Hierarchical Control and Performance Evaluation of Multi-Vehicle Autonomous Systems
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Abstract – This paper will describe how the Mobility Open Architecture Tools and Simulation (MOAST) framework can facilitate performance evaluations of RCS compliant multi-vehicle autonomous systems. This framework provides an environment that allows for simulated and real architectural components to function seamlessly together. By providing repeatable environmental conditions, this framework allows for the development of individual components as well as component performance metrics. MOAST is composed of high-fidelity and low-fidelity simulation systems, a detailed model of real-world terrain, actual hardware components, a central knowledge repository, and architectural glue to tie all of the components together. This paper will describe the framework’s components in detail and provide an example that illustrates how the framework can be utilized to develop and evaluate a single architectural component through the use of repeatable trials and experimentation that includes both virtual and real components functioning together.

Keywords: Performance evaluation, architecture, robot, multi-agent, simulation, hierarchical

1. PROBLEM STATEMENT
One possible solution for large-scale non-deterministic problems is the use of multiple agents and multi-agent systems. In order to find a solution for these problems, the agents must adapt and cooperate with one another in a rational and deliberative manner. To accomplish this, a specific agent may be required to communicate with both homogenous and heterogeneous agents, acquire and share knowledge with various knowledge repositories, and adapt to a possible stochastic, non-deterministic environment.

When developing these agents, researchers have been searching for a general architecture that allows agents to be flexible, adaptive, and robust. The general architecture would allow agents to act rationally in undefined situations and to avoid rogue group behavior. The emergence of undesirable rogue group behaviors from benign agents can cause catastrophic damage as was seen from the automatic selling of stocks during the 1987 stock market crash [12]. The National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) has a long history in the development of the RCS reference model architecture [2] to meet this need. However, the complexity of each agent in this architecture and the resulting behaviors produced from the interaction of the agents may cause performance to be extremely hard to measure, predict and debug. In order to thoroughly test and analyze these systems, a robust analysis framework is needed that is capable of unit and group testing in controlled and repeatable trials. The Mobility Open Architecture Simulation and Tools (MOAST) framework is one such framework.

2. INTRODUCTION
The development of an embodied multi-agent system is truly a multi-disciplinary endeavor. It requires skills and expertise in fields as varied as sensor processing, knowledge representation, planning, execution and control, and even basic auto-repair. In addition, the “multi” in multi-agent implies that there are multiple platforms that may require multiple safety personnel and a large amount of real estate to perform over. A lighthearted, but realistic view of the development cycle may be summarized by:

1. Develop a cool new algorithm for accomplishing task ‘x’.
2. Code an implementation of algorithm ‘x’.
3. Get code to compile for real vehicle(s).
4. Assemble team to test algorithm on real vehicle(s).
5. Immediately discover implementation bug, hardware failure, or software change to supporting subsystem, dismiss team and recode algorithm or fix vehicle(s).
6. Reassemble team and search in vain for exact same scenario that caused crash (literally or figuratively) in 5.
7. Repeat from 3.
As seen from the above summary, much of the development cycle is beyond the control of the algorithm developer. Vehicle up-time, safety personnel availability, and course availability play a large role in the development schedule. In addition, it may be difficult to isolate failures due to a lack of repeatable trials and the use of software modules that are being co-developed (which module has the bug?).

The need to use real hardware for development may severely limit the ability of expertise or resource constrained institutions to fully participate in the field. In addition, research in a particular discipline may be limited by the current state-of-the-art in unrelated disciplines. For example, when operating on a real system, the planning community can only construct plans based on features that the sensor processing community is able to detect. It is difficult or impossible to answer the question of how the system’s plans would be affected if it could see feature ‘x’ at range ‘y’. Because of this, planning researchers are unable to explore behaviors that require next generation sensor processing until after that generation has arrived.

Traditionally, many of these problems have been addressed by using a simulation environment for algorithm development and testing. Simulation has benefits that include reduced competition for scarce resources, no risk of harm to personnel or equipment, the ability to add as yet undeveloped capabilities to subsystems, and the ability to perform repeated tests over vast and varied terrains from the comfort of your own desk. As a result, an individual code module can be thoroughly tested and understood before moving to real hardware.

Most simulators developed in the past are dedicated to testing entire autonomous systems under a specific task in a static environment, or a single subsystem of the autonomous system under varied conditions [1,11]. Simulated Highways for Intelligent Vehicle Algorithms (SHIVA) [17], for instance, provided realistic sensor models, communication infrastructure, and a variety of driver models that allowed for the testing of tactical decision-making in a mixed traffic environment. SHIVA was designed to allow for migration of the subsystems being tested in the simulation environment to the actual vehicle platforms. The View Simulation System (VSS) [11] provides high performance graphic facilities to test vision-based autonomous systems. While both of these systems provide high-fidelity testing of certain components, neither provides realistic mobility models or computation facilities to adequately simulate complexities that exist in real world environments.

One Semi-Automated Forces Testbed (OTBSAF) [13] expanded the realm of simulation environments by providing an open, modular architecture that simulates vehicle behaviors, sensors, and weapon systems in a larger multi-agent environment. OTBSAF sacrifices fidelity in order to divert its computational facilities to controlling multiple entities autonomously in the environment. Due to the inherent nature of such a simulation package, OTBSAF availability is limited to U.S. government distribution.

Recently, simulation environments have attempted to leverage existing technologies to achieve a general-purpose environment that is capable of simulating the complexities of multi-agent, feature rich environments. Gamebots [9] is a multi-agent test-bed for AI that was built as a modification to the Unreal game engine. The system provides a client-server architecture that allows “bots” and humans to interact. The Unreal engine uses built-in scripting languages and 3D modeling facilities to allow a developer to create or modify the simulated environment. The system provides a client-server architecture that allows “bots” and humans to interact. Gamebots uses built-in scripting languages and 3D modeling facilities to allow a developer to create or modify the simulated environment. USARSim [18], which in turn was built on Gamebots, makes effective use of the rich kinematic models that exist in the Karma game engine to simulate Urban Search and Rescue environments. USARSim and others have extended the Gamebots API to provide virtual sensors, decision-making facilities, and worlds that accompany the simulation environment.

As more agents are simulated in larger and more complex worlds, the computational complexity of the simulation grows. Distributed Virtual Simulation Environments (DVSE) [5] have been developed to manage this computational complexity. UTSAF [10,14] is a simulation bridge between the Unreal game engine and OTBSAF. This bridge parses the standardized Distributed Interactive Simulation Protocol (DIS) [8] used by OTBSAF to facilitate the communication and participation of both simulators in a single hierarchical distributed virtual simulation environment. This hierarchical distributed model provides a high fidelity simulation environment that precisely simulates entities in a specified sphere of influence, while a low-fidelity simulator simulates a larger region. Player/Stage [7] is another example of a
A typical development cycle with the use of a simulator may be represented by:
1. Develop cool new algorithm for accomplishing task ‘x’.
2. Code an implementation of algorithm ‘x’.
3. Get the code to compile for simulation engine.
4. Test/debug code in simulated environment.
5. Recode implementation to work with real robot(s).
6. Assemble team to test code on robot(s).
7. Find that simulated world does not accurately represent real world and that algorithm redevelopment is necessary.

As shown above, there is still no replacement for testing the algorithms on the real hardware. The reason for this is that simulation environments are typically composed of worlds that do not include false alarms or missed detections, have perfect command execution, and ideal system performance. The result of this is that an algorithm that works perfectly in simulation is not guaranteed to work at all under actual environmental conditions, platform performance, and command execution. Therefore, step 5 in the development cycle calls for the simulated algorithm to be ported and run on the actual robot hardware. The problem with this is that differences in interfaces or knowledge requirements often prevent plug-and-play operation of an architectural component from the simulation environment to the real hardware. For many simulation-system/real-hardware combinations, substantial code and command interface changes must be made. These changes may introduce new bugs and may also lead to the discovery that algorithms have become dependent on unrealistic or non-existent attributes from the simulation environment.

The next evolutionary step in the distributed simulation models is to incorporate real hardware in virtual environments. Player/Stage and RAVE [6] are two simulation environments that provide numerous controllers for a variety of vehicle platforms. The real/virtual simulation environments permit seamless integration and transparent transference of data between the real and simulated components. This allows for developers to take advantage of the real mobility characteristics of vehicle platforms while still providing a controlled environment.

At the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST), the Mobility Open Architecture Simulation and Tools (MOAST) framework has been developed as a real/virtual environment that allows researchers to concentrate their efforts in their particular area of expertise. This framework conforms to the NIST Real-Time Control System (RCS) architecture [3] and allows simulated and real architectural components to function seamlessly in the same system. This permits not only the development of individual components, but also allows for component performance metrics to be developed and for the components to be evaluated under repeatable conditions. The framework is composed of high-fidelity and low-fidelity simulation systems, actual components under test, a detailed model of real-world terrain, a central knowledge repository, and architectural glue to tie all of the components together. MOAST also leverages a software development tool that facilitates the development of the overall RCS-based controller hierarchy, the creation of communication channels between the various components, and allows for real-time visualization and debugging of the functioning code. This paper will describe the components in detail and provide an example of how the framework can be utilized to develop and evaluate a single architectural component through the use of repeatable trials and experimentation that includes both virtual and real components functioning together.

3. **THE MOAST FRAMEWORK**

MOAST has been designed to be a general-purpose framework that can be easily modified to become domain-specific. The value of such frameworks lies in their ability to reuse existing technologies and integrate their functionalities together into one complete set of tools. Specifically, MOAST’s tools allow the framework to seamlessly integrate simulation subsystems with real robotic hardware subsystems. The goal is to allow the individual subsystems to perform in the area where and when they do best. For example, simulation systems can replicate multiple platforms for the development of multi-platform behaviors. They allow for repeatable events, and may provide detailed system/event
logging. In addition, by simulating the results of sensor processing, the potential benefits of detecting new features or utilizing novel sensing paradigms may be measured.

However, there is no substitute for real mobility, sensing, and communications. Therefore, when available, real system components/subsystems must be able to plug into the MOAST framework and replace simulated subsystems. This is made possible through the architectural glue of the framework. This glue includes a reference model architecture that includes well defined interfaces and communications protocols, and detailed specifications on individual subsystem input/output (IO). The RCS reference model architecture has been selected for the MOAST reference model architecture. All communications between modules is accomplished over Neutral Messaging Language (NML) channels [16] that function as the communication medium.

**Architectural Glue**

In order to guarantee real-time operation and decompose the robotic system into manageable pieces or agents, it was necessary to utilize a hierarchical architecture that was specifically designed to accommodate real-time deliberative systems. The RCS reference model architecture is a hierarchical, distributed, real-time control system architecture that meets this need while providing clear interfaces and roles for a variety of functional elements [2,3].

![Figure 1. Internal structure of a RCS NODE (from [3] p. 28).](image)

Through RCS, a clear system hierarchy exists that provides control ranging from that of individual actuators up to groups of 10s or 100s of platforms. Each level of the hierarchy is composed of the same basic building blocks illustrated in Fig. 1. These building blocks include behavior generation (task decomposition and control), sensory processing (filtering, detection, recognition, grouping), world modeling (knowledge storage, retrieval, and prediction), and value judgment (cost/benefit computation, goal priority). While the architecture specifies guidelines for the general content and frequency of communications, it does not provide details on the actual message format. The NML toolkit is utilized to fill in this information.

The NML toolkit provides general templates for command and status messages that are transmitted between RCS modules and automatic tools for communication code generation based on these templates. The toolkit allows for the control hierarchy to be graphically laid out and populated, and for the creation of the NML-based communication channels to be easily created. As the MOAST framework is implemented for different domains, these templates must be fleshed out and completed for every module in the system. Standardized interfaces are an essential component in and of themselves to the overall framework. The standardized interfaces facilitate the modularization of the components and enable the modification and testing of an individual component without affecting the overall system design. As will be discussed later in this paper, the MOAST framework has been implemented for on- and off-road robotic vehicles and
detailed specifications exist for the communication channels. During actual operation, JAVA\textsuperscript{1} based tools are provided that allow for automatically generated command and status windows that provide a complete picture of the communications hierarchy as well as a detailed view of the content of every command and status message that is flowing through the system. This detailed view allows the user to see what commands each component is executing and what status is being generated at any given time. In addition, the tool also provides a testing harness that allows a user to isolate specific components to assist in unit or group testing. This is accomplished by allowing the user to modify and transmit any command or status messages that the components expect to receive from other components in the hierarchy.

**Central Knowledge Repository**

The reference model architecture must provide for a means of coordination amongst peers as well as command and control of subordinates in order to provide coherent multi-agent behaviors. While it is feasible that coordination may be accomplished through the use of status channels (message passing), the MOAST framework provides a central knowledge repository as an additional means of coordination. This knowledge repository is based on domain specific schemas that are implemented through the use of a central SQL server (shared memory).

The design schema of the centralized knowledge repository consists of both active and passive tables. Active tables consist of dynamic knowledge about the domain that can be updated either by the simulation environment or the individual agents. The information in these tables includes sensed information, specific class instance information, and information about the agent self. The passive tables consist of static \textit{a priori} knowledge that provides ontological models of the domain and agents operating in the domain. The data in these tables is rarely updated and is mostly used in conjunction with active tables to provide general class information and to assist in the generation of additional knowledge needed to produce rational behaviors in agents and realistic behaviors within simulation environments.

In addition to schemas, the knowledge repository contains policies that uniquely specify which module is authorized to populate each knowledge field. The populated schemas constitute a knowledge base that contains information ranging from \textit{a priori} environmental data and module capabilities data to real-time state and status information. A knowledge base for a specific multi-agent ground robot system has been developed and will be discussed in later sections.

**Detailed Terrain Model**

\textit{A priori} environmental data contained in the central knowledge repository is derived from a detailed terrain model contained in the MOAST framework. From the agent’s point of view, this model may be decomposed into a portion that is known \textit{a priori} and a portion that will be discovered through normal agent operation. \textit{A priori} information may be preprocessed and populated into the central knowledge repository where it is available to all subsystems. An example of this form of knowledge would be a representation of a highway map. Discoverable knowledge is operated on by simulated sensors and appears as the result of sensor processing that may be reported thorough NML status channels or through a central knowledge repository knowledge base. The simulated sensor processing may be used to model detection ranges and to add noise, false alarms, and missed detections to the otherwise accurate information. In addition, the toolkit also provides tools to visualize both the ground truth and the perceived environment. This contributes to the validation of the knowledge and may be used as a performance measurement of actual agents by facilitating the comparison of the real and perceived worlds.

**Agent Components**

The central theme of the MOAST framework is the ability to test actual individual hardware/software modules (agents). As shown in Fig. 2, an architectural view of a system under test will look identical to a standard RCS architecture diagram. However, the modules may actually be decomposed into two separate frameworks that represent the “real” modules or agents (the dark boxes in the figure) that consist of actual algorithms from autonomous system and the “virtual” modules or agents (the light boxes in the figure) that make up a system test harness. The test harness assists developers in the analysis, development, and performance characterization of the control system. The two frameworks are seamlessly integrated with the only requirement for operation being conformance to the MOAST communications protocols and formats. The NML communications libraries are freely available from NIST in source format as well as

\textsuperscript{1} Certain commercial software and tools are identified in this paper in order to explain our research. Such identification does not imply recommendation or endorsement by the National Institute of Standards and Technology, nor does it imply that the software tools identified are necessarily the best available for the purpose.
precompiled for numerous operating systems. Since all modules conform to the same communications protocols and formats, the module under test will be unaware of which participating modules are real and which are simulated.

**Simulation Systems**

As with actual components, the only requirement on simulation systems is conformance to the MOAST communications protocols and formats. Currently, simulation systems have been used to simulate the results of sensor processing and platform mobility. By simulating sensor processing results, experiments may be performed that utilize repeatable events from as yet unrealized sensor capabilities, or results from sensors that may be too expensive, large (weight, volume, or

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2 See http://www.isd.mel.nist.gov/projects/rcslib/
power), or delicate to place on mobile platforms. Simulated mobility allows varied repeatable terrain and the inclusion of multiple non-existent platforms.

4. IMPROVED EXPLOSIVE DEVICE IMPLEMENTATION

Under funding from the Army Research Laboratory (ARL), (C. Shoemaker Program Manager), the MOAST framework has been implemented to develop the behaviors that a platoon of robotic vehicles capable of neutralizing an improvised explosive device (IED) would need to perform. While the requirements of this mission are well understood; a group of robotic agents must identify and neutralize an IED (otherwise known as a roadside bomb), the exact procedure for performing this mission is not. In this example, the MOAST system will be used to design, debug, and evaluate the individual components of the system as well as the overall mission strategy. A conventional solution (implemented solely on real hardware) is not possible due to the fact that there is no known sensor for detecting/neutralizing an IED and that it would be too dangerous to intentionally place bombs on roadways around our research facility. A block diagram of the implemented system is shown in Fig. 2. In the diagram, the light boxes are virtual components and the dark boxes are real systems. The system is composed of three vehicles; all of which have virtual sensing and low-level mobility. The figure only shows one of the vehicle’s subsystems. The lowest level of the hierarchy (or echelon) shown in the diagram is subsystem and is composed of a mission and a mobility subsystem. The mission subsystem in this case controls a payload that detects and neutralizes explosive devices.

Architectural Glue

One of the first jobs for the system designer is to determine the module interfaces. Whenever possible, it is desirable to reuse existing interfaces since this allows for the reuse of entire code modules. In the case of the IED mission, many of the mobility system behaviors are identical to previously designed road driving systems that have been constructed under the MOAST framework [4]. In fact, the entire subsystem echelon mobility code was used without modification. As one moves higher in the hierarchy, skills and behaviors become more specialized for the individual mission and new behaviors must be added to augment already existing skills. For example, the existing vehicle echelon mobility planner created for an autonomous scout vehicle was able to plan to drive along a section of roadway; however no behavior had yet been created for cautiously driving around a suspected IED. The existing interface specification must be updated and the corresponding controllers augmented with this new behavior. A graceful failure mode of controllers not compliant with the new specification is still possible through the report of an “unknown command” over the systems status channel and error log.

Central Knowledge Repository

As with the module interfaces, the MOAST framework allows for the reuse of knowledge components that have been previously developed for other applications. Table 1 depicts the knowledge bases contained in the knowledge repository and their origin.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Knowledge base</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Origin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Road Network Database</td>
<td>Contains a hierarchical decomposition of road networks from constant curvature lane segments to complete roadways.</td>
<td>Reusable general purpose knowledge base originally developed for on-road driving under DARPA MARS project, PM Doug Gage [15].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vehicle Characteristics</td>
<td>Contains average values for common types of vehicles and vehicle class relationships.</td>
<td>Reusable general purpose knowledge base.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vehicle Sensor Characteristics</td>
<td>Contains average values for sensor ranges, fields of view, etc.</td>
<td>Reusable general purpose knowledge base.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vehicle Weapon Characteristics</td>
<td>Contains weapon lethality, range, etc.</td>
<td>Reusable general purpose knowledge base.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vehicle Status</td>
<td>Contains mode, health, and location information.</td>
<td>Reusable general purpose knowledge base.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IED Class Characteristics</td>
<td>Contains expected blast radius, safe approach radius, etc for various types of IEDs.</td>
<td>Developed for IED mission.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Vehicle Team Composition
Requirements on sensing and mobility to fill different roles in mission (Leader, observer, …).
Reusable general purpose knowledge base extended for IED mission.

IED Instance Characteristics
Specifies about potential IEDs (class, location, status, …)
Developed for IED mission.

Error Log
Provides global logging of error conditions.
Reusable general purpose knowledge base.

As is shown in the table, the majority of the knowledge bases are general purpose and may be used for multiple domains. In addition to storing a priori and dynamic information about objects, the knowledge repository is useful as a means of coordination and synchronization amongst peers. For example, it was noticed that our robotic neutralizer was turning on active sensors earlier than necessary. This is a problem since active sensors may be detected which lowers the vehicle’s survivability and therefore its overall performance. The solution for this was to have the vehicle echelon mission executor coordinate with the vehicle echelon mobility executor to only turn on these sensors when required by vehicle mobility. The executors utilize the vehicle status knowledge base to communicate these needs.

Detailed Terrain Model
A detailed terrain model has been generated of the NIST campus. This terrain model consists of a bare earth elevation array with post spacing of 45 cm (1.5 feet) and root mean square error (RMSE) of 15 cm (6 inches), color orthophotography with pixel resolution of 7.5 cm (0.25 feet), and comprehensive vector data. The vector data includes items such as all road edges, parking lots, parking lot strips, buildings, sidewalks, lamp posts, signs, etc.
Incorporating a high-fidelity terrain model into the MOAST framework allows for algorithm performance evaluation and the ability for mobility planning systems to incorporate items that are not yet detectable by current state-of-the-art sensor processing algorithms. For example, as the real vehicle drives through the real world, detected road edges may be compared with those in the terrain model to measure the performance of the road detection algorithms. For the case of the IED mission, it is desirable to have simulated sensor processing for detecting IEDs coupled to real mobility. This allows the high-level behaviors to function even though there are currently no sensor processing algorithms capable of distinguishing classes of IEDs.

Actual Components
As shown in Fig. 2, the majority of the system elements above the subsystem echelon were real components running on actual system hardware. Through the use of the MOAST global world model and interface specifications, module functionality is identical to a completely implemented robotic platform.

Simulated Components
For this particular implementation of the MOAST framework, virtual components were provided through interfaces and behaviors added to the OTBSAF simulator and through stand-alone simulators. OTBSAF was modified to provide short-range and mid-range feature/entity detection, an IED neutralization device, and behavior generation for the behaviors of an IED. When features or entities entered the field-of-view (FOV) of the short range sensor, the exact information about that feature or entity was relayed to the vehicle over the sensory processing NML channel. This information included such items as the exact location, class, and status of an IED and the location of obstacles and other entities. The mid-range sensor is capable of reporting similar information with less precision. For example, it will tell the approximate location of an IED but will not be able to discern its status or class. The IED neutralization device is a short range device that when aimed at an IED and activated, will disarm the IED.
IED behaviors were also developed and embedded into OTBSAF. These included the ability of an IED to detect when vehicles are in range, to explode and cause damage to vehicles, and to be neutralized. OTBSAF was also used to provide a visualization of the mission as it progressed.
Low level mobility simulation was performed by an internally developed simulation system. In the near future, we will be interfacing to a commercial simulation package that will provide physics based simulation of vehicle motion.
Overall System Performance
The first use of the MOAST framework was to provide design, debug, and development support to get our skeleton IED mission up and running. Once the complete system was operational, the MOAST framework was employed to perform repeated trials while the overall mission was refined and new techniques were experimented with. For example, when an IED was detected, our robots were told to move off to a safe stand-off distance until it was disarmed. It was noticed that since a simple “go to” style command was commanded to the lower levels, the vehicles would turn around and drive to the safe location. The problem with this was that in turning around the vehicles sometimes detonated an IED. A potential solution of backing-up to the safe location was experimented with and eventually implemented.

Once the engineers were happy with the overall system performance, a domain expert was brought in to observe the system in operation. By using the MOAST framework, the expert was able to observe many different runs and situations all from the comfort of our laboratory. In addition, when suggestions such as adding an unmanned air vehicle (UAV) were made, a new robotic asset did not have to be purchased. A standard OTBSAF air vehicle was turned into a UAV and the UAV simply became another element in the overall simulation.

Other benefits of the MOAST framework include the ability to utilize sensing technologies that do not yet exist (a virtual sensor) and to validate the performance of existing sensors. The use of virtual sensors provides a means of gathering potential sensor processing requirements that will allow for increased performance of the agent. By developing a fictitious virtual sensor in the MOAST framework, e.g. a mid-range sensor, the overall system performance can be quantitatively measured to better understand the benefits of the given sensor. Similarly, emplacing a virtual representation of an existing sensor allows for sensor performance validation. The ability to validate current sensor performance coupled with the ability to measure performance gains offered by a fictitious sensor can drive sensor development and perception in order to enhance the overall performance of the system.

5. SUMMARY AND FUTURE WORK
This paper has presented a novel approach to system development. Under this approach, a new development cycle may be coined as follows:

1. Develop cool new algorithm for accomplishing task ‘x’.
2. Code an implementation of algorithm ‘x’.
3. Get code to compile for simulation engine.
4. Test/debug code in simulated environment.
5. Run identical code on real robot.
6. Assemble team to test code on robot.
7. Run only as much code as necessary to validate algorithm on real robot (everything else is simulated).
8. Algorithm runs on real robot on first try!

In the near future, this approach will be verified when the code developed for the IED mission is run (without porting) on our NIST HMMWV. Additional efforts are also being directed at developing more complete interfaces for the various modules and on incorporating a commercial off the shelf physics based mobility simulator. This simulator will function off of the MOAST terrain component and will obey standard MOAST command and control communication channels.

6. ACKNOWLEDGEMENT
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References


