

Control and Obstacle Avoidance of a WMR, Based on Sliding-Mode, Ultrasounds and Laser

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Abstract— In this paper is presented an algorithm for trajectory-tracking and obstacle avoidance for wheeled mobile robots (WMR). The proposed algorithm creates a trajectory composed of a global trajectory generated off-line and local obstacle avoidance trajectories that are created when an obstacle is detected by the sonar and laser sensors. Only one discrete-time sliding-mode controller is required to track the resulting trajectory and it does not require separate controllers for following the intended trajectory and avoiding the obstacle. Quantic equations are used to generate the paths used by the robot and calculating the velocity, acceleration, angular velocity and angular acceleration needed by the discrete-time sliding-mode controller to avoid the obstacles. Realistic simulations and experimental results are performed to test the validity and performance of the proposed obstacle avoidance algorithm and the trajectory tracking controller.

I. INTRODUCTION

Wheeled mobile robots are used in many applications, to carry out tasks in unknown environments, especially for industrial applications. Their ability to perform such tasks depends on how the environment interacts with objects. Some of these applications require the robots to track a set trajectory. The WMRs must go around occasionally temporary obstacles, like a: broken robot, columns, boxes, tables and workers, and the robots will be unable to follow the desired trajectory leading to a full stop of the entire work. A solution to this problem is to include an obstacle avoidance module that will allow the robot to avoid the blocked part of the trajectory and to return to the desired trajectory. This solution will add a delay to the process but will prevent a full stop of the process. Sliding-mode control (SMC) is a robust approach that is used for applications involving nonlinear control. The SMC methodology has been presented in [1]. Sliding-mode has been used in many control systems, such as: [2]-[16]. One of the simplest obstacle avoidance algorithm is “the bug”, proposed by in [20]. This algorithm requires the robot to circle the obstacle before determining the best point to continue towards its goal. Other obstacle avoidance algorithms use virtual potential fields, like in [18] to determine the path the robot has to take in order to avoid

the obstacle. The algorithms consider that the robot is subjected to forces that pull the robot towards the goal and rejecting forces that pull the robot away from the obstacles. The robot’s trajectory results from the combination of these forces. A vector field histogram is used in [17] for obstacle avoidance, that uses a histogram to reduce the errors from the sensors. A bubble rebound algorithm is used in [19] to avoid obstacles. The algorithm uses a sensitivity bubble to determine if an obstacle is blocking the path. If an obstacle is detected the algorithm calculates the path that has the minimum density of obstacles and moves in that direction until the goal is visible or a new obstacle is detected.

An algorithm that is capable of tracking a desired trajectory and avoids obstacles that block the desired path by generating local trajectories and following them until the initial trajectory can be resumed is proposed in this paper. The global and local trajectories will be merged and form a new trajectory that can be tracked using only one discrete-time sliding-mode controller. The robot used to test the algorithm is the two driving wheels/two free wheels (2DW/2FW), PowerBot (Fig. 1). The obstacles are detected using the sonar sensors of the robot or the laser mounted on the robot and the sensitivity bubble algorithm from [19].

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: discrete-time, sliding-mode control based on kinematic model of the WMR is presented in Section II; bubble rebound obstacle avoidance algorithm for the 2DW/2FW. WMR PowerBot is presented in Section III; simulation results of obstacle avoidance, trajectory tracking control are presented in Section IV; some final remarks can be found in Section V.

II. DISCRETE-TIME SLIDING-MODE CONTROL

Consider the model of a wheeled mobile robot, presented in Fig. 2. The model takes into account the two diametrically opposed drive wheels of radius R , the distance between the wheels ($2L$), the angular speeds of the drive wheels (ω_L, ω_R), the center point (CP) of the robot.



Figure 1. PoweBot avoiding an obstacle using Urg laser

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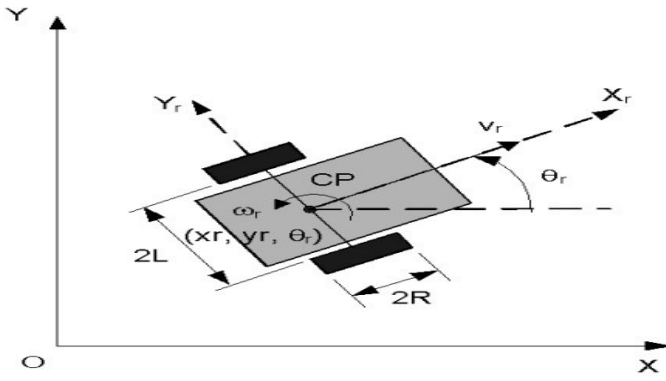


Figure 2. Kinetic model of a differential drive robot.

The localization of the robot is given by: $P = (x_r, y_r, \theta_r)$, where x_r represents the position on the x axis, y_r the position on the y axis, θ_r the heading of the robot, v_r the linear velocity while, (ω_r) represents the angular velocity of the robot.

Considering a sample interval T_s and a zero-order hold, the kinematic model in discrete-time is:

$$\begin{cases} x_r[k+1] = x_r[k] + v_r[k] \cdot \cos\theta_r[k] \cdot T_s \\ y_r[k+1] = y_r[k] + v_r[k] \cdot \sin\theta_r[k] \cdot T_s \\ \theta_r[k+1] = \theta_r[k] + \omega_r[k] \cdot T_s \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

The trajectory tracking problem is how to design a controller capable of tracking a desired trajectory. For this purpose a virtual robot, with the desired trajectory $q_d[k] = [x_d(k) \ y_d(k) \ \theta_d(k)]^T$, is considered and the following kinematic model of the virtual robot is obtained:

$$\begin{cases} x_d[k+1] = x_d[k] + v_d[k] \cdot \cos\theta_d[k] \cdot T_s \\ y_d[k+1] = y_d[k] + v_d[k] \cdot \sin\theta_d[k] \cdot T_s \\ \theta_d[k+1] = \theta_d[k] + \omega_d[k] \cdot T_s \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

The trajectory tracking errors where:

$P_d = (x_d, y_d, \theta_d)$ represents the desired pose, v_d the desired linear velocity, ω_d the desired angular velocity.

The trajectory-tracking errors are shown in Fig.5, and can be expressed as follow:

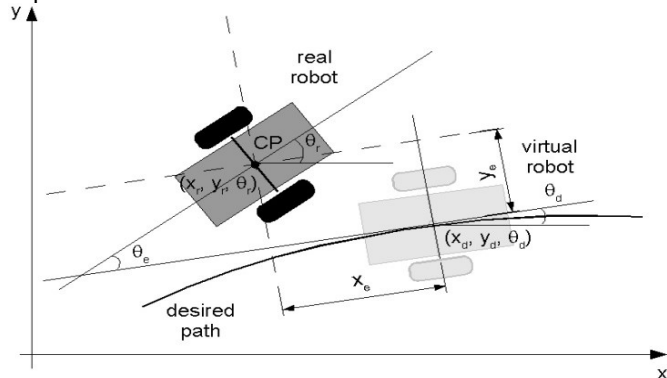


Figure 3. Trajectory tracking errors

$$\begin{cases} x_e[k] = x_{rd}[k] \cdot \cos\theta_e[k] + y_{rd}[k] \cdot \sin\theta_e[k] \\ y_e[k] = -x_{rd}[k] \cdot \sin\theta_e[k] + y_{rd}[k] \cdot \cos\theta_e[k] \\ \theta_e[k] = \theta_r[k] - \theta_d[k] \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

$$x_{rd}[k] = x_r[k] - x_d[k] \quad (4)$$

$$y_{rd}[k] = y_r[k] - y_d[k] \quad (5)$$

The error dynamics for trajectory tracking are defined as:

$$\begin{cases} x_e[k+1] = x_e[k] + (v_1 - v_d[k] + y_e[k] \cdot \omega_d[k]) \cdot T_s \\ y_e[k+1] = y_e[k] + (v_2 - x_e[k] \cdot \omega_d[k]) \cdot T_s \\ \theta_e[k+1] = \theta_e[k] + (\omega_r[k] - \omega_d[k]) \cdot T_s \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

where:

$$v_1 = v_r[k] \cdot \cos\theta_e[k], \quad (7)$$

$$v_2 = v_r[k] \cdot \sin\theta_e[k]. \quad (8)$$

are the linear speed along x-axis and y-axis, respectively. Corresponding to [4], the discrete-time sliding mode occurs if the following attractiveness condition is satisfied:

$$s[k] \cdot (s[k+1] - s[k]) < 0. \quad (9)$$

with s sliding surface. The reaching law proposed in [15] is:

$$s[k+1] = (1 - q \cdot T_s) \cdot s[k] - \varepsilon \cdot T_s \cdot \text{sgn}(s[k]), \quad (10)$$

$$0 < 1 - q \cdot T < 1, \quad (11)$$

$$0 < \varepsilon \cdot T_s < 1, \quad (12)$$

where $T_s > 0$ is the sampling period, $\varepsilon > 0$ is the reaching velocity, $q > 0$ is the converging exponential. The magnitude of the resulting chattering is limited within the quasi-sliding mode bandwidth:

$$2\Delta = 2 \cdot \frac{\varepsilon \cdot T_s}{1 - q \cdot T_s} \quad (13)$$

The sliding surfaces are defined as follow:

$$\begin{cases} s_1[k] = x_e[k+1] + k_1 \cdot x_e[k] \\ s_2[k] = y_e[k+1] + k_2 \cdot y_e[k] + k_0 \cdot \text{sgn}[k] \cdot \theta_e[k] \end{cases} \quad (14)$$

$$\text{sgn}[k] = \text{sgn}(y_e[k]), \quad (15)$$

where k_0, k_1, k_2 are positive constant parameters, x_e, y_e and θ_e are trajectory tracking errors. From (10) and (14), the sliding surfaces can be expressed as follow:

$$\begin{aligned} s_1[k+1] &= x_e[k+2] + k_1 \cdot x_e[k+1] = (1 - q \cdot T_s) \cdot s_1[k] - \\ &\varepsilon \cdot T_s \cdot \text{sgn}(s_1[k]) \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

$$s_2[k+1] = y_e[k+2] + k_2 \cdot y_e[k+1] + k_0 \cdot \text{sgn}(y_e[k]) \cdot \theta_e[k] = (17)$$

$$(1 - q \cdot T_s) \cdot s_1[k] - \varepsilon \cdot T_s \cdot \text{sgn}(s_1[k])$$

The discrete-time sliding-mode controller (the linear and angular speeds) is obtained from (10), (14), (16), (17):

$$v[k+1] = \frac{1}{\cos \theta_e[k] \cdot T_s} \cdot [-(1 - q_1 \cdot T_s) \cdot s_1[k] + \varepsilon_1 \cdot T_s \cdot \text{sgn}(s_1[k] - x_e[k+1]) \cdot (1 + k_1) - (v_d[k+1] - v_r[k] \cdot \theta_e[k+1] \cdot \sin \theta_e[k] - \omega_d[k+1] \cdot y_e[k] - \omega_d[k] \cdot y_e[k+1]) \cdot T_s] \quad (18)$$

$$\omega[k] = \frac{1}{v_r[k] \cdot \cos \theta_e + k_0 \cdot \text{sgn } y_e[k+1]} \cdot [-(1 - q_2 \cdot T_s) \cdot s_2[k] + \varepsilon_2 \cdot T_s \cdot \text{sgn}(s_2[k]) - \theta_e[k] - y_e[k+1] \cdot (k_2 + 1) - (v_r[k+1] \cdot \sin \theta_e[k] + \omega_d[k+1] \cdot x_e[k] - \omega_d[k] \cdot x_e[k+1]) \cdot T_s] + w_d[k] \quad (19)$$

III. SONAR AND LASER BASED OBSTACLE AVOIDANCE ALGORITHM

The robot is intended to track a given trajectory as long as no obstacle is detected. If an obstacle is detected a local trajectory for the avoidance of the obstacle is calculated and the robot will track this new trajectory until the obstacle has been avoided and afterwards will return to tracking the given trajectory. The robot uses the same discrete-time sliding-mode control for both the desired trajectory and the local avoidance trajectory.

For the sonar based obstacle avoidance algorithm the WMR PowerBot uses 14 sonar sensors in order to detect the obstacles. The sensors cover an area of 180 degrees and allow the detection of any obstacle that can block the robot's path. Fig.5 presents the configuration of the sonar sensors of the PowerBot. For the laser based obstacle avoidance algorithm the WMR PowerBot uses a URG 2.0 Laser (Fig.4). The obstacle detection is achieved using the sensitivity bubble from [19], This bubble is dependent on the robot's speed and allows for a good detection of the obstacles. Using safety coefficients and the robot's speed a safety area is defined inside the sensibility bubble and any obstacle detected inside this area will trigger the obstacle avoidance procedure.

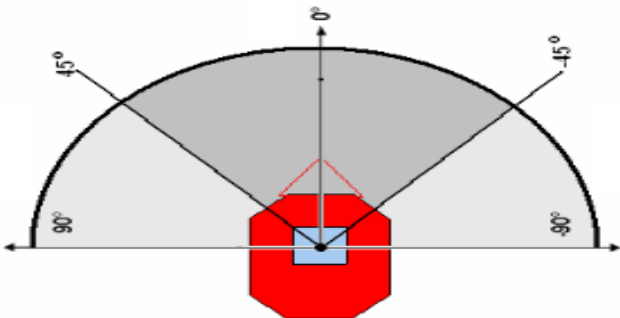


Figure 4. Laser detection zone

The components for the sensitivity bubble are calculated using:

$$b_i = k_i \cdot v \cdot T_s, \quad (20)$$

where: i is the number of the sonar; b_i is the component of the sensitivity bubble corresponding to sonar i ; k_i is the safety coefficient of the bubble corresponding to sonar i ; v is the velocity of the robot; T_s is the sample time. Fig. 6 presents an example of an obstacle that was detected by the sensitivity bubble. An obstacle is detected when the distance to the obstacle measured by any of the sonar sensors is lower than the component of the sensitivity bubble corresponding to that sonar:

$$\text{Range}(i) < b_i. \quad (21)$$

First a global desired trajectory is generated off-line using a program that calculates the desired velocity, acceleration, angular velocity and angular acceleration for each time sample. A program for generating the global trajectory is presented in [6]. Before imposing the trajectory to the robot, the distances measured by the sonar sensors are collected and the sensitivity bubble is calculated. Using this information the algorithm determines if an obstacle was detected. As long as no obstacle is detected the desired trajectory is fed to the controller and the robot tracks this trajectory to its destination. If an obstacle is detected the obstacle avoidance procedure is triggered. An obstacle detected using the sensitivity bubble is presented in Fig. 5. In order to avoid the obstacle, a local trajectory is generated. The local trajectory for the obstacle from Fig.5 is presented in Fig. 6. Define two search areas for the new trajectory bounded by the sonar arrays.

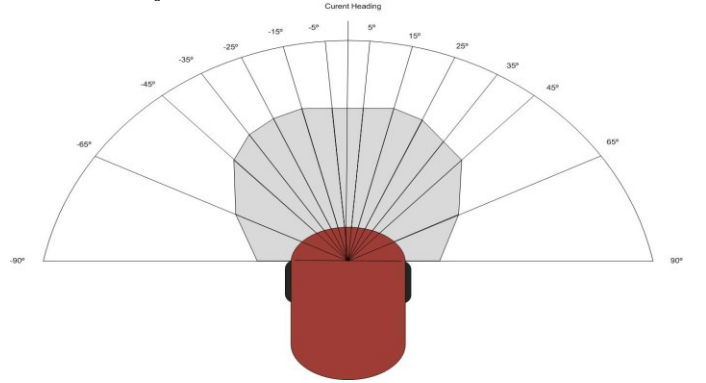


Figure 5. The sensitivity bubble of the PowerBot

The first seven sonar sensors determine the left area for avoidance and the last seven the right area for avoidance. The search will begin in the area opposite to the area with the closest obstacle. A new search will be performed in the other area if a solution is not found. First the coordinates of the end point of the trajectory that allows the obstacle to be avoided is calculated. This point is situated on the line perpendicular to the direction of travel from the point where the closest obstacle was detected.

Consider h_{\min} the width of the PowerBot plus a small safety margin, as the minimum width of an area that allows the passage of the robot. Once the search area was selected,

will search for the closest sonar to the direction of travel that does not detect an obstacle. The algorithm determines the points where the sonar beams intersect the perpendicular from the point where the obstacle was detected to the direction of travel. The algorithm tries to find a segment determined by the intersection points, starting from the intersection point of the selected sonar, which is at least long as h_{\min} . The desired point is located at the middle of this segment. The segment is searched using:

$$h = m_range \cdot \tan(\text{angle}(j)) - Ze, \quad (22)$$

where: h is the length of the segment, m_range is the distance to the closest obstacle projected on the direction of travel, $\text{angle}(j)$ is the angle formed by the sonar,

$Ze = m_range \cdot \tan(\text{angle}(i))$ is the exclusion zone, i and j are the sonar sensors used at the current step. The coordinates are determined using:

$$\begin{cases} x = x_r + m_range \cdot \cos(\theta_r) - \left(\frac{h}{2} + Ze\right) \cdot \sin(\theta_r) \\ y = y_r - m_range \cdot \cos(\theta_r) - \left(\frac{h}{2} + Ze\right) \cdot \sin(\theta_r) \end{cases} \quad (23)$$

The path from the current robot's position to $P(x, y,)$ is determined using Quantic equations [6]. The formula of the Quantic G^2 -splines is:

$$P_{i,i+1}(u) = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_{i0} + \alpha_{i1} \cdot u + \alpha_{i2} \cdot u^2 + \dots + \alpha_{i5} \cdot u^5 \\ \beta_{i0} + \beta_{i1} \cdot u + \beta_{i2} \cdot u^2 + \dots + \beta_{i5} \cdot u^5 \\ \theta_i(u) \end{bmatrix}, \quad (24)$$

$$\alpha_{i0} = x_i(0), \quad (25)$$

$$\alpha_{i1} = g_1 \cdot \cos(\theta_i(0)), \quad (26)$$

$$\alpha_{i2} = \frac{1}{2} (g_3 \cdot \cos(\theta_i(0)) - g_1^2 \cdot k_i \cdot \sin(\theta_i(0))), \quad (27)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_{i3} = 10 \cdot (x_{i+1} - x_i) - \left(6 \cdot g_1 + \frac{3}{2} \cdot g_3\right) \cos(\theta(0)) - \\ \left(4 \cdot g_2 - \frac{1}{2} g_4\right) \cos(\theta_{i+1}(0)) + \frac{3}{2} \cdot g_1^2 \cdot k_i \cdot \sin(\theta_i(0)), \quad (28) \\ - \frac{1}{2} g_2^2 \cdot k_{i+1} \cdot \sin(\theta_{i+1}(0)) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_{i4} = -15 \cdot (x_{i+1} - x_i) + \left(8 \cdot g_1 + \frac{3}{2} \cdot g_3\right) \cos(\theta(0)) + \\ (7 \cdot g_2 - g_4) \cos(\theta_{i+1}(0)) - \frac{3}{2} \cdot g_1^2 \cdot k_i \cdot \sin(\theta_i(0)) + \\ g_2^2 \cdot k_{i+1} \cdot \sin(\theta_{i+1}(0)) \end{aligned}, \quad (29)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_{i5} = 6 \cdot (x_{i+1} - x_i) - \left(3 \cdot g_1 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot g_3\right) \cos(\theta(0)) - \\ \left(3 \cdot g_2 - \frac{1}{2} g_4\right) \cos(\theta_{i+1}(0)) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot g_1^2 \cdot k_i \cdot \sin(\theta_i(0)), \quad (30) \\ - \frac{1}{2} g_2^2 \cdot k_{i+1} \cdot \sin(\theta_{i+1}(0)) \end{aligned}$$

$$\beta_{i0} = y_i(0), \quad (31)$$

$$\beta_{i2} = \frac{1}{2} (g_3 \cdot \sin(\theta_i(0)) - g_1^2 \cdot k_i \cdot \cos(\theta_i(0))), \quad (32)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \beta_{i3} = 10 \cdot (y_{i+1} - y_i) - \left(6 \cdot g_1 + \frac{3}{2} \cdot g_3\right) \sin(\theta(0)) - \\ \left(4 \cdot g_2 - \frac{1}{2} g_4\right) \sin(\theta_{i+1}(0)) + \frac{3}{2} \cdot g_1^2 \cdot k_i \cdot \cos(\theta_i(0)) - \\ \frac{1}{2} g_2^2 \cdot k_{i+1} \cdot \cos(\theta_{i+1}(0)) \end{aligned}, \quad (33)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \beta_{i4} = -15 \cdot (y_{i+1} - y_i) + \left(8 \cdot g_1 + \frac{3}{2} \cdot g_3\right) \sin(\theta(0)) \\ + (7 \cdot g_2 - g_4) \sin(\theta_{i+1}(0)) - \frac{3}{2} \cdot g_1^2 \cdot k_i \cdot \cos(\theta_i(0)), \quad (34) \\ + g_2^2 \cdot k_{i+1} \cdot \cos(\theta_{i+1}(0)) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \beta_{i5} = 6 \cdot (y_{i+1} - y_i) - \left(3 \cdot g_1 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot g_3\right) \sin(\theta(0)) - \\ \left(3 \cdot g_2 - \frac{1}{2} g_4\right) \sin(\theta_{i+1}(0)) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot g_1^2 \cdot k_i \cdot \cos(\theta_i(0)), \quad (35) \\ - \frac{1}{2} g_2^2 \cdot k_{i+1} \cdot \cos(\theta_{i+1}(0)) \end{aligned}$$

$$l[n] = \sqrt{(x[n] - x[n-1])^2 + (y[n] - y[n-1])^2}; \quad (36)$$

$$v[n] = l[n] / T_s; \quad (37)$$

$$\omega[n] = a \tan 2(y[n] - y[n-1], x[n] - x[n-1]) / T_s; \quad (38)$$

$$a[n] = v[n] / T_s; \quad (39)$$

$$a\omega[n] = \omega[n] / T_s; \quad (40)$$

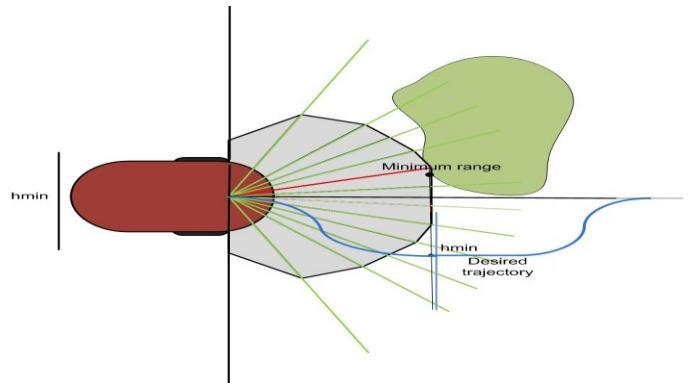


Figure 6. The desired trajectory for obstacle avoidance

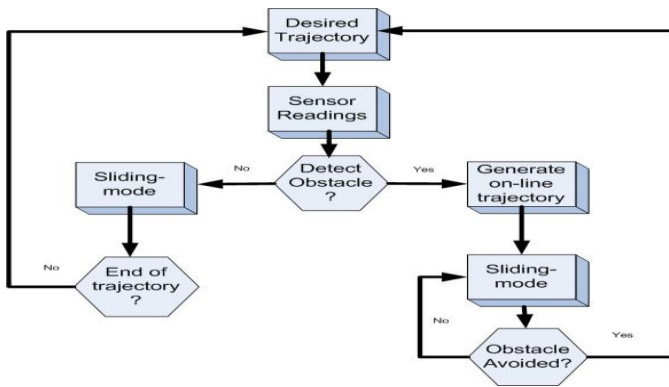


Figure 7. The schematic of the obstacle avoidance algorithm.

The desired trajectory for obstacle avoidance is presented in Fig. 6 with a blue line, the blocked trajectory is marked with a black line, and h_{\min} is the width of the PowerBot plus a small safety margin. The minimum range is the sensitivity bubble marked with a red line.

This new trajectory is fed to the controller and when the robot reaches the end point of the trajectory it will move forward in a straight line with constant velocity until the obstacle has been cleared. Once the obstacle has been cleared a return trajectory is calculated and the initial trajectory is resumed (see the schematic of the obstacle avoidance algorithm from Fig.7). The obstacle avoidance procedure is the same for both laser and sonar experiment.

IV. SIMULATION AND REAL-TIME CONTROL

A. Simulation results

Simulation results are presented in order to validate the proposed algorithm for obstacle avoidance. All the simulations were made using MobileSim which is a software designed to simulate the behavior of robots produced by Adept Mobile Robots Inc. A map with the simulated obstacles was created using Maper3Basic and loaded into Mobilesim. The trajectory tracking was first tested in the absence of any obstacle and the robot followed the intended trajectory with small tracking errors.

The obstacle avoidance performance of the algorithm is tested using the trajectory as the global trajectory needed to be tracked and two obstacles blocking this path. Fig. 8. and Fig. 9. show the MobileSim simulated trajectory of the robot obtained after avoiding the obstacles. It can be seen that the algorithm allows the robot to avoid the obstacles and continue on its initial trajectory when the path is clear. Fig. 10 and Fig. 11 presents the simulated trajectory and the desired trajectory resulted from the initial trajectory and the local avoidance trajectories.

B. Real-Time results

In Fig. 12 is presented the results from the real-time experiment using the laser with one obstacle blocking the intended trajectory. From this figures it can be determined that the algorithm is capable of tracking a desired trajectory and avoid obstacles, that block the intended path, and resume the initial trajectory afterwards. The switch between the initial trajectory and the local avoidance trajectory and back increase the trajectory-tracking errors. One of the causes for the larger tracking errors can be attributed to the delay caused

by the time required to obtain the sonar readings and process the information, which leads to higher delays in the command inputs as opposed to the case when only the sliding-mode control is used and the sonars are disabled.

Real-Time experiments are carried out on the PowerBot which is a mobile robot specially designed for autonomous, intelligent navigation and handling of large payloads.

V. CONCLUSIONS

An algorithm for discrete-time sliding-mode control and obstacle avoidance for wheeled mobile robots is presented in this paper. The effectiveness of this algorithm is proven by good results from simulations and real-time experiments.

The robot tracks a global trajectory and, if an obstacle is detected, a local trajectory is generated and followed until the obstacle is cleared and the initial trajectory is resumed. Both trajectories are followed using the same discrete-time sliding mode controller. An increase of the errors in the trajectory tracking is caused by switching from the global and local trajectories, but the robot can still follow the trajectory with satisfactory precision.

The advantage of using lasers to detect obstacles, reduce the number of unwanted situations because they can scan the surface compared with the sonar.

In the future we plan to adapt this algorithm for avoiding mobile obstacles with small delays using super-twisted sliding mode control, and could be able to eliminate the chattering problem which improves the performance of the trajectory-tracking control.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This work was supported by the Romanian Executive Unit of Funding Higher Education, Research, Development and Innovation (UEFISCDI), project number PN-II-ID-PCE-2011-3-0641, project title: *Advanced control of reversible manufacturing systems of assembling and disassembling using wheeled mobile robots equipped with robotic manipulators* and by the project number PN-II-PT-PCCA-2013-4-0686, project title: *Prototypes of autonomous robotic systems for medical/social assistance and servicing of manufacturing processes in metallurgy, ceramics, glass and automotive.*

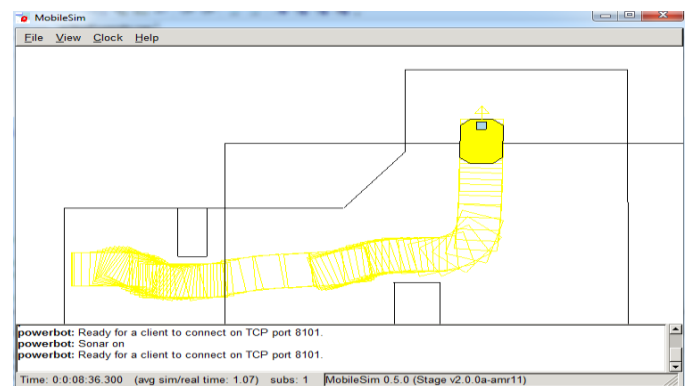


Figure 8. The MobileSim simulated trajectory with 2 obstacles blocking the intended trajectory for sonars

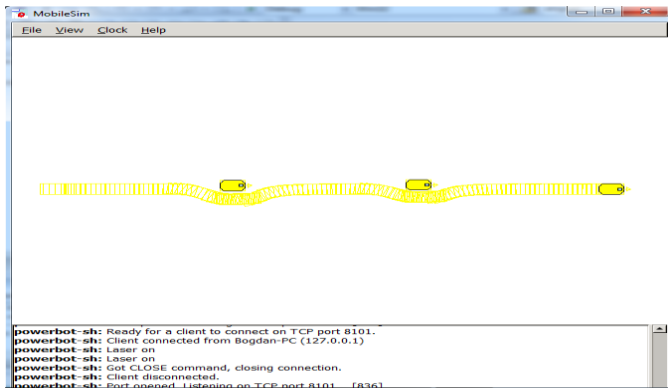


Figure 9. The MobileSim simulated trajectory with 2 obstacles blocking the intended trajectory for laser

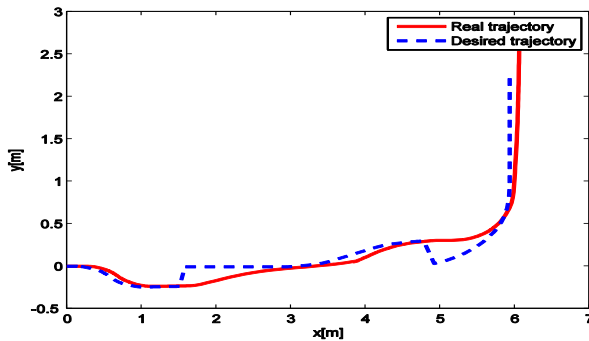


Figure 10. The simulated trajectory and the desired trajectory for sonars

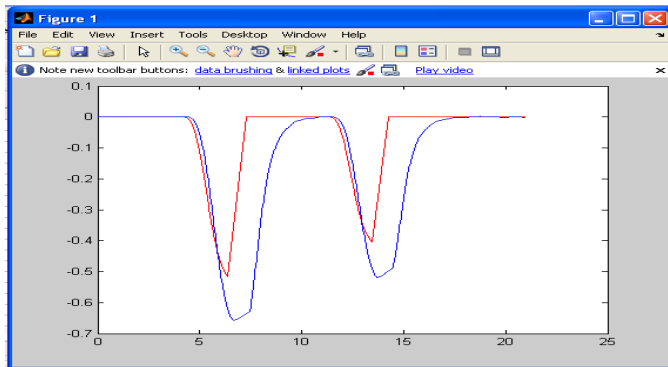


Figure 11. The simulated trajectory and the desired trajectory for laser

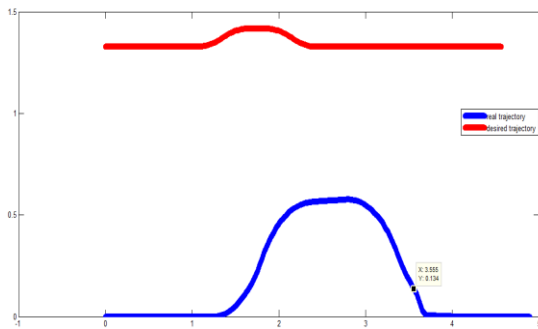


Figure 12. Real-Time results of the desired trajectory and real trajectory

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