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Abstract

Considering the disassembly as a vital and prospective industry domain, we use the mobile robots to automate the disassembly process. In our system, each mobile robot has particular skills and is supervised by an agent with related objectives and knowledge. An agent has an ontology-based world model, which is responsible to maintain the knowledge about the robot's activities in relation to its environment as well as to its underlying software parts. The ontology is used to represent a specification of an agent's domain knowledge. The system functionality is tested with three mobile robots having a task to disassemble a particular Lego construct. Different rule-engines were benchmarked in order to enhance the systems performance.



Application of Knowledge Driven Mobile Robots for Disassembly Tasks

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Abstract Considering the disassembly as a vital and prospective industry domain, we use the mobile robots to automate the disassembly process. In our system, each mobile robot has particular skills and is supervised by an agent with related objectives and knowledge. An agent has an ontology-based world model, which is responsible to maintain the knowledge about the robot's activities in relation to its environment as well as to its underlying software parts. The ontology is used to represent a specification of an agent's domain knowledge. The system functionality is tested with three mobile robots having a task to disassemble a particular Lego construct. Different rule-engines were benchmarked in order to enhance the systems performance.

Based on "Knowledge Driven Mobile Robots Applied in the Disassembly Domain", by Gottfried Koppensteiner, Reinhard Hametner, Rene Paris, Alejandro Moser Passani, and Munir Merdan which appeared in the Proceedings of the 5th International Conference on Automation, Robotics and Applications (ICARA 2011). © 2011 IEEE.

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1 Introduction

Disassembly has become a vital industry process due to the increasing necessity of optimizing resource usage. Currently, disassembly processes are partially automated only in a small set of cases such as: single use cameras [1], PCs [2], printed circuit boards as well as LCD monitors [3]. The main limiting factors are: non-uniformity of returned product models creating great uncertainty in the system control and structural configuration, etc. [4]. The rigid character and weak adaptation capabilities of current implementations, due in part to their use of centralized hierarchical control structures, limits their ability to respond efficiently and effectively to dynamic changes.

Mobile robots offer new possibilities for flexible disassembly [5]. The state-of-the-art of mobile robot technology and predictions of future development give a clear view that mobile robots are going to be an essential part of every manufacturing process in future [6]. Mobile robots can support the system's flexibility and capability to handle dynamic changes. However, one of the obstacles to wider adoption of the mobile robots in the industry is the engineering cost to integrate mobile robots into systems. The field of robotics should develop in such a way to reduce the programming requirements and to increase the flexibility of mobile robots for different tasks [7]. In addition, mobile robots for disassembly should be (a) intelligent in the sense of path planning and able to communicate with other robots, (b) cooperative with other (stationary or mobile) robots, and (c) able to form a disassembly multi agent system, which is one of the future possibilities for reducing disassembly costs. Moreover, in order to avoid difficulties in communication in a heterogeneous robot environment, where each robot has its own kinematic structure and programming language, etc., it is necessary to develop standardized communication protocols and methods [5].

To cope with these requirements, we propose a knowledge-intensive multi-agent robot system, which enables ontology-based communication and cooperation among a set of autonomous and heterogeneous units (agents). In our system each agent supervises one particular mobile robot and, related to the robot's skills, has its own objectives and knowledge. In this context, ontologies allow the explicit specification of an agent's domain of application, increasing the level of specification of knowledge by incorporating semantics into the data and promoting knowledge exchange between agents in an explicitly understandable form [8]. An ontology based product model is used [9] to link product designs, disassembly planning and scheduling processes, as well as required disassembly equipment, possessed by a particular mobile robot, in a way that enables automatic reasoning as well as wide data integration. Consequently, on the one side, a vision system can use this model to reason about the content of a captured image. On the other side, an agent controlling a mobile robot can extract required disassembly information from this model to select and perform the necessary actions [10]. The architecture is based on agents that have a rule-based behavior. Rules are

59 considered as if-then statements applied to the knowledge base. The application of
60 this kind of decision-making mechanism supports a knowledge capture in a more
61 modular and explicit way.

62 2 Agent Architecture

63 In previous work [11–13] a generic agent architecture was developed to facilitate
64 the design of multi-agent control systems. This architecture clearly separates the
65 control software into two layers: the high level control (HLC) and the low level
66 control (LLC). The LLC layer is in charge of controlling the hardware directly. It
67 is responsible for performing all necessary operations in real-time and is based on
68 the IEC 61499 Standard [14]. The HLC layer is responsible for more complex
69 tasks such as coordination, monitoring or diagnostic, which might require a longer
70 computation time. This allows using one HLC-Architecture with different LLCs
71 caused by heterogeneous mobile robots. In the rest of the chapter, we will present
72 the structure and functionality of the HLC adapted for the control of and negoti-
73 ation between mobile robots. To enable agents to understand the transmitted
74 messages between the LLC and HLC, a representation data type is as well as the
75 *MessageContent* concept and its sub-concepts is included in the agent's ontology
76 [15]. Figure 1 shows the architecture of the system which provides the HLC for the
77 mobile robots, with focus on the interplay of the used technologies.

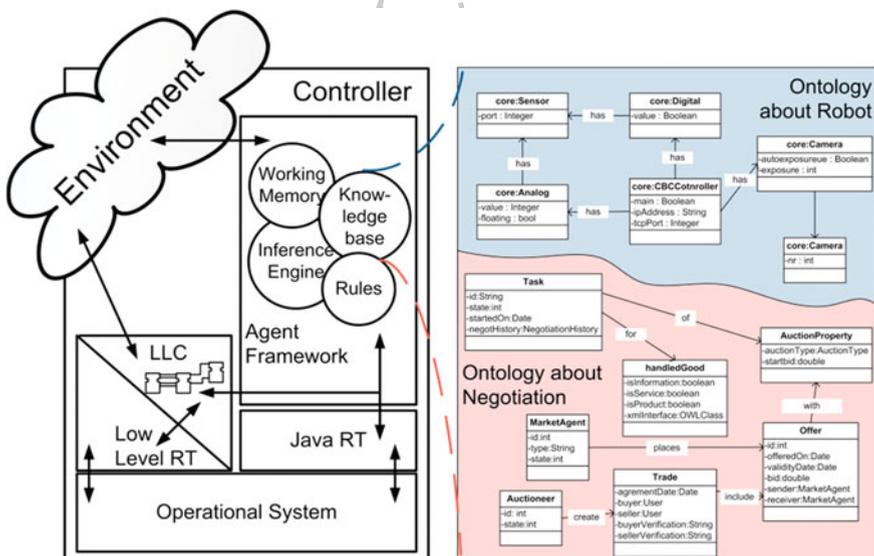


Fig. 1 Agent architecture includes the HLC and LLC overview [23] applied on mobile robots in the disassembly (negotiation) domain

78 The whole system environment is based on an ontology which is copied to each
79 of the controllers. The framework uses its ontology for multiple purposes. First of
80 all, it serves as the basis for the rule based control system, but additionally, it
81 serves as a place for configuring the robot and the intercommunication. The
82 ontology describes typical components from robots (e.g. sensors, motors) as well
83 as the robots communication including coordination, cooperation and negotiation)
84 with all necessary protocols. The ontology can be easily extended to support
85 application specific needs, e.g. for mapping disassembly structures. This supports
86 the agents with the necessary domain knowledge about the robots and the nego-
87 tiation mechanisms between them in order to provide the robots with a framework
88 for collaboration. The knowledge of the HLC is defined in rules which are different
89 for each robot type. The knowledge base is periodically updated. This is realized
90 through an updating process which is performed between the specific system-
91 libraries of the controller and the ontology.

92 **3 System Integration**

93 The High Level Robot Control is implemented on the CBCv2 [16] which includes
94 an ARM 7 based DAQ/Motor control system, an ARM 9-based CPU/Vision
95 processor running Linux, an integrated color display as well as a touch screen. It is
96 being used by thousands of middle and high school students in the educational
97 robotics program Botball [17]. Due to the aim of the sparkling science initiative
98 [18], it was one major reason to take a controller system which is well-suited for a
99 collegiate robotics lab. Therefore, the Atmel ARM7 32 bit MCU running at
100 48 MHz, because of its speed, availability, and wide range of embedded com-
101 munication and I/O ports, including 16 10-bit ADCs, is good enough to meet the
102 requirements for a robotics Lab. On the other side, the embedded Linux and
103 reloadable firmware provide a complete package for the enhancement with agent
104 and rule based systems. The CBCv2 is a USB host (allowing the use of standard
105 cameras, mass storage and network interfaces) and can also be used as a USB
106 device for software downloads. At the USB port a Wi-Fi Stick can be used; this
107 provides a good possibility for the communication between mobile robots.

108 **3.1 Framework**

109 On top of the Linux-based robot controller, explained in the previous section, the
110 CBCJVM [19] is used as the system-library. CBCJVM uses a lightweight Java
111 Virtual Machine (JVM), in particular the JamVM, which is designed for embedded
112 platforms which makes it perfect for the use on the CBC. It includes libraries for
113 working with the low level components of the CBC, including reading sensors and
114 controlling motors, which are used by the updating process to synchronize the

115 ontology objects representing low-level components. In this process, the control-
116 ler's own components mapped in the ontology are synchronized with the values
117 from the system-libraries (e.g. sensor values) at fixed update intervals. On top of
118 this, the JADE-Leap platform takes place. JADE [20] simplifies the implementa-
119 tion of multi-agent systems through a middle-ware that complies with the FIPA
120 specifications [21]. The LEAP libraries allow obtaining a FIPA-compliant agent
121 platform with reduced footprint and compatibility with mobile Java environments.
122 Altogether, this is the host for the Agents, which finally control the robots. On the
123 one side, they are responsible for listening for ontology changes and activating the
124 rule engine appropriately, on the other side they handle the intercommunication
125 between other robots, which is further described in the next section. This archi-
126 tecture enables writing rule-based behaviors using the full knowledge from the
127 ontology, one of the key aspects of this framework. The rule-based behaviors are
128 written in different rule-based languages and are fit to the mechanical possibilities
129 of the robot and the tasks the robot is intended for. Currently, the applicable rule
130 engines are Jess and OPSJ.

131 **3.2 Agent Communication**

132 The agent communication ensures the possibility to share ontology values between
133 different controllers. That enables defining rules for foreign ontology values or
134 using knowledge from other robots in order to provide reliable data for robot
135 collaboration or about a deal within the negotiation process.

136 Figure 2 shows two different negotiation procedures in the disassembly process.
137 The task allocation with auctions starts with a "need for some service". This order
138 could be transmitted to only one robot which is able to fulfill the requested
139 operation, or as broadcast within an auction procedure to evaluate the best situated
140 robot. In order to ensure that every agent in the system talks about the same part of
141 interest, parts of the ontologies could be transmitted within these messages
142 (see message "Object: yellow part") and in order to be able to reason about it,
143 mapped to the agent's ontology. If more than one service is necessary for this
144 operation, the requesting agent starts one "auction" (request) for each service.
145 Every robot which is able to perform some particular service sends a bid or the
146 offered service back. After all subjects of the deal are negotiated, a deal-
147 commitment is sent and the operation is started. Within such operations, spread
148 between different robots, coordination might be necessary in order to schedule
149 each step of the operation. This is done by negotiation about the necessary
150 operations. In this procedure two or more robots, working together to solve one
151 requested task, exchange messages about necessary steps. Therefore a fast reaction
152 time is necessary: in the case of the LLC to be able to react quickly to sensor
153 values (for instance to avoid crashes); in the HLC to be able to reason as fast as
154 possible about incoming messages.

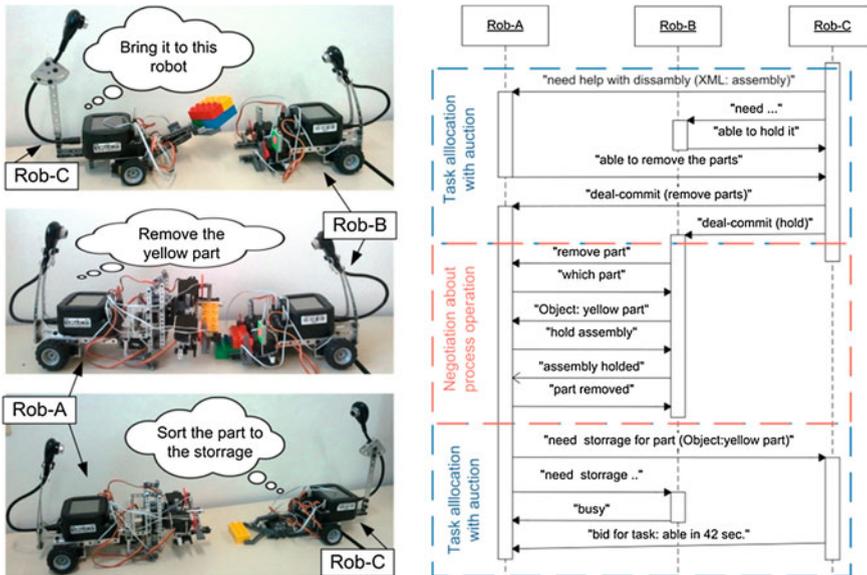


Fig. 2 Robot negotiation

4 System Implementation

Due to memory constraints of the CBCv2, it was not possible to use the Protégé ontology API [22] at runtime. Instead, the ontology is translated into Java classes and objects which get stored to a file at build time. The access to the serialized file is then possible on the CBCv2. The mapping is done in two stages: firstly, the classes are designed in the ontology and are converted into Java classes. Secondly, after the generated classes are compiled, the objects contained in the ontology are read, instantiated, and written to a file via Java serialization. At runtime, the objects are read into the framework via the ontology interface, and added to the rule engine's fact base.

4.1 Customizability and Flexibility

The HLC framework implementation was focused on two important characteristics: (1) great amount of customizability for being applicable in various fields and tasks, and (2) flexibility for different software- and hardware-environments through exchangeability. Beside definition of application rules, the customizability was realized by (1) providing almost unlimited ontology extension with new classes and instances, (2) implementing and executing new software agents, and (3) adding user-commands for executing specific pieces of code from rules or

173 command line. This is possible through holding the framework configuration and
174 interfaces in one single object, which is globally accessible. In terms of flexibility,
175 the following framework components can be fully exchanged:

- 176 • Multi-Agent System: Instead of JADE, another FIPA-compliant Agent Platform
177 might be used.
- 178 • Rule Engine: The whole rule-based system including inference engine and rule
179 language can be exchanged. Currently, Jess and OPSJ might be used.
- 180 • Hardware interface: Instead of using the CBCv2, another robot controller might
181 be used by implementing the low-level library connection.

182 In this system, plugins representing single components can be implemented in
183 Java projects containing classes implementing specific Java interfaces defined in
184 the core project of the framework. The usage of plugins can be statically config-
185 ured in a specially implemented configuration format (e.g. when changing the right
186 plugin class in the configuration file, OPSJ rule engine can be used instead of Jess
187 without any other efforts). Example rules for both rule engines can be found in the
188 next chapter in the context of performance measurements.

189 5 Performance Benchmarking

190 When implementing this framework in its first version, Jess was the only appli-
191 cable rule engine. In most cases, the rule firing time was insufficient due to the
192 limited resources of the CBC, and some measurements showed that the engine
193 used in Jess consumes most of the controller's resources. Considering the
194 importance of fast reaction on particular events it was necessary to investigate
195 possible system improvements. Trying out another rule engine might solve this
196 problem and this was actually the reason to implement the plugin into the system
197 which was introduced the section before. For comparing Jess and OPSJ rule
198 engines, two different performance benchmarks are used and their results pre-
199 sented later in this section. Both tests are executed in the framework environment,
200 which means that JADE and the ontology might have an effect on the results.

201 5.1 Methodology

202 The first benchmark is separated into two parts. It is intended for measuring the
203 time the different rule engines consume to load Java objects into their working
204 memory. After loading, the allocated heap memory is measured. Therefore, this
205 benchmark shows the data loading time and the heap memory consumption
206 dependent on the number of objects to load. Every object's state consists of ten
207 integer variables and one string variable; the maximum heap memory on the CBC
208 is limited to 32 megabytes. The execution is planned as follows: Each run loads a

209 number of objects, beginning with 10 for the first run up to 5,000 for the last run.
 210 After loading has finished in each run, the allocated heap memory will be measured.
 211 Every run will be iterated ten times and averaged for the result.

212 The second benchmark illustrates the optimal way of using a rule engine in the
 213 framework. It simulates the usage of one analog sensor in the framework, which
 214 means that the sensor will be read periodically. When the sensor's value is in a
 215 specific range, the time it takes to fire a rule, whose left-hand side matches this
 216 range, will be measured (reaction time). In particular, the reaction time consists of
 217 two parts: (1) the time for updating the appropriate rule engine fact with the new
 218 sensor value and (2) the time the rule engine takes to fire the rule. Because the
 219 sensor's value changes continually, every update leads to an invocation of the rule
 220 engine. This could overload the CBC and causes longer rule engine reaction times.
 221 This benchmark measures the overall reaction time for different update intervals
 222 and reveals the most efficient update interval configurations for the framework.
 223 The execution is planned as follows: Each run, using a specific update period
 224 beginning at 120 ms for the first run down to 0 ms for the last run, measures the
 225 reaction time 250 times, i.e. fires the rule 250 times. Figure 3 shows the rules for
 226 this performance benchmark in Jess- and OPSJ language. In the right-hand side, a
 227 static method will be called, which measures the time and prepares for the next
 228 iteration.

229 5.2 Results

230 The results of the first benchmark are presented as follows (Fig. 4):

231 The object loading time is roughly linear for both rule engines; for better
 232 visualization the loading time is scaled logarithmically. OPSJ is significantly faster
 233 than Jess, on average by a factor of 38. The heap memory plot is smoothed slightly
 234 in order to compensate side effects caused by JADE or other disturbance. Here is
 235 OPSJ performing better as well, the average memory savings compared to Jess are
 236 2.6 Megabytes.

<pre> 237 (defrule testrule 238 (AnalogSensor {value > 500}) 239 => 240 (call main.Main ruleFired) 241) </pre>	<pre> 237 rule testrule 238 if { 239 d: AnalogSensor (240 d.getValue() > 500 241); 242 } do { 243 Main.ruleFired(); 244 } </pre>
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Fig. 3 Rule used in reaction time performance benchmark: Jess (left) and OPSJ (right)

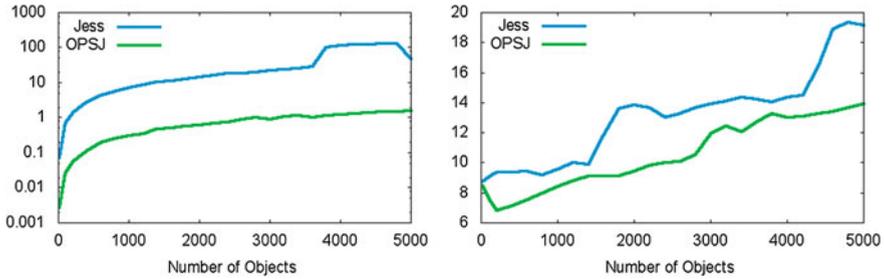


Fig. 4 Results of the data performance benchmark: object loading time on number of objects (*left*) and allocated heap memory on number of objects (*right*)

237 Figure 5 shows the results of second performance benchmark. The 250
 238 measurements, which were taken in each run, are visualized as a boxplot. They
 239 illustrate the range of reaction times which are possible for a specific update
 240 interval. As can be seen, every range goes from nearly zero (min) up to at least the
 241 update interval (max). This is explained by the randomness of the sensor's value:
 242 When the value passes the threshold, the next update could be immediate or long
 243 time off.

244 As expected, a low update interval (10 and 0 ms) when using Jess takes the
 245 controller to overload. In the graph, this can be seen in the raising maximum at
 246 10 ms which indicates unstable reaction time. At 0 ms, even the average reaction
 247 time raises. In case of OPSJ, reaction time does not increase significantly with low
 248 update interval. Note, that this benchmark simulates just one analog sensor which
 249 is insufficient in most robotic applications. When using an appropriate number of
 250 sensors and actuators, both rule engines might cause serious performance issues
 251 with low update intervals; Jess more than OPSJ.

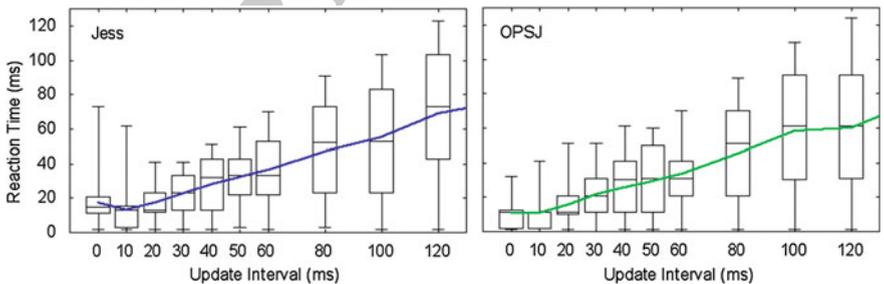


Fig. 5 Results of the reaction time performance benchmark: reaction time on update interval; visualization of raw data as boxplots and averaged as line

6 Conclusion

In this work, an intelligent MAS based on ontologies for a distributed mobile robot system applied in the disassembly domain was presented. The architecture provides robots, which are intelligent in the sense of path and task planning as well as cooperative with other (stationary or mobile) robots. They are also able to communicate with other robots and to coordinate disassembly tasks using negotiations. In order to face the insufficient reaction time due to the limited resources of the CBC a customizable architecture was developed, which allows the replacement of agent platforms, rule engines or hardware devices. Currently, Jess and OPSJ are the applicable rule engines, which differ significantly in their resource requirements. Jess takes a lot more time for data loading and allocates more heap memory than OPSJ. Furthermore, the lightweight OPSJ engine fires rules faster than the Jess engine, which mostly comes out when updating sensor and actuator values in low interval. This clearly points out the benefits of OPSJ in allocated memory and processing time, which both are the main limiting factors on mobile controllers. In this work the HLC was benchmarked. In order to provide the agents with faster reactive behaviors for sensors and motors a similar set of tests and evaluations of the LLC should be performed.

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