

Tele-operator performance and their perception of system time lags when completing mobile robot tasks

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Abstract-E ffects of motion lag on the capability of a tele-operated mobile-robot operator are investigated . Lags can occur through communication delays as tele-operated mobile robots work at a distance or because of a lack of parallel computing power as robots are enhanced with add itional systems. This work concentrates on time lag in a tele-operated mobile robot system and investigates when a mobile robot operator might begin to perceive a lag in the movement of a mobile robot. A threshold of permissible lag is established for mobile robot operators that relates to the maximum time lag before an operator noticed a lag.

Keywords-lag; tele-operated; mobile; motion; robot.

I. INTRODUCTION

The effect of time delays is investigated. Performance is studied using a tele-operated mobile-robot in a variety of environments. An umbilical cable connected a joystick to the robot and the robot had ultrasonic sensors on board that could be switched in or out and that could help a tele-operator to avoid obstacles.

The joystick was used to control the mobile-robot and tele-operators drove the robot along a sequence of routes both with and without sensors to assist.

After briefly describing the sensors and mobile-robot hardware, then testing is described and results are reported. Finally there is some discussion and some suggestions for future work.

Main conclusions are that an operator may accomplish more without any sensors providing any help in straightforward and undemanding environments, but they need sensors as the environment becomes more complicated or time delay is introduced and that there is a maximum level of time lag beyond which a human operator becomes aware that there is a lag and that maximum level can be measured.

Failure rates increased significantly as time delay was introduced and the sensors were not engaged. Performance improved with the sensors as environments became more complicated but in both cases there was a level of time delay at which an operator would notice the lag. It might be especially useful if the sensors could be switched in to assist at the moment when the time lag is beginning to be noticed.

In more complex surroundings then tele-operators were quicker and had fewer collisions when using sensors to help them, especially time delays were introduced and then extended. That built on some results from [1-2] who suggested global performance was better if tele-operators were allowed to act in their own space and without sensors interfering.

Testing took place within and around the University of Portsmouth. The tests were made more complicated for each group of investigations by adding to the number of objects (usually cardboard boxes) and including some slopes. Umbilical systems were assessed because they may be used in places like the nuclear industry (2) as the mobile robot can be pulled out of the environment by the umbilical cord if the robot fails.

Time lag from an input given by a joystick to a requested output to the motor controller is a factor that influences driving performance [3]. Performance can be affected if an operator perceives a time lag. This work found that an onset amount of perceived lag exists t_{maxlag} , when a tele-operator will realize that there is a time lag in the system. The operator may also be sensitive to a phase lag because as frequency increased, the phase lag of the system increased. That is being investigated in some further work but results from that testing are inconclusive at the time of writing.

The length of time lag when the operator begins to notice the lag is t_{maxlag} , The Perception Time. Time lags have been investigated in [4-5] but the perception of the lag has seldom been studied, exceptions being [2] who mentioned the idea and [3] that investigated time lag for a robot arm. The perception of time lag has never been properly investigated for tele-operated mobile robots.

II. BACKGROUND

Several systems help human operators execute their tasks in remote or hazardous environments [6-9] and investigations have taken place to explore the way tele-operators cooperate and act together with mobile robots [10-12] but they didn't take into account any time delays. If a tele-operator is separated from a remote site then a time delay can exist. All delays add distortion [13] and degrade performance [14]. Tele-operation systems have a tendency to find some middle ground between clarity and stability margin [15]. Some approaches concerning the control of tele-operated structures with a constant time delay have been described [16-17] and for varying time delays in [3] and [18-19].

Mobile-robots can find unstructured environments difficult [20-26]. Tele-operation means that robots can be controlled and directed from a safe place that is away from hazards [27]. Wheeled mobile robots are studied in the research described here because they are still the most common [22-24] and [28].

Manual controls are usually used to direct a tele-operated mobile-robot. The master has often included a joystick as the input device [22-24]. The input is usually a low current device and the mobile robot (or other target system) is a much higher high current device, for example DC-servo motors. They are sometimes controlled remotely via radio or an umbilical cable.

Research has attempted to improve tele-operation for inspection and maintenance purposes, especially where there are dangerous hazards or in foul or hostile surroundings [27]. Autonomous control may not always be needed or wanted and human tele-operators can steer mobile-robots instead. A human driver can often drive along a route more efficiently than a computer. Very complicated manipulations can be accomplished using a wheeled base with manipulator arm mounted on it [29-31].

There are emergency situations when time is critical and it is especially important that there is efficient interaction between human- and robot. The research described here investigates that interfacing and collaboration with variable amounts of time delay being introduced during testing.

Tele-operation has tended to be open loop. Tele-operators indicate direction and a mobile-robot moves in that direction. Disturbances can include variances between the wheels or tractors or dissimilar responses to different surfaces and gradients, in addition to time delays. Tele-operators have reacted to those disturbances and corrected the path and trajectory.

Tele-operation is described in [32] and guided vehicles in [33] and two influential papers are by Sheridan [8] and [34].

The tele-operated mobile robot used in this work is described in the next Section. It had a sensor system that could be switched in or out.

III. THE TELE-OPERATED MOBILE ROBOT

Fig. 1 is a picture of the mobile robot base.

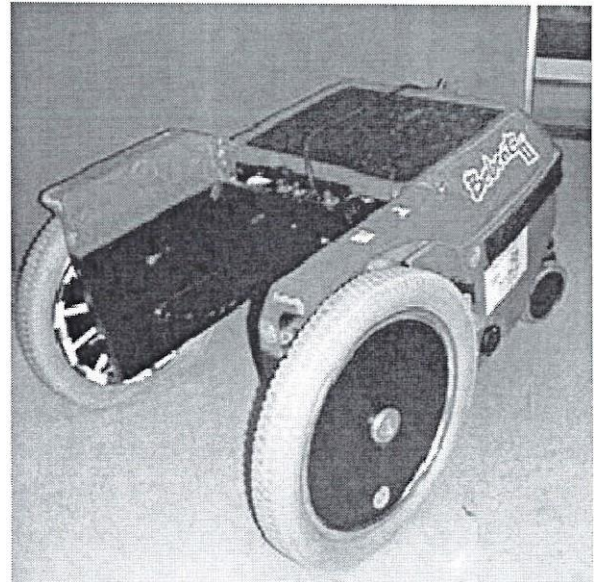


Fig. 1. Bobcat II mobile robot base

The big wheels at the front were DC-Motors driven by DC servo-amplifiers. A joystick was used to provide the desired direction and speed. The tele-operated mobile robot was adapted to incorporate additional control systems and sensors.

Two trailing castors were at the back and the driving wheels were at the front. Ultrasonic sensors were fixed above each drive wheel. Varying the difference between the rotational speeds of each of the two driving wheels steered the robot base.

Ultrasonics have been extensively used for mobile robots and tele-operated mobile robots [2], [9] and [22-26] and wheelchairs [27-33]. Ultrasonics were selected because they were straightforward, robust and trouble-free. Pairs of transmitters and receivers were installed above the driving wheels and facing forwards.

Ultrasonic echoes were translated into a minimal depiction of the situation in front of the mobile robot. Integral functions were applied to the joystick input so that the inclination to rotate away from objects could be overridden by the human tele-operator. Algorithms used to mix the inputs to the tele-

operated mobile robot from the joystick and sensors have been described in [22-26]. The mobile robot was controlled via "fly-by-wire" [11] and [42]. The connection between the tele-operated mobile robot and the joystick was disconnected (Fig. 2).

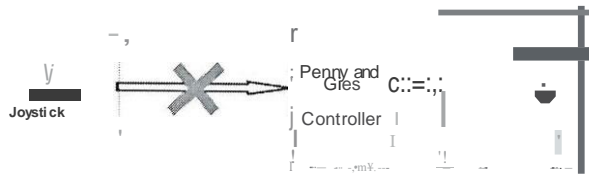


Fig. 2. Breaking the link between the joystick and controller.

Instead, a computer managed the control of the mobile robot base (Fig. 3). The ultrasonic sensors were triggered by the computer and then it adjusted the path of the robots if required. Sensors could be switched off and the joystick input could be sent straight to the De Servo-controller. In that state, the robots reacted directly to input from the joysticks.

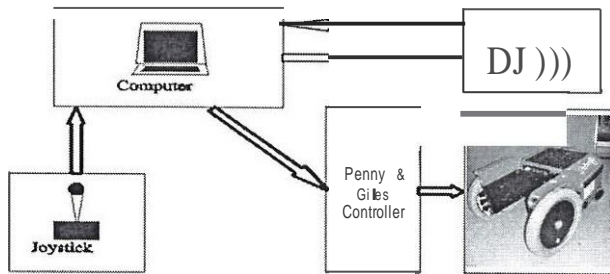


Fig. 3. Computer control by "fly-by-wire".

The computer applied three rules: (1) Tele-operator stayed in control. (2) Sensors only modified a mobile robot path when they needed to. (3) Mobile robot trajectories were even and flowing.

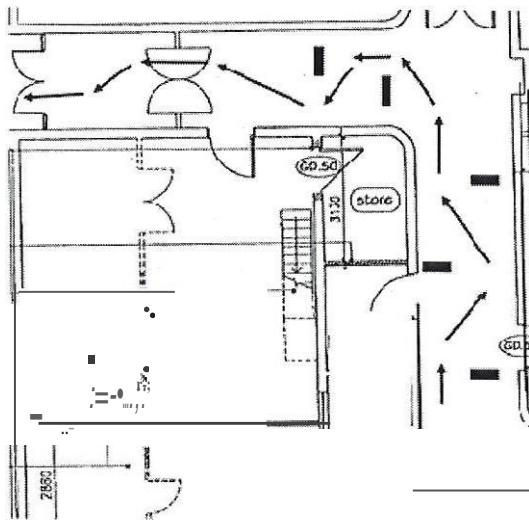


Fig. 4. Complicated Corridor 3.

IV. TESTING

The tele-operator drove the mobile robot and the computer could introduce a time delay, t_d , to the joystick input commands so that the actual commands to the DC-Servo Amplifiers was late [2]. Instead if the actual joystick signal, $v(t)$, a delayed signal, v_d , was sent to the servo amplifiers and therefore the drive motors for the mobile robot.

An example of a test route is shown in Fig. 4. It is a map of Complicated Corridor number 3. Arrows depict the route of the mobile robot and dark rectangles show the positions of movable objects placed there for the test. The corridor contained 2 sets of double doors. Only one of the doors of each was opened and fixed and a robot was forced to zig and zag to go beyond the door. Fig. 5 shows the average of time taken for tele-operator to complete a variety of routes.

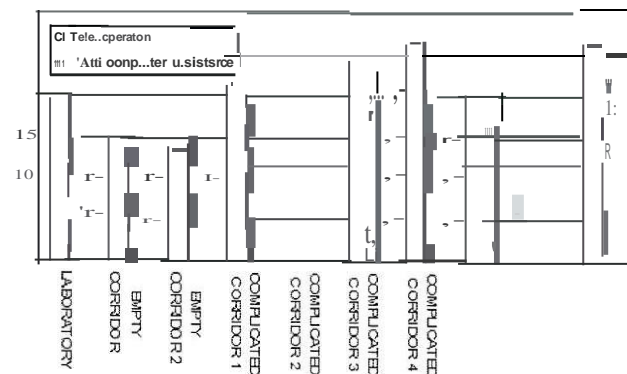
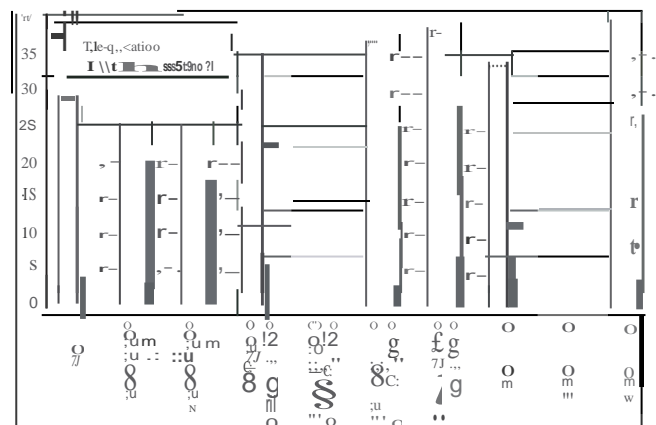


Fig. 5. Average of times to complete various routes.

The vertical scale shows the averaged times in seconds to finish successful runs. The simpler routes were completed faster when the tele-operators did not have any assistance from the sensors. More complicated routes are on the right of the bar graph (for example a corridor with obstacles and doors or outdoor environments), and the tele-operators completed those tasks more quickly when they were assisted by the computer and sensors. Fig. 6 shows the averages of the time taken to complete a variety of routes after a delay of a second was



instituted.

Fig. 6. Averages of times to complete various routes with a system delay of one second.

Fig. 7 shows a tele-operator steering the robot base through a doorway.



Fig. 7. Tele-operator steering the robot base through a doorway.

The tele-operated robots were assessed in safe environments and then in various situations. The lengthiest experimental routes were 30 metres long. Volunteer tele-operators quickly learnt how to steer the mobile-robot and how it responded. They could apply appropriate control signals and could evaluate braking distances.

The tests were undertaken using a delay to introduce arbitrary time lags [43-44]. Tel-operators completed driving tests along various routes and the effect of the delay was assessed to expose an onset of a perception of time lag at t_{maxlag} . A magnitude estimation technique was applied [3] and [45].

A. Magnitude Estimation

Commands from the joystick were delayed by varying amounts before being sent to the mobile robot. Random inputs were produced to test the generator using:

$$G(s) = \exp(-As) \quad (1)$$

Magnitude Estimation [3] delivered measurable assessments of the effects from introducing time lags. Most importantly, the perceived time lag was provided by this calculation. The technique exposes effects due to stimulations and is a quantitative assessment of psychological reactions, for example the effect due to the introduction of a time lag. Magnitude estimation is a sensory assessment commonly used in ergonomics [45].

Stevens showed in [46] that a psychological quantity U with a degree of physical stimulus ST was related by Stevens' power law (2) [3] and [46]:

$$q_i = GF \times ST^n \quad (2)$$

Where: 'fl' is a psychological value, ST is the size of the stimulus, and GF is a gain factor.

The physical stimulation is time lag. Psychological value, U , could then be calculated by relating the time lag to the effect of the time lag.

Experimentation was similar [3] in their work with a tele-operated surgical robot.

The delay generator operated at 0.1 Hz and a metronome made a noise every 10 seconds so that the sound and the delay generator were synchronized. Delay times were selected from ten possible levels in a random order. The levels and the delays are shown in table I. The magnitude of the effect of time lag was noted.

TABLE I

Level	1	2	3	4	5
Time delay in milliseconds	1	2	3	4	5
Level	6	7	8	9	10
Time delay in milliseconds	7	10	14	19	25

Fourteen men and women aged their early twenties volunteered to drive the mobile robot for a series of tests.

The mobile-robot successfully coped with obstacles during testing; the computer systems automatically avoided collisions.

The perception of the time lag for an input frequency of 0.1 Hz was converted to a logarithmic value. That produced a continuous curve that specified the response after a tele-operator had perceived the lag.

A line was fitted to the results that was an estimate of the relationship. That result indicated that the perceived lag time was 70ms. Equation (3) is the relation between the time lag of more than 70ms and the magnitude of the time lag effect.

$$q_i = 25 \times ST^{0.35} \quad (3)$$

When the lag was < 70ms, the tel-operators didn't notice. The delay time at which an operator noticed a lag was attained for input frequencies between 0.1 Hz to 1 Hz and (2) was evaluated.

The relationship between time lag, the magnitude of the effect of the lag and the approximate power function was considered.

The phase lag of the dead-time system was:

$$\angle G(\omega) = -\omega A \quad (4)$$

So, input angular frequency, ω , determined the phase lag when a tele-operator distinguished the time lag. A was the perceived time lag.

Perceived time lag, perceived phase lag and the power index are listed in table II.

$$\text{Phase lag} = \text{input frequency} \times 360 \times \text{lag time} \quad (5)$$

TABLE I

Input frequency (Hz)	Perceived lag time (ms)	Perceived lag phase (deg)	Power index
0.1	80	-2.88	0.35
0.2	70	-5.04	.4
0.5	50	-9	.41
1	25	-9	.35

Some data for 0.2 Hz is shown in Fig. 8.

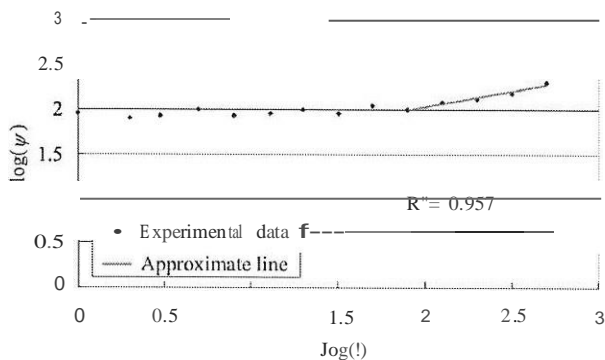


Fig. 8. Log I plotted against log ST for 0.2 Hz.

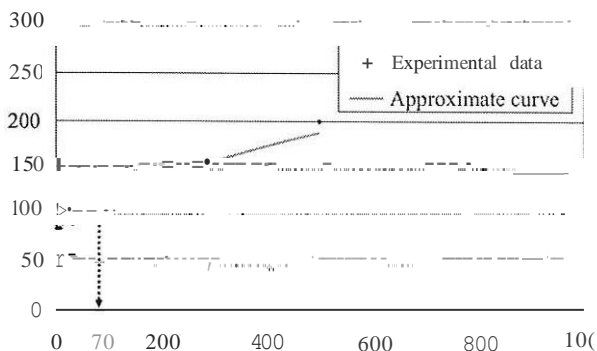


Fig. 9. Estimate of the relationship showing a perceived time lag of 70ms. The Y axis is 'I' and the X axis is $I \times 10^{-s}$

V. DISCUSSION

Magnitude estimation was used to produce a quantitative evaluation of the effect of time lag. Table II shows that input frequency, w , affected the perceived lag; if w increased then perceived lag time decreased, so that at slow speeds it was difficult for an operator to perceive any time lag.

Figure 9. Shows the line drawn to estimate the relationship. The result indicated a perceived time lag of 70ms. When the delay was greater than t_{maxlag} , then an operator would notice the lag. Power index after the operator noticed was 0.36 (on average) and that value did not depend on w . From this result, it was concluded that perceived lag time differs between each

input frequency but after perception the magnitude of the time lag effect had no correlation to w .

As power index $< I$, the effect became less sensitive as lag increased.

The threshold of perception may also related to phase lag so that if a tele-operated mobile robot operator does not perceive a lag, phase lag still needs to be less than perceived phase lag.

VI. CONCLUSION

The relationship between time lags and their effect was investigated and some results presented. A perceived threshold for time lag, t_{maxlag} , was estimated. Once an operator began to notice a delay, then the scale of the effect increased (2). The power index averaged a value of 0.36.

Perceived time lag, T , changed depending on input frequency, w . T reduced as w increased. Reliability of T depended on t_{maxlag} . To improve reliability, more tele-operators will need to be tested in the future with the mobile robots.

A Student's t-test compared the means of the completion time samples. Average (mean), \bar{x} , was calculated with standard deviation (S) to evaluate population mean μ and variance σ^2 . Because pairs of tests and results were used, paired-samples could be used for statistical testing. Pairs of results were used, one set of data with assistance from the sensors and one set without any assistance.

Pairing removed much of the randomness introduced when using human operators in testing because the same person completed each set of tests that were compared, so like was being compared with like. Results were significant and the paired-samples test showed that driving without any sensors and driving with sensors were significantly different. There was a 95% probability that the results could not happen by chance, that is $p < 0.05$

Tele-operators executed their tasks more quickly when they did not have any sensors assisting them in simple environments. When the situation was more complicated, or there were longer time delays, then tele-operators performed better with sensors to assist them. The two main findings are that sensors should not be used in simple environments with good visibility but should be reserved for restricted areas with poor views and that it proved to be possible to estimate a perceived threshold for time lag.

VII. FURTHER WORK

The system used a delay after the joystick and before sending the signal to the mobile robot motors. Other sorts of delay could be introduced and that could be investigated in the future.

The delays are being investigated in other applications, including teaching systems [47-50], automated systems [51-60] and especially tele-operation [61], [62]

Additionally, the perceived effect of phase lag has not really been fully considered. Tele-operators may also be sensitive to phase lags because as w increased, system phase lag increased.

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