 3.11.4-1 VEX Omni Wheel

Figure 3.16-2 Chassis kit medium

Figure 6.1.3-1: VEX Omni Wheels

Figure 6.1.4-1 VEX 2 Wire motor 393



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Figure 3.16-1 12" Aluminum Channel

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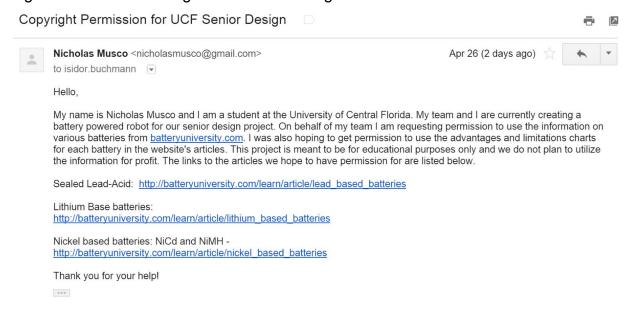
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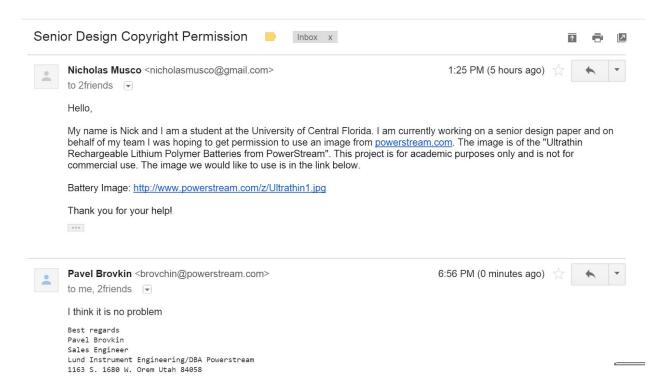
Figure 3.14.1-1 Advantages and Limitations of SLA Batteries

Figure 3.14.2-1 Advantages and Limitations of Lithium Batteries

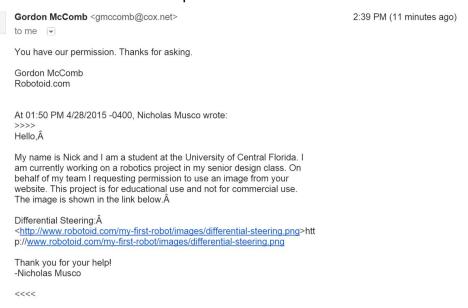
Figure 3.14.3-1 Advantages and Disadvantages of NiCd Batteries

Figure 3.14.4-1 Advantages and Disadvantages of NiMH Batteries

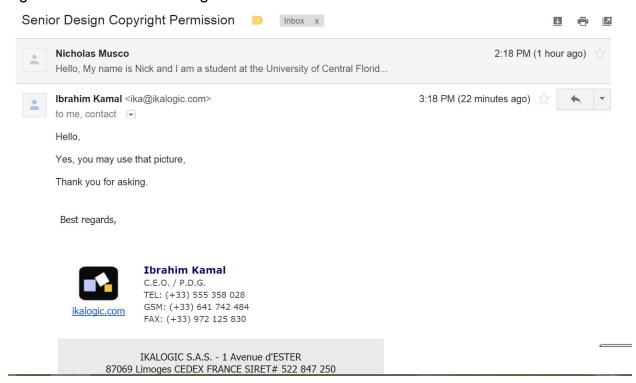




Robotoid: Permission Granted Figure 3.10.1-1 Differential Drive Example



Ikalogic: Permission Granted Figure 3.10.2-1 Car Steering



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Figure 3.12.1 DC Motor Types

Figure 3.12.1.1-1 Brush DC Motor Internals

Figure 3.12.1.1-2 Brush DC Motor Assembly

Figure 3.12.1.1-3 Commutator Operation

Figure 3.12.1.1-4 Permanent Magnet Motor Design

Figure 3.12.1.1-5 Series-Wound Motor Design

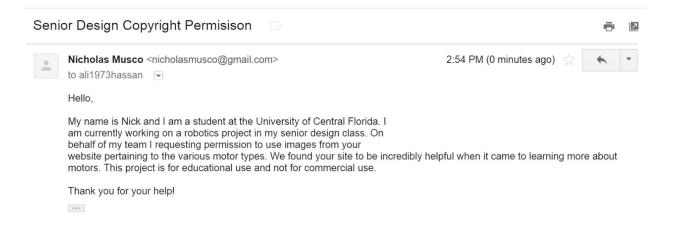
Figure 3.12.1.1-6 Servo Motor Design

Figure 3.12.1.2-1 Brushless DC Motor Design

Figure 3.12.1.2-2 BLDC and Brushed DC Comparison

Figure 3.12.2.1-1 AC Motor Types

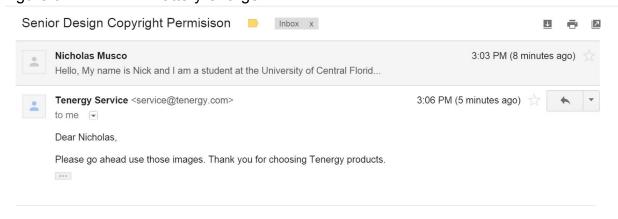
Figure 3.12.2.2-1 DC Excited Motor



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Figure 6.2.1-1 Tenergy 5000mAh NiMh Battery

Figure 6.2.2-1 NiMH Battery Charger



Appendix B - Works Cited

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Appendix C - Large Diagrams

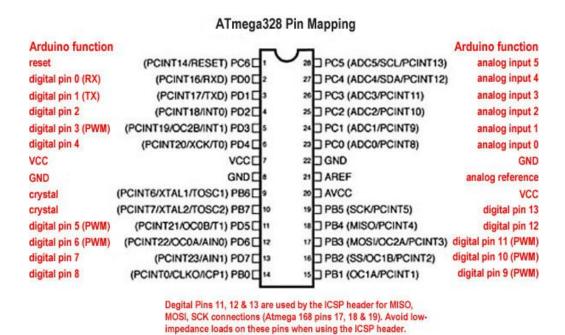


Fig.3.6-1: ATmega328 (with Arduino bootloader) Pinout. (Reprinted with Permission from Arduino.cc)

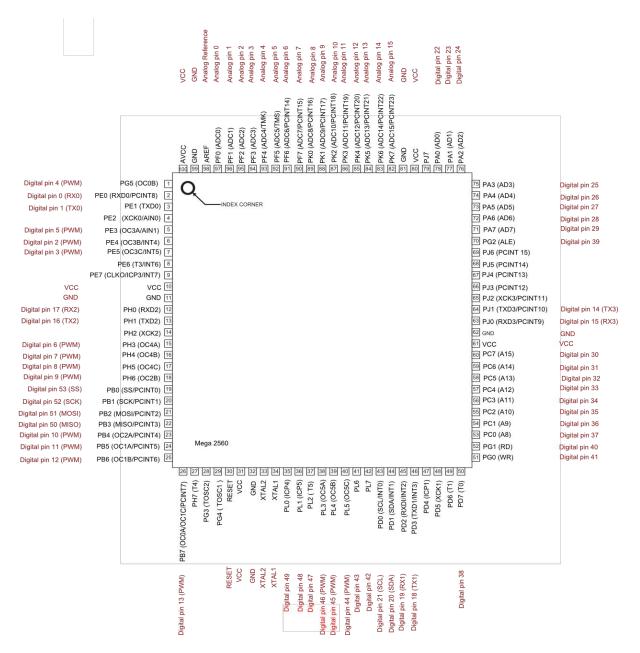


Figure 3.6-2: ATmega2560 Pinout (Reprinted with Permission from Arduino.cc)