

Fig. 14. Reached peak for a jumping Scout with a weak spring.

The peak of the jump occurs at the time of zero vertical speed, therefore  $t_{p\text{eak}} = (v_0 \sin \lambda / g)$ . Using (8), the coordinates of the peak become

$$\mathbf{p}_{v_0, \lambda}(t_{p\text{eak}}) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \frac{v_0^2 \sin \lambda \cos \lambda}{g} \\ \frac{(v_0 \sin \lambda)^2}{2g} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (10)$$

As the origin is set to the Scout's center, the radius of the wheels must be subtracted from this number to ensure a successful leap over the obstacle. This assumes that the foot will not interfere.

The launch angle can be selected at runtime, but is typically set to about  $60^\circ$ . The governing factor in determining the launch speed is the strength of the spring foot, and it can be expressed as a function of the peak height  $z_{p\text{eak}}$  yielding  $v_0 = \sqrt{2gz_{p\text{eak}}} / \sin \lambda$ . Jump heights were extracted from video sequences of jumping Scouts, as shown in Fig. 14. The measured height of 57 cm for a strong spring corresponds to a launch speed of 3.6 m/s. The weak spring gave 30 cm and 2.6 m/s.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

Models for the various modi of locomotion for a Scout robot were developed. They are governed primarily by the position and shape of the foot which, in turn, depends on the length of the winch cable.

The models evince that despite its small size, a Scout is capable of a surprisingly wide range of motions, including jumping over obstacles several times its own height.

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## Cooperative Hunting by Distributed Mobile Robots Based on Local Interaction

Zhiqiang Cao, Min Tan, Lei Li, Nong Gu, and Shuo Wang

**Abstract**—This paper proposes a distributed control approach called *local interactions with local coordinate systems (LILCS)* to multirobot hunting tasks in unknown environments, where a team of mobile robots hunts a target called evader, which will actively try to escape with a safety strategy. This robust approach can cope with accumulative errors of wheels and imperfect communication networks. Computer simulations show the validity of the proposed approach.

**Index Terms**—Distributed control, hunting, local interaction, mobile robots.

#### I. INTRODUCTION

Multiple mobile robot systems have been extensively studied [1]. As pointed out in [2], multiple robots executing a given task have to face some challenges: accumulative errors due to wheels slippage; imperfect communication networks (e.g., packet loss, transmission delay); etc. Therefore, an elaborate design for a multirobot system should be required. In this paper, we address specific issues related to the problem of multirobot hunting.

The hunting task, conducted by mobile robots and its target evader, is a particular challenge due to the nature of the unknown irregular motion of the evader. Its achievement is significant, especially in the military field. Yamaguchi has proposed a feedback-control law for coordinating the motion of multiple robots to capture/enclose a target by making a troop formation [3]. The linear autonomous system method has been used to generate the shape of a multirobot group to capture a target [4]. In [5], multiple objective behavior coordination is used to provide mechanisms for distributed command fusion across a group of robots to complete the task of cooperative target acquisition. In other related works, a pursuit game discusses two kinds of agents: predator (hunter or pursuer) and prey (evader or invader) [6]–[14]. It has been a testbed of multiagent cooperation. In [8] and [9], reinforcement learning has

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been used. The pursuit game and map-building problems have been combined in a probabilistic framework in [10]. In [11]–[14], the case of supervisory agents (such as a helicopter) that can estimate the evader's position but not capture it has been investigated.

In this paper, multiple mobile robots with limited sensing capabilities are required to hunt a moving target evader with certain intelligence. The robots do not have a global coordinate system, and the influence of wheel slippage is eliminated. Also, no explicit communication is employed. Taking the evader as the bond to connect the robots, a distributed approach called *local interactions with local coordinate systems* (LILCS) is proposed. The cooperation may emerge by local interactions among the robots.

The paper is organized as follows. Section II gives the proposed LILCS approach in detail. Section III mainly presents an active escaping strategy for the evader. Computer simulations are conducted in Section IV, and Section V concludes the paper.

## II. LILCS APPROACH

In this paper, the robots are labeled as  $R_i$  ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$ ). Each robot is considered an omnidirectional mobile robot with  $360^\circ$  visual capability, and the robot has only its local coordinate system (LCS). In order to perceive the environment for collision avoidance, a range sensor model  $S_{\text{range}}$  is adopted. The robots may recognize each other, and each robot can identify the evader. Each robot may acquire the positions of the evader and the robots near it. In addition, we assume that the visual ranges of the robots and the evader are the same as that of  $S_{\text{range}}$ . Compared with the robot's radius, its maximum sensing range is much greater.

In order to achieve the hunting task in unknown environments with some robots having only LCSs, a flexible LILCS approach is proposed, and the central idea is as follows: each robot makes its own decisions based on its ambient circumstance, and the cooperation may emerge through local interactions among the robots, which is beneficial to the task. For a robot  $R_i$ , when it does not know where the evader is, it is in *search* state and should find the evader first. Once  $R_i$  sees the evader, its pursuit begins, and the robot will take actions based on the detected evader and its neighboring robots. If the condition to catch the evader is not satisfied, the robot is in *pursue* state and keeps pursuing the evader, or else, the robot thinks that it is the time to catch the evader. This is termed as the robot being in *catch* state. Considering  $R_i$  may lose track of the evader, it should be capable of predicting the evader, and the robot is in *predict* state. Once  $R_i$  thinks the prediction is useless, it has to re-search the environment. The process is repeated until the task is completed.

In the following, the detailed designs for the four distinct states mentioned above are given respectively.

### A. Search State

Each robot in this state endeavors to find the evader by randomly turning left or right at an angle  $\tau$ , which is within  $(0, (\pi/4)]$  in order to make the robot explore the environment more efficiently.

### B. Pursue State

Once the robot  $R_i$  sees the evader, its pursuit begins.  $R_i$  establishes a local polar coordinate system  $\sum_i$ , whose pole and polar axis direction are its center and heading, respectively. Based on  $\sum_i$ ,  $R_i$  acquires the coordinates of the evader and the robots in  $\Gamma_i$ , which is the set of  $R_i$ 's neighboring robots who also see the evader from the viewpoint of  $R_i$ . According to the distance to the evader, three zones  $(0, x_{\text{near}}]$ ,  $(x_{\text{near}}, x_{\text{far}}]$ , and  $(x_{\text{far}}, +\infty)$  are generated, where  $x_{\text{near}}$  and  $x_{\text{far}}$  ( $x_{\text{far}} > x_{\text{near}}$ ) both are parameters determined by  $R_i$ 's maximum sensing range  $S_{i\text{-max}}$  and its radius  $r_i$ . We define  $x_{\text{far}} = S_{i\text{-max}} - k_1 r_i$  and  $x_{\text{near}} = S_{i\text{-max}} - k_2 r_i$ , where  $k_1$

and  $k_2$  are chosen to make  $x_{\text{far}} \in ((S_{i\text{-max}}/2), (2S_{i\text{-max}}/3))$ ,  $x_{\text{near}} \in ((S_{i\text{-max}}/3), (S_{i\text{-max}}/2))$ . When the distance from  $R_i$  to the evader is not greater than  $x_{\text{near}}$ , it is for  $R_i$  to judge whether it is time to catch the evader. The judging process is described as follows.

- Step 1) We denote with  $N_{\Gamma_i}$  the number of elements in  $\Gamma_i$  and  $N_{\Gamma_i} \geq 0$ . If  $N_{\Gamma_i} \leq 1$ ,  $R_i$  thinks that it has to catch the evader, or else it calculates the number  $n_{\Pi_i}$  of elements in  $\Pi_i$ , which is the set of  $R_i$  and the robots whose distances to the evader are within  $(0, x_{\text{near}}]$  in  $\Gamma_i$ .
- Step 2) If  $n_{\Pi_i} > 2$ ,  $R_i$  randomly chooses one from  $\Pi_i$ , which is denoted  $R_{\text{base}}^i$ . When  $n_{\Pi_i}$  is an even number,  $R_i$  obtains the robot  $R_{\text{near}}^i$  that makes the angles between the ray from the evader to  $R_{\text{base}}^i$  and the rays from the evader to other robots in  $\Pi_i$  minimal. Then  $R_i$  establishes a pole coordinate system  $\sum_{\text{base}}^{\text{eveni}}$ , whose pole and polar axis direction are the evader's center and the interior bisector direction of the angle between the ray from the evader to  $R_{\text{base}}^i$  and the ray from the evader to  $R_{\text{near}}^i$ , respectively. If  $n_{\Pi_i}$  is an odd number,  $R_i$  establishes a polar coordinate system  $\sum_{\text{base}}^{\text{oddi}}$ , whose pole is the evader's center with the polar axis direction of the ray from the evader to  $R_{\text{base}}^i$ .
- Step 3) Calculate the coordinates of all robots in  $\Pi_i$  in  $\sum_{\text{base}}^{\text{eveni}}$  (or  $\sum_{\text{base}}^{\text{oddi}}$ ). All polar angles are within  $[0, 2\pi)$ , and they consist of a set  $\Lambda_{\text{base}}$ .
- Step 4) When there exists a robot  $R_{\text{base}}^i$  such that one element in  $\Lambda_{\text{base}}$  is within  $[(\pi/2), \pi)$ , and another one is within  $[\pi, (3\pi/2))$ ,  $R_i$  thinks that it may catch the evader.

Based on the above judging process, when  $R_i$  thinks that the condition to catch the evader is not satisfied, it is in *pursue* state and has to pursue the evader first. The local decision making is as follows.

- Step 1) If the set  $\Gamma_i$  is empty,  $R_i$  makes its decision without considering other robots (go to Step 4), or else it obtains the robot  $R_i^{\text{min}}$ , which makes the angles formed by  $R_i$ , evader, and the robots in  $\Gamma_i$  minimal, and the minimal angle is expressed by  $\varphi_{\text{min}}$ .
- Step 2) If  $\varphi_{\text{min}}$  is less than  $\varsigma$ , where  $\varsigma = (2\pi/3)(N_{\Gamma_i} \leq 2)$  or  $\varsigma = (2\pi/(N_{\Gamma_i} + 1))(N_{\Gamma_i} > 2)$ ,  $R_i$  and  $R_i^{\text{min}}$  should cooperate with each other (go to Step 3), or else,  $R_i$  may take action based on its own intention (go to Step 4).
- Step 3) If the robot  $R_i$  considers  $R_i^{\text{min}}$ , it should move toward an ideal position, which is located in the ray from the evader to  $R_i^{\text{min}}$  with a rotation of angle  $\varsigma$ , and whose distance to the evader  $d_{i-e}$  depends on  $d_{c-e}$ , which describes how far  $R_i$  is away from the evader.  $d_{i-e}$  is  $x_{\text{far}}$  when  $d_{c-e} > x_{\text{far}}$ , and  $x_{\text{near}} - 2\Delta$  ( $\Delta$  is a margin) in other cases.
- Step 4) When no other robots are considered,  $R_i$  will move toward the position which is located in the ray from the evader to  $R_i$ , and whose distance to the evader is  $d_{i-e}$ .

### C. Catch State

When the robot  $R_i$  thinks that it may catch the evader, if  $N_{\Gamma_i} \leq 1$ , two cases are considered. When no other robot is considered,  $R_i$  hopes to move toward the evader directly, or else it will consider another robot, and the distance between its ideal position and the evader is  $r_c \cdot r_c$  is defined as  $k_3 r_i$ , where  $k_3$  is chosen to make  $r_c < x_{\text{near}} - 2\Delta$ . When  $n_{\Pi_i} > 2$ ,  $R_i$  will move toward the evader, and the distance from its ideal position to the evader is  $r_c$ . In this case, the decision making will last within certain steps ( $\text{step}_{\text{catch}}$ ) without examining the condition to catch the evader.

### D. Predict State

For  $R_i$  chasing the evader, if suddenly the evader is invisible, it should predict the evader within certain steps ( $\text{step}_{\text{predict}}$ ), based on

its motion information and the recorded position of the evader in its previous LCS  $\sum_{pre}^i$ . If the evader escapes along the direction away from  $R_i$  and moves in  $R_i$ 's maximum step size, the suppositional escape position of the evader in  $\sum_{pre}^i$  can be calculated. Then  $R_i$  obtains the suppositional coordinates of the evader in  $\sum_i$ , which determines the expected direction of  $R_i$ .

### E. Motion Strategy

The decisions of all four states mentioned above are made regardless of the obstacles in the environment. In order to ensure each robot moves safely, a motion strategy is proposed to combine its ideal motion with readings from sensors.

The robot adopts  $S_{range}$  to perceive the world. The nine sensors are arranged evenly, and the detecting zone of each sensor is considered a sector. These sensors are labeled  $S_i$  ( $t = 0, 1, \dots, 8$ ), starting anticlockwise from the reverse direction of the robot's heading. The robot may know the presence or absence of other objects in each sector zone, as well as the nearest distance to them. For the robot  $R_i$ , we denote with  $P_{rr}(\rho_r, \theta_r)$  the coordinates of its ideal position in  $\Sigma_i$ . The coordinates of the detecting border of each sensor in  $\Sigma_i$  are described as  $P_s^t(\rho_t, \theta_t)$ , where  $\rho_t$  is the maximum sensing range when no obstacle is detected. Otherwise, reading from  $S_i$  after the evader is considered, and  $\theta_t \in [-\pi + (2\pi/9)t, -\pi + (2\pi/9)(t+1)]$ . We denote with  $P_a(\rho_a, \theta)$  the coordinates of  $R_i$ 's next position, where  $\rho_a$  is the step size determined by  $\rho_r$  and the maximum step size, and  $\theta$  is the angle rotated by  $R_i$ . The goal is to seek  $\theta$  within  $[-\zeta_{rmax}, \zeta_{rmax}]$  of the robot's heading with predetermined  $\rho_a$ , such that the robot moves in a collision-free direction having the least angle with the ideal direction.

On the basis of sensory information, the distances from  $P_a$  to the detecting border of each sensor  $P_a P_s^t$  ( $t = 0, 1, \dots, 8$ ) should be greater than or equal to a safety distance  $D_{safe}$  determined by the robot's velocity and its radius, namely

$$P_a P_s^t \geq D_{safe} (t = 0, 1, \dots, 8). \quad (1)$$

The final value of  $\theta$  should satisfy (1) and make  $|\theta - \theta_r|$  a minimum. Considering the  $t$ th sensor, we have

$$\sqrt{(\rho_a \cos \theta(t) - \rho_t \cos \theta_t)^2 + (\rho_a \sin \theta(t) - \rho_t \sin \theta_t)^2} \geq D_{safe} \quad (2)$$

where  $\theta(t)$  are the values of  $\theta$  satisfying the condition of the  $t$ th sensor in (1). From (2), we get the following.

When  $|\rho_a - \rho_t| \geq D_{safe}$  is satisfied,  $\theta(t) \in [-\zeta_{rmax}, \zeta_{rmax}]$ .

When  $\rho_a + \rho_t < D_{safe}$  is satisfied,  $\theta(t) \in \Phi$ , the empty set.

When  $\rho_a + \rho_t \geq D_{safe} \cap |\rho_a - \rho_t| < D_{safe}$  is satisfied

$$\theta(t) - \theta_t \in [-2\pi + \arccos N_v, -\arccos N_v] \cup [\arccos N_v, 2\pi - \arccos N_v] \quad (3)$$

where  $N_v = ((\rho_a^2 + \rho_t^2 - D_{safe}^2)/2\rho_a\rho_t)$ .

Any value within the range of  $\theta_t$  should be suitable for (3), therefore

$$\theta(t) \in \left\{ \left[ \arccos N_v - \frac{25}{9}\pi + \frac{2\pi}{9}t, -\arccos N_v - \pi + \frac{2\pi}{9}t \right] \cup \left[ \arccos N_v - \frac{7}{9}\pi + \frac{2\pi}{9}t, -\arccos N_v + \pi + \frac{2\pi}{9}t \right] \right\} \cap [-\zeta_{rmax}, \zeta_{rmax}] \quad (4)$$

when  $\arccos N_v \leq (8\pi/9)$  is satisfied, and  $\theta(t) \in \Phi$ , when  $\arccos N_v > (8\pi/9)$  is satisfied.

The set of  $\theta$  satisfying (1) is defined as  $\Omega$ , which is the intersection of  $\theta(t)$  ( $t = 0, 1, \dots, 8$ ). When  $\Omega$  is not empty, the most preferred value of  $\theta$  can be obtained to make  $|\theta - \theta_r|$  a minimum, or else, the proper  $\theta$  cannot be found. In this case, the robot will only turn at a right angle  $\zeta_{rmax}$ .

## III. STRATEGIES FOR THE EVADER

Assume that the evader adopts the same sensor model as that of an individual robot. When the evader does not see any robot or static obstacle, it moves randomly; otherwise, it should move safely, and thus a safety strategy is required.

The evader establishes a local polar coordinate system  $\Sigma_e$ , whose pole is its center and polar axis direction is its heading. We denote with  $P_e^i(\rho_i, \theta_i)$  the coordinates of the detecting border of sensors  $S_e^i$  ( $i = 0, 1, \dots, 8$ ) in  $\Sigma_e$ , where  $\rho_i$  is reading from  $S_e^i$  when it senses any object, or else the sensor is ignored, and  $\rho_i$  is chosen at a far greater value than the maximum sensing range of the evader for calculation, and  $\theta_i \in [-\pi + (2\pi/9)i, -\pi + (2\pi/9)(i+1)]$ . Based on the evader's heading,  $Q$  (a multiple of four) directions are generated, and their set  $\mathfrak{S}$  is depicted as follows:

$$\mathfrak{S} = \left\{ \zeta_q | \zeta_q = -\pi + \frac{2q\pi}{Q} (q = 0, 1, \dots, Q-1) \right\}. \quad (5)$$

The evader may move to the position  $P_n^q(V_e, \zeta_q)$  with predetermined step size  $V_e$  without collisions, when the distances from this position to the detecting border of each sensor are greater than or equal to a safety distance  $L_{safe}$ , which is determined by the evader's velocity and radius; that is

$$d_i(\zeta_q) = \min(P_n^q P_e^i) \geq L_{safe} (i = 0, 1, \dots, 8). \quad (6)$$

When  $\exists \zeta_q \in \mathfrak{S}$  satisfying (6), the evader is still capable of moving, otherwise, the evader cannot find a feasible direction, which shows that it has been captured.

We label  $\Psi = \{\zeta_q | \zeta_q = -\pi + (2q\pi/Q) (q = (Q/4), (Q/4) + 1, \dots, (3Q/4) - 1)\}$  as the set of directions within  $[-(\pi/2), (\pi/2))$  of the evader's heading. When it may still move, the safety strategy is used to select the best one from all  $\zeta_q$  satisfying (6) in  $\Psi$ , and the best value  $\zeta$  should make  $\text{dis}(\zeta_q)$  a maximum, thus

$$\begin{aligned} \text{dis}(\zeta) &= \max_{\zeta_q} \text{dis}(\zeta_q) \\ &= \max_{\zeta_q} \min(d_0(\zeta_q), d_1(\zeta_q), \dots, d_8(\zeta_q)). \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

If  $\zeta$  is found, the evader will rotate  $\zeta$  with  $V_e$ , or else, it turns a right angle  $\zeta_{emax}$  without any change in position.

## IV. SIMULATIONS

A team of robots of ID 1, 2, ... adopting the LILCS approach is used to hunt an evader T, which is regarded as a special round robot. They have the same physical parameters: the radius, maximum step size, and maximum sensing range are 0.2, 0.1, and 3.0, respectively. The parameters in the LILCS approach and the evader's safety strategy are shown in Table I.

Simulation 1 adopts four robots executing the task in an environment shown in Fig. 1. Fig. 2 describes the variations of each robot m\_state. When m\_state is 1, 2, 3, or 4, the robot is in *search*, *pursue*, *catch*, or *predict* states, respectively. Initially, only the robot of ID 4 does not see the evader. At time step  $ts1$ , the robot of ID 3 loses track of the

TABLE I  
VALUES OF SOME PARAMETERS

Parameter	Value	Parameter	Value
$\tau$	$\frac{\pi}{18}$	$k_1$	6.5
$k_2$	8.5	$\Delta$	0.15
$k_3$	2.5	$step_{catch}$	15
$step_{predict}$	15	$D_{safe}$	0.3
$\zeta_{r\max}$	$\frac{\pi}{2}$	$L_{safe}$	0.39
$Q$	72	$\zeta_{e\max}$	$\frac{\pi}{2}$

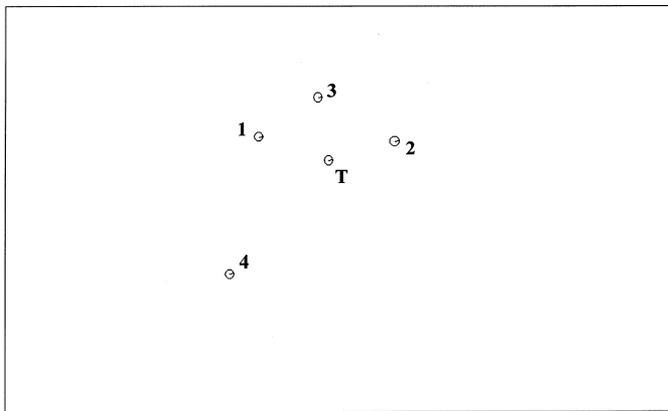


Fig. 1. Initial environment of Simulation 1.

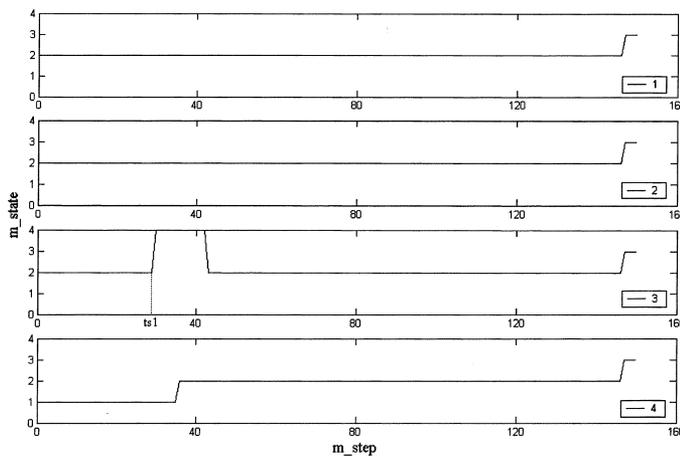


Fig. 2. State variations of each robot in Simulation 1.

evader. By prediction, it finds the evader again. At this moment, all robots pursue the evader. Ultimately, the evader is captured.

Simulation 2 is used to illustrate the robustness of the LILCS approach. The motion trajectories of all robots and the evader are shown in Fig. 3, where  $S_1, S_2, S_3, S_T$  are initial positions of the robots of ID 1, 2, 3, and the evader, respectively. After the robot of ID 2 becomes dysfunctional and stops motion in  $P_1$ , the robot of ID 1 has to chase the evader by itself until the robot of ID 3 also finds the evader. By the efforts of these two robots, the evader is captured.

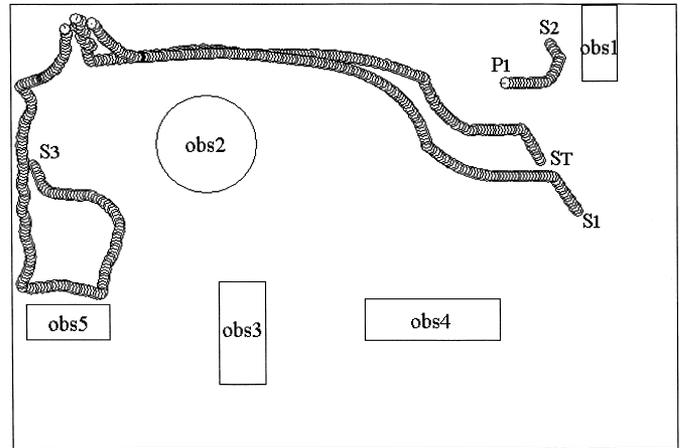


Fig. 3. Trajectories of the robots and the evader in Simulation 2.

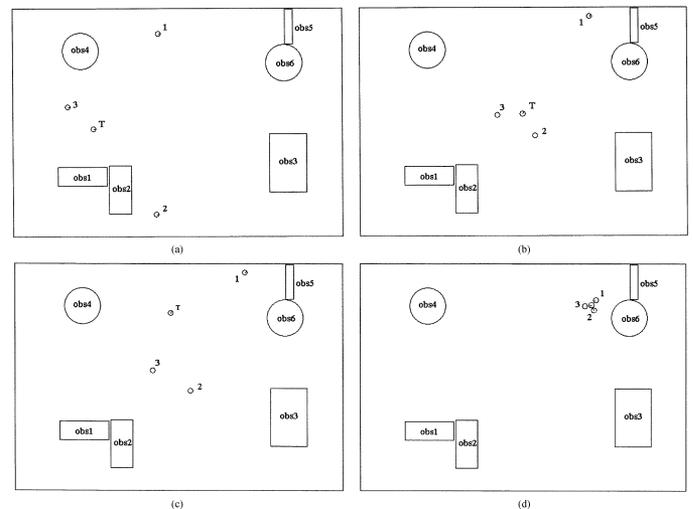


Fig. 4. Selected images for the hunting process of Simulation 3.

Simulation 3 is conducted to test the robotic system's adaptability. Fig. 4 gives several selected images, and the initial environment is shown in Fig. (4a). Fig. 5 depicts the variations of each robot  $m\_state$ . From Figs. 4 and 5, the hunting process may be described as follows. At the beginning, only the robot of ID 3 sees the evader. After a period of time, the robot of ID 2 also finds the evader. The cooperation between these two robots arises. When the robots arrive in the positions shown in Fig. (4b), the evader T is transferred manually to the position described in Fig. (4c). For these two robots, a sudden losing of the evader happens. They have to predict the evader, which is no use. So the robots of ID 2 and 3 are back to *search* state. Shortly, the robot of ID 3 sees the evader again and restarts to pursue it. Then the other two robots find the evader successively, and finally, the evader is captured by the efforts of all robots [see Fig. (4d)].

Because there is no communication among the robots with only LCSs, not all the robots participate in the hunting activity. From all simulations we conducted, the LILCS approach is considered a robust one.

## V. CONCLUSION

This paper mainly focuses on hunting by distributed mobile robots in unknown environments. In order to eliminate the effects of accumula-

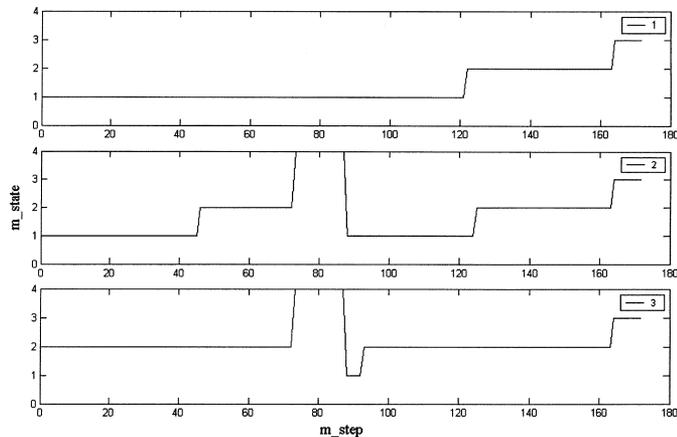


Fig. 5. State variations of each robot in Simulation 3.

tive errors rising from wheels slippage and imperfect communication, in this paper, the robots do not have a global coordinate system and no information is allowed to exchange. A distributed approach called LILCS is proposed. The approach is independent of the environment, and can cope with unexpected events. Each robot makes its own decisions by analyzing its ambient situation. The cooperation may emerge by local interactions among the robots. Simulations show the effectiveness of the LILCS approach.

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## Homography-Based Visual Servo Tracking Control of a Wheeled Mobile Robot

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**Abstract**—A visual servo tracking controller is developed in this paper for a monocular camera system mounted on an underactuated wheeled mobile robot (WMR) subject to nonholonomic motion constraints (i.e., the camera-in-hand problem). A prerecorded image sequence (e.g., a video) of three target points is used to define a desired trajectory for the WMR. By comparing the target points from a stationary reference image with the corresponding target points in the live image and the prerecorded sequence of images, projective geometric relationships are exploited to construct Euclidean homographies. The information obtained by decomposing the Euclidean homography is used to develop a kinematic controller. A Lyapunov-based analysis is used to develop an adaptive update law to actively compensate for the lack of depth information required for the translation error system. Experimental results are provided to demonstrate the control design.

**Index Terms**—Lyapunov methods, mobile robot, nonholonomic, visual servo control.

#### I. INTRODUCTION

Wheeled mobile robots (WMRs) are often required to execute tasks in environments that are unstructured. Due to the uncertainty in the environment, numerous researchers have investigated different sensing methodologies as a means to enable improved autonomous response by the system. Given this motivation, researchers initially targeted the use of a variety of sonar- and laser-based sensors. Some initial work also targeted the use of a fusion of various sensors to build a map of the environment for WMR navigation (see [19], [22], [34], [36], [38], and the references within; other early innovative mobile robot control research is given in [20]). While this is still an active area of research, various shortcomings associated with these technologies and recent advances in image extraction/interpretation technology and advances in control theory have motivated researchers to investigate the sole use of camera-based vision systems for autonomous navigation. For example, using consecutive image frames and an object database, the authors of [21] recently proposed a monocular visual servo tracking controller for WMRs based on a linearized system of equations and extended Kalman filtering (EKF) techniques. Also, using EKF techniques on the linearized kinematic model, the authors of [8] used feedback from a monocular omnidirectional camera system (similar to [1]) to enable

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