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# Smartphone Based Robotics: Powerful, Flexible and Inexpensive Robots for Hobbyists, Educators, Students and Researchers

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# Smartphone Based Robotics: Powerful, Flexible and Inexpensive Robots for Hobbyists, Educators, Students and Researchers

Nicolas Oros, Jeffrey L. Krichmar

**Abstract**—In this manuscript, we survey the new and exciting approach of Smartphone based robotics for research and education. The increases in the computational power and sensing of smartphones, plus the recent availability of interface boards, have made this trend popular across a wide range of enthusiasts. As an example, we show how we built an Android based robotic platform composed of an Android phone, an off-the-shelf input/output interface board, a R/C vehicle and additional sensors and actuators. The total cost of the platform, excluding the phone, was just \$350. Our Android based robot has been used for both undergraduate education and research purposes. In our research, we showed that the behavior of our Android based robot could be entirely driven by a neural network that ran on the phone as the robot performed a foraging task outdoors. We believe that Smartphone based robotic platforms such as ours are ideal candidates for inexpensive robotics research and education, and have a bright future in robotics.

**Index Terms**— Robot, Smartphones, Android phones

## I. INTRODUCTION

WHILE the field of robotics is continuously expanding at a remarkable rate and better performing robots are created every year, robotics still remains out of reach for many students and researchers. The main reasons for this difficulty are the high complexity of the hardware and software of robots, and their typically high cost.

We believe that the computing power, sensing capabilities and intuitive programming interfaces of modern smartphones afford an inexpensive yet highly capable robotic platform. Smartphone based robots are becoming increasingly popular, with many exciting applications emerging in both academia and industry. As a case in point, we provide a detailed description of a simple robotic platform based on this approach. We present examples where this robotic platform has been used for education and research purposes, as well as discuss potential future projects.

### A. Robotic platforms for education and research

A large number of robotic platforms are available for research and education (see Table 1 for a non-exhaustive list). Robotic platforms such as the Lego Mindstorms NXT and more recent

EV3, iRobot Create, VEX, TETRIX, SRV-1 and Bioloid (see rows 1-6 of Table 1) are simple and inexpensive enough to be used in education and robotic research. These platforms come in kits or preassembled and can be used by educators, and students to program behaviors. However, these platforms have difficulties working outdoors on uneven terrain, and usually do not have powerful onboard computers and a large suite of sensors. Robots such as the Khepera, Koala and Pioneer (see rows 7-10 of Table 1) are very popular in the research community. While they are more capable than the above platforms, the base models are also more expensive and additional equipment, such as onboard computers, cameras and sensors, drastically increase the total cost. Humanoid robots such as the NAO and the DARwIn-OP are also becoming more affordable and they are now used for research and education. Kits provided by competitions, such as the FIRST Robotics Competition and other robotic platforms provide enough modularity and flexibility to be used for education and research although they do not use onboard computers, sensors and cameras of the same caliber as recent smartphones. Other robots can be utilized for research and education purposes, however a full review of such platforms is beyond the scope of this manuscript.

iRobot Create	\$130
VEX Robotics (VEX IQ; VEX)	\$250; \$400
Lego Mindstorms NXT 2.0	\$280
Robotis (Bioloid; DARwIn-OP)	\$350; \$12,000
TETRIX	\$380
Surveyor (SRV-1)	\$495
K-Team Corporation (K-Junior; Kilobot; Khepera; Koala)	\$800; \$1,200 (for 10); \$3,200; \$8,400
Adept MobileRobots (AmigoBot; Pioneer DX; Pioneer AT)	\$1,695; \$4,000; \$6,495
Scout (Dr Robot)	\$8,750
Aldebaran Robotics (NAO)	\$15,600

**Table 1.** Popular robotic platforms used for education and research. Prices are shown for the base models/kits.

A new and exciting alternative to these platforms is to build a robotic platform with a smartphone acting as an onboard

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computer, as well as a sensing and interacting device. The computational power of handheld devices, such as mobile phones and tablets, increases every year at a remarkable rate. Even though smartphones have compact form factors, they are currently equipped with powerful quad-core processors and graphical processing units, video cameras, location providers (GPS, Wi-Fi, Cell-ID), long lasting batteries, and a multitude of sensors such as acceleration and orientation sensors. They also have an impressive suite of communication options (Bluetooth, Wi-Fi, Wi-Fi Direct, 3G, 4G), are powered by small long-lasting batteries, run modern operating systems (OS), and are reasonably priced. For software development, smartphone OS's provide a Software Development Kit (SDK) that enables programmers to readily create applications. Programmers often share their applications with the community enabling rapid prototyping and development. For these reasons, we believe that smartphones are promising candidates for onboard computing and sensing in autonomous robots.

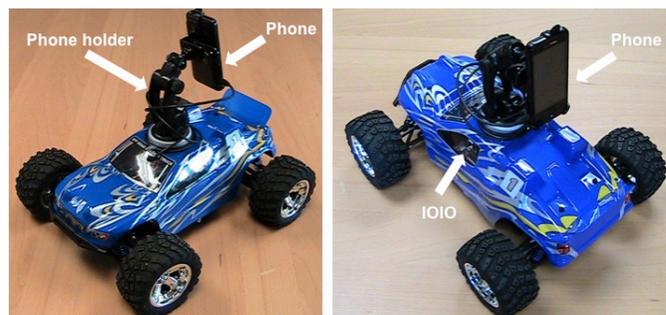
### B. Smartphone based robots and vehicles

A growing interest in having smartphones interacting with peripheral devices such as motors, servos and sensors led to the recent creation of electronic interface boards that can be purchased online or built at a small cost. These boards serve as communication bridges between Android™ smartphones and external devices. The two main boards available to the public are the IOIO (\$39.95; Sparkfun item 11343) and the Arduino ADK Rev3 (\$73.40), although other boards exist (e.g. Amarino, Microbridge, PropBridge).

An increasing number of projects realized by hobbyists, students or teachers, which utilize these electronic boards, are available in Open Source repositories (see Table 2). A significant number of these projects involve remote-controlled (R/C) cars, or other four wheeled based robots, controlled by Android phones via IOIO or Arduino boards. Most of them involve remote controlled functionalities, occasionally with video, sensory and location feedback to another phone or a computer. For example, a group of high school students built sailboats controlled by Android phones via IOIO boards. A group of hobbyists (Cellbots team) developed open source platforms for Android phones that can be used to control different robotic platforms such as the IRobot Create, Lego Mindstorms, VEX Pro, and Arduino based Truckbot or Tankbot. These examples show that existing robots can be used as bases, and Android phones as onboard computers. A company called Robots Everywhere develops Open Source control software for Android based robots. Interestingly, some of these projects emerge from developing countries, where the use of Smartphone based robots is attractive due to their low cost and high computational power. For example, a group in Thailand created Android based robots using IOIOs that are fast and can play soccer with ping-pong balls (see Table 2, Android Soccer Robot).

Our group has built a remote controlled vehicle, named The Android Car, using a R/C car, an Android phone, a phone holder and IOIO. The vehicle can be controlled over Wi-Fi and stream video and sensory information back to a computer

(see Table 2 and Figure 1). As will be described below, we are using an upgraded version of this platform for teaching and for research in computational neuroscience.



**Figure 1.** The Android Car built using a R/C car, an Android phone, a phone holder and IOIO, could be controlled over Wi-Fi and stream video and sensory information back to a computer. The phone was connected to the IOIO via a USB cable. See Table 2, The Android Car.

Smartphone robots and applications are becoming increasingly prevalent in research projects (see Table 2). Scientists at NASA and MIT built free-flying satellites called SPHERES that are self-contained with power, propulsion, computing and navigation equipment. These devices were tested in the International Space Station and were equipped with Android phones. More recently, NASA launched three nanosatellites in orbit around Earth called PhoneSats. These satellites used smartphones as control systems and a UHF radio beacon to transmit data and images to the ground. The smartphones monitored the cameras, accelerometers, magnetometers, and gyroscopes, which were onboard the satellites. In the field of human-robot interaction, researchers at MIT built a robot companion equipped with a smartphone named DragonBot. This cloud-connected robot utilizes the smartphone for motor control, 3D animation, image streaming, data capture, and is used to study human/robot interaction and potentially help kids learn. It has five physical degrees of freedom and an animated face that can display a wide range of emotional expressions. Other smartphone based robots have been developed to help remote users to communicate with each other through the robotic interface, which utilizes facial expressions and body gestures [1]. Researchers at Georgia Tech are working on a musical robotic swarm composed of cell-phone based robots that can communicate with humans and with each other and coordinate their movement in order to explore real time algorithmic musical composition and performance [2]. Android phones have also been used successfully with the LEGO Mindstorms NXT for robotics/software engineering classes [3].

Smartphone based robots are finding their way into commercial applications (see Table 2). For example, Romo is a small robot using an iPhone as an onboard computer. It can be trained to perform face tracking, controlled using another iOS device over Wi-Fi, or over Internet for telepresence. A simple SDK is also provided to users in order to create their own apps. Similarly, Botiful is a small telepresence robot built for Android phones. Double is a tall telepresence robot using an iPad as a computing and interacting device. Shimi is a

Robot/Project Name	Cost	More information
<b>Robots Everywhere</b> <b>Cellbots</b> <i>IOIO based projects</i> <i>IOIO based sailing boat</i> <b>Android Soccer Robot</b> <i>Arduino based projects</i> <b>The Android Car</b>	<i>unknown</i> \$30 to \$300 \$100 to \$400 (estimations) \$1200 (phone included) <i>unknown</i> \$200 to \$700 <b>\$200</b>	<a href="http://robots-everywhere.com/site/">http://robots-everywhere.com/site/</a> <a href="http://www.cellbots.com/">http://www.cellbots.com/</a> <a href="http://pinterest.com/yaibt/ioio">http://pinterest.com/yaibt/ioio</a> <a href="https://groups.google.com/forum/#!topic/ioioscript/VhwsoO218Pc">https://groups.google.com/forum/#!topic/ioioscript/VhwsoO218Pc</a> <a href="http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qY4b5sIrGKw">http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qY4b5sIrGKw</a> <a href="http://letsmakerobots.com/taxonomy/term/7469">http://letsmakerobots.com/taxonomy/term/7469</a> <a href="http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=n6ypGITCbKk">http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=n6ypGITCbKk</a> <a href="http://www.socsci.uci.edu/~jkriehma/ABR/index.html">http://www.socsci.uci.edu/~jkriehma/ABR/index.html</a>
<b>NASA - MIT SPHERES</b> <b>NASA PhoneSats</b> <b>MIT DragonBot</b> <b>GEORGIA TECH project</b> <b>Android Based</b> <b>Robotic Platform</b>	<i>unknown</i> \$3500-\$7000 (phone included) \$1000 (phone included) <i>unknown</i> <b>\$350</b>	<a href="http://www.nasa.gov/mission_pages/station/main/spheres_smartphone.html">http://www.nasa.gov/mission_pages/station/main/spheres_smartphone.html</a> <a href="http://www.phonesat.org/">http://www.phonesat.org/</a> <a href="http://www.adamsetapen.com/">http://www.adamsetapen.com/</a> <a href="http://www.gtcmt.gatech.edu/research-projects/swarm-robotics">http://www.gtcmt.gatech.edu/research-projects/swarm-robotics</a> <a href="http://www.socsci.uci.edu/~jkriehma/ABR/index.html">http://www.socsci.uci.edu/~jkriehma/ABR/index.html</a>
<b>Romo</b> <b>Botiful</b> <b>Shimi</b> <b>Double</b> <b>Albert</b> <b>iRiver Kibot</b>	\$150 \$299 \$200 \$2499 <i>unknown</i> \$40 (+ \$30/month 2 years KT)	<a href="http://www.romotive.com/">http://www.romotive.com/</a> <a href="http://www.botiful.me/">http://www.botiful.me/</a> <a href="http://tovbot.com/t/AboutShimi">http://tovbot.com/t/AboutShimi</a> <a href="http://www.doublerobotics.com/">http://www.doublerobotics.com/</a> <a href="http://tsmartrobot.com/">http://tsmartrobot.com/</a> <a href="http://armdevices.net/2012/01/21/iriver-kibot-this-robot-takes-care-of-children/">http://armdevices.net/2012/01/21/iriver-kibot-this-robot-takes-care-of-children/</a>

**Table 2.** Smartphone based robotic projects: hobbyists/students hardware and/or software (top), research (middle), commercial (bottom). Both *The Android Car* and the *Android Robotic Platform* (in red) were completed at the Cognitive Ant eater Robotics Laboratory, University of California Irvine.

robotic musical companion that reacts to songs played by a smartphone when connected to it. Kibot and Albert are robotic companions that can play with children and help them learn. These companion or telepresence robots are an interesting market. However, they are not modular and not suitable for many education or research purposes.

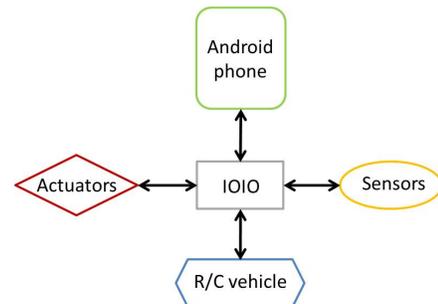
## II. ANDROID BASED ROBOTIC PLATFORM

Similar to the examples discussed above and in Table 2, our group has developed a smartphone robot platform for hobbyists, students and researchers. We believe our platform provides flexibility over other available options making it attractive to a wide range of enthusiasts. In this section and in section III, we describe the components of the platform and instructions on how to construct a smartphone robot. The robot is constructed from an Android phone, IOIO board, which is connected via Bluetooth or USB, a R/C vehicle and additional sensors and actuators (see Figures 2 through 5). The robot takes advantage of the sensors on the phone (e.g., camera, accelerometers, GPS), as well as additional sensors external to the phone (e.g. IR sensors, Hall Effect Sensors) via the IOIO. The Android phone interacts with actuators, such as speed controllers or pan/tilt units, via the IOIO board.

Our Android Robotic Platform is an inexpensive do-it-yourself (DIY) smartphone based robotic platform using off-the-shelf components and open source software libraries that could easily be built by students, hobbyists or researchers, but still perform complex computations and tasks. Our goal was to minimize both expenses and time spent on building robots, allowing users to focus on more fundamental research and robotic problems. The platform also had to be modular and flexible enough to support different sensors and actuators that could be incorporated and relocated very easily. Furthermore, the platform had to be able to traverse a wide range of indoor and outdoor terrains. We believe that three main off-the-shelf components can be used in order to fulfill these requirements: 1) A smartphone running the Android operating system used as onboard computers and sensing devices; 2) an electronic

board (e.g. IOIO, Arduino ADK) used to interact with peripheral devices such as servos, motors and sensors not included in the phone; 3) a R/C vehicle, or inexpensive robotic base. Due to the variability in complexity of these components, the total cost to build such a robotic platform can change, especially depending on the phone and vehicle used.

In the following sections, we will describe a robotic platform that can be built for approximately \$350 (excluding the phone). The main difference, compared with other smartphone based robots, is that our platform is more modular, and can be used outdoors on uneven terrain.



**Figure 2.** Diagram showing the main components of the Android based robotic platform and their interactions. The robotic platform gets sensory input from the phone's internal sensors, as well as external sensors via the IOIO board. The Android phone sends commands to the robot's actuators via the IOIO board. The Android phone interacts with the IOIO board through a USB cable or a Bluetooth connection.

### A. Android phone

#### 1) Hardware

An important advantage of using a smartphone for an onboard computer is that the size of a robot can be kept relatively small, yet still have great features. Its cost can also be minimal since the phone itself can handle computation, sensing and battery power.

Many different phones are now available on the market. Before purchasing an Android phone to be used as an onboard computer for a robot, one has to consider the uses and needs of that particular robot. A hobbyist or student may consider using

an older less expensive phone. For example, the HTC Google Nexus One can be found unlocked for less than \$200, and is a suitable onboard computer. This phone has a 1 GHz Qualcomm Scorpion CPU, 512MB of RAM memory, a microSD card reader (supports up to 32 GB), and a 1400 mAh Li-ion battery. It can provide a number of sensory inputs such as a capacitive touch screen, a 3-axis accelerometer, a digital compass, a satellite navigation system (aGPS), a proximity sensor, an ambient light sensor, push buttons, a trackball and a 5.0 megapixel rear camera with a LED flash. For connectivity, it includes a 3.5mm TRRS audio connector, and hardware supporting Bluetooth 2.1, micro USB 2.0, Wi-Fi IEEE 802.11b/g/n, 2G/3G networks. A researcher may desire more features and computational power. In this case, a recent phone such as the Samsung Galaxy S3 might be considered. This phone can be found unlocked for around \$400, has a 1.4 GHz quad-core Cortex-A9 CPU, 1-2GB of RAM, a microSD card reader (supports up to 64 GB), and a 2,100 mAh Li-ion battery. For sensing, it has a multi-touch capacitive touchscreen, 3 push buttons, satellite navigation systems (aGPS, GLONASS), a barometer, a gyroscope, an accelerometer, a digital compass, an 8.0 megapixel rear camera with a LED flash, and a 1.9 megapixel front camera. For connectivity, it includes a 3.5mm TRRS audio connector, and hardware supporting Bluetooth 4.0, Wi-Fi (802.11 a/b/g/n), Wi-Fi Direct, 2G/3G networks, Micro-USB, NFC, and DLNA.

## 2) Software

The Android operating system is open source and Linux-based. Programmers can develop software for Android in Java using the SDK [4-6] or in native language (C/C++) using the native development kit (NDK) [7, 8]. It is also possible for developers to modify the Linux kernel if needed. Implementation of an Android application can be achieved using the Eclipse IDE with the Android Development Tools (ADT) plug-in [9]. Using this SDK, the developer has easy access to different functionalities of an Android phone such as graphical interfaces, multi-threading, networking, data storage, multimedia, sensors, location provider, speech-to-text, text-to-speech, and more. Since Android phones can connect to the Internet, cloud based applications can also be used when high performance computing is needed. In the field of robotics, this feature can allow the development of cloud based robotics applications. When developing an application that is CPU-intensive but doesn't allocate much memory, an alternative programming option is to use the Android NDK. With the NDK, a programmer can create an Android Java application that interacts with native code (C/C++) using the Java Native Interface (JNI). Programming in C/C++ on an Android platform can result in an increase of performance, but also increases complexity. The NDK also enables usage of existing C/C++ libraries. However, an effort has been made to export popular libraries (e.g., computer vision library OpenCV) to Java [10] so that they can be incorporated in Android applications. The robot operating system ROS [11] is also available for Android in Java. It was developed at Google in cooperation with Willow Garage, and enables integration of Android and ROS compatible robots. Recently, the Accessory Development Kit (ADK) was made available for hardware manufacturers and hobbyists to build accessories for Android.

Such accessories use the Android Open Accessory (AOA) protocol to communicate with Android devices, over a USB cable or through a Bluetooth connection (supported from Android 2.3.4).

## B. Remote-Controlled Vehicle

The actuating platform can be kept relatively cheap and small by using an off-the-shelf remote control (R/C) vehicle as a robot chassis. R/C vehicles span a wide range of cost and sophistication and come in many formats. These vehicles can be on-road cars, off-road trucks, tanks, boats, airplanes, helicopters and quad-copters. They can be classified in two main categories: toy grade or hobby grade. The toy grade vehicles are less expensive but also less robust, less powerful, and are harder to modify or repair. Hobby grade R/C vehicles can be purchased in kit, or fully assembled and ready to run (RTR). They can be easily modified and each individual part is accessible and can be replaced. These R/C vehicles provide a speed controller regulating motors and servomotors used for forward or backward movement, and for steering. They are powered by combustion engines (nitro, gas) or electric motors (brushed or brushless) with electric batteries (nickel-cadmium, nickel metal hydride, or lithium polymer cells). Some electric cars can even be powered by solar energy or use hydrogen fuel cells. Compared to typical wheeled robot platforms, R/C cars are affordable, extremely fast, assembled and ready to use, and have hydraulic suspensions that are ideal to minimize vibrations when driving outdoors. This is an important factor to consider when creating a robot supporting a video camera that has to drive on uneven roads, dirt tracks or grass.

## C. IOIO

In order to control a R/C vehicle from an Android phone, we used the IOIO board to link the phone to the motor and servo of the vehicle. The IOIO can send PWM signals to the speed controller of the vehicle in order to regulate its motors and servomotors. The IOIO can also read values from digital and analog sensors, such as infrared sensors (IR) or Hall Effect Sensors. The IOIO provides connectivity to an Android device via a Bluetooth or USB connection and is fully controllable from within an Android application using a simple Java API. The newer IOIO-OTG can also be connected via USB as a host or an accessory to an Android device or a computer. When connected to an Android device, the IOIO-OTG can act as a USB host and supply charging current to the device. If connected to a computer, the IOIO acts as a virtual serial port and can be powered by the host. Compared to the other boards with similar functionality (e.g., Arduino ADK, Amarino, Microbridge, PropBridge), we chose the IOIO because it provides a high-level Java API for controlling the board's functions without having to write embedded-C code for the board. It supports all Android OS versions, whereas other boards only support the most recent Android OS. The IOIO is inexpensive \$39.95 with a small footprint (~ 8cm by 3cm), is fully open-source, and has great technical support with an active discussion group and an extensive documentation Wiki.

## 1) Hardware

The main function of the IOIO is to interact with peripheral devices. It can do so with 48 I/O pins, and digital inputs/outputs, PWM, analog inputs, I2C, SPI, TWI, and UART interfaces. The IOIO board contains a single MCU that acts as a USB host and interprets commands from an Android app. The IOIO supports 3.3V and 5V inputs and outputs. It has two on-board voltage regulators. It contains a switching regulator that can take 5V-15V input and output up to 3A of stable 5V, and a linear regulator that feeds off the 5V line and outputs up to 500mA of stable 3.3V. Furthermore, the hardware of the IOIO is fully open source with a permissive license, therefore, the schematics (Eagle files) can be downloaded in order to build the board and even modify it.

## 2) Software

A high-level Java API is provided with the IOIO that provides simple functions to connect to the IOIO from an Android application. The application can read values from digital or analog inputs, and write values to the IOIO outputs. Currently, analog input pins of the IOIO are sampled at 1KHz. Since the IOIO software is fully open source, a developer can perform low level embedded programming in order to modify the firmware for example. Communication between the phone and the IOIO can be made over Bluetooth, or USB using the Android Debug Bridge protocol (ADB) or the more recent Open Accessory protocol. Using the ADB protocol, the one-way average latency is  $\sim 4$ ms and effective throughput is  $\sim 300$ KB/s. Using the open accessory protocol improves the latency to around  $\sim 1$ ms. The jitter (i.e. variance in latency) is also much smaller, and the effective throughput increases to  $\sim 600$ KB/s. Although more convenient, Bluetooth latency is significantly higher than USB (on the order of 10's of ms), and the bandwidth (data rate) of Bluetooth is significantly lower than USB connections (order of 10's of KB/sec).

## D. Sensors and Actuators

While Android phones provide a large set of sensors and cameras, autonomous robots usually need additional sensors in order to perform a diversity of tasks. Using the Android based platform, robots can be equipped with additional sensors, such as infrared sensors, sonars, touch sensors, whiskers and bumpers. Speed sensors can also be added to the platform when accurate odometry is required. Moreover, gas sensors can be equipped on the robot so it could detect gazes and chemical compounds such as smoke, carbon monoxide, alcohols, propane, methane and more. Additional actuators can also be added to our platform in order to perform more complex task. For example, the phone can be mounted on a pan-tilt unit whose servos are controlled by the phone through the IOIO. A robotic arm or gripper could also be mounted on the platform and controlled by the IOIO.

# III. BUILDING AN ANDROID BASED ROBOTIC PLATFORM

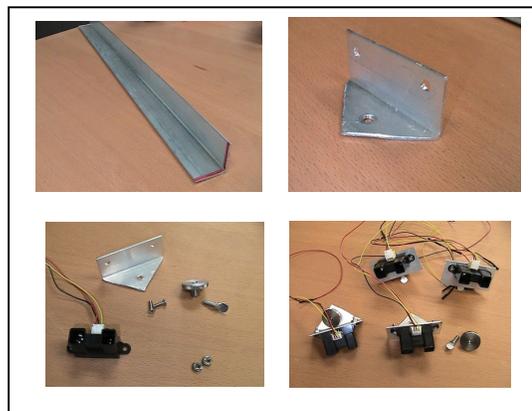
## A. Hardware

We will now describe the steps needed to build an Android based robot platform such as the one shown in Figure 3. A video describing the construction of the platform can also be found online (see Table 2, Android Robotic platform).



**Figure 3.** Android based robotic platform composed of IOIO, four infrared sensors, and a robotic head mounted onto a perforated steel base. The base is installed on the chassis of a R/C truck. The robotic head is composed of a rectangular tube, two servos for the pan and tilt unit, and a phone holder made of foam.

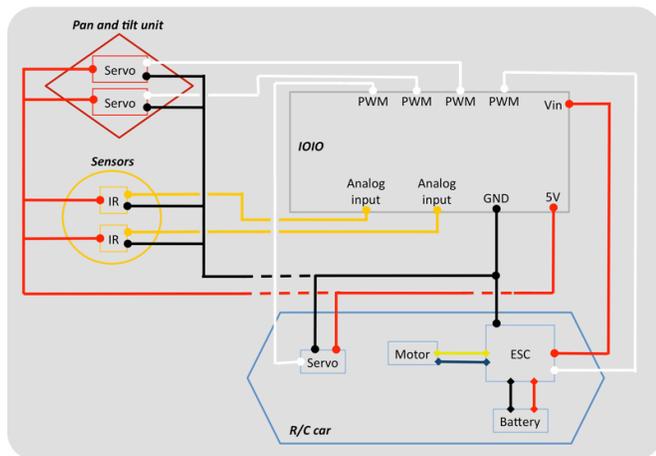
We built two robots, a small one using a XTM Rage 1/18th 4WD R/C truck (\$119.95, max speed: 20 mph), and a larger one using a Hobby People Vertex 4WD 1/10 (\$139.95, max speed: 24 mph) R/C truck. For each robot, a sheet of perforated steel was used as a base to support the IOIO, a phone holder, sensors and actuators. The use of a perforated base facilitates the addition, removal and relocation of sensors and actuators on the robot, making the platform highly modular. The IOIO was mounted directly on the base using spacers. We then created mounts for infrared sensors using aluminum angles. These angles were cut and drilled as shown in Figure 4. The IR sensor mounts were screwed to the base using thumbnuts, which enabled their orientation to be easily adjusted. The IR sensors were from the Sharp GP2 series (\$14.50) and responded with a voltage proportional to the distance of an object, ranging from 20 cm to 150 cm.



**Figure 4.** Construction phases of mounts for infrared sensors. An aluminum angle was cut and drilled to the dimensions of the IR sensors. Thumbnuts and screws were used to mount the IR sensors to the perforated base.

We made a rudimentary phone holder of polystyrene foam and glued it to an aluminum angle perforated to allow the phone holder to be screwed to the base of the robot. While this phone holder might not be the most robust or elegant form factor, it is inexpensive and can be easily built. The phone was actuated by a pan and tilt kit (Lynxmotion \$29.93) and mounted on an aluminum rectangular tube. We assembled the servos of the pan and tilt unit, cut the rectangular tube and made a hole to the dimensions of the lower servo. Two holes were drilled on the lower part in order to screw the head to the base. The phone holder was screwed to the pan and tilt unit that was mounted onto the rectangular tube. The head and IR sensors were then mounted on the base of the robot (see Figure 3).

The electric speed controller (ESC) of the car received power directly from the car's battery (see Figure 5). We first disconnected the servo and the ESC from the RF receiver on the R/C car. The ESC was then connected to the IOIO to provide power (Vin input) and receive a PWM signal to control the car's motor (PWM output). The servo of the car was connected to the IOIO that provided power (5V output) and a PWM signal for control (PWM output). The IR sensors were powered by the IOIO (5V) and were connected to the IOIO analog inputs to transmit their values. The servos of the pan and tilt unit also received power (5V) and PWM signals from the IOIO. The IOIO board was connected to the Android phone via USB or Bluetooth.



**Figure 5.** Schematic showing the electrical circuitry of the Android based robot. Sensors and actuators are connected to the IOIO except for the motor of the R/C powered by the ESC. Only two sensors are shown here but more can be added to the platform. If more sensors and actuators are used, they should be powered separately (not from the IOIO) since the IOIO can only provide 3A maximum on the 5V output pins.

## B. Software

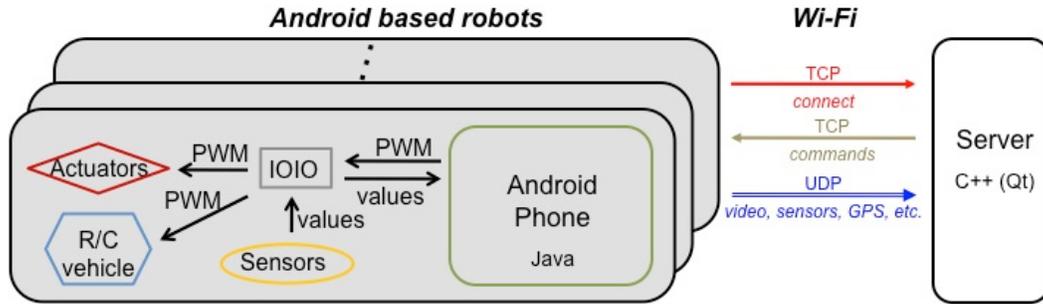
In addition to the Android Robot Platform, we developed software to monitor and control a group of robots deployed in a large area. Specifically, an Android Java application was created to connect remotely to a server over Wi-Fi. The application captured and sent sensory data streams (e.g., video, accelerometer, compass, and GPS), and received commands from a host computer. The Android app consisted of different components. A main program with a GUI called an Activity. Listeners and Callback objects that were updated

by the Android OS every time the output data of the accelerometer, compass, gyroscope, GPS or camera changes. A main thread consisting of a loop that collected data (sensors, GPS, camera, IRs), performed necessary computation (e.g. image processing), sent data to the server, read the TCP socket, and updated the IOIO motor commands. This thread performed video streaming by capturing frames from the camera, which were then converted from YUV to RGB using OpenCV, compressed into JPEG images, sliced into UDP packets, and sent over Wi-Fi to the server. Finally, the Android app executed another thread connected to the IOIO to open, read and write values on specific pins.

		Update cycle	
		mean	s.d.
I	Camera	47 ms (21 Hz)	8.4 ms
	Main thread	10 ms (100 Hz)	5.8 ms
II	Accelerometer	10 ms (100 Hz)	2 ms
	Compass	10 ms (100 Hz)	2 ms
	Gyroscope	10 ms (100 Hz)	2 ms
	GPS	997 ms (1 Hz)	23.3 ms
	Main thread	10.5 ms (100 Hz)	5 ms
III	IOIO thread	11 ms (91 Hz)	8.4 ms
	Main thread	11 ms (91 Hz)	6 ms
IV	Camera	49 ms (20 Hz)	6.1 ms
	Accelerometer	9.8 ms (102 Hz)	1.4 ms
	Compass	9.8 ms (102 Hz)	1.4 ms
	Gyroscope	9.8 ms (102 Hz)	1.4 ms
	GPS	1000 ms (1 Hz)	20.1 ms
	IOIO thread	9.6 ms (104 Hz)	6.5 ms
	Main thread	9.6 ms (104 Hz)	5.7 ms

**Table 3.** Mean update cycle in milliseconds, with standard deviation, of each component of the app. Four experiments were conducted on a Galaxy S III running the app for 5 minutes each time.

The Android application was able to handle multiple threads and respond to different sensors with minimal delays. The app's performance was measured on a Samsung Galaxy S III by running the app for 5 minutes under four different conditions (see Table 3). First, we recorded the mean update cycles when using only the camera (see Table 3, I). The camera callback was updated at 21Hz on average and the main thread at 100Hz. In this experiment, the size of each frame was set to 176 x 144 and the JPEG quality to 75. We then recorded the update cycles when using the sensors and GPS of the phone (see Table 3, II). The sensor listeners for the compass, accelerometer and gyroscope were updated at 100Hz in average, the GPS listener at 1Hz, and the main thread at 100Hz. We also recorded the update cycles when using the IOIO that read values from four IR sensors and sent PWM commands to the servo and motor of the RC car (see Table 3, III). In this case, both the IOIO and the main threads were updated at 91Hz in average. Finally, we recorded the update cycles when all the components were running concurrently (see Table 3, IV). The camera callback was updated at 20Hz, the sensor listeners at 102Hz, the GPS listener at 1Hz, and the IOIO and main threads at 104Hz in average. Even when running all the components, the app still showed good performance. These experiments demonstrated that an app programmed entirely in Java using the Android API, OpenCV and IOIO libraries, could run quite well even when executing many components at the same time. The update frequencies



**Figure 6.** Schematic of the server-client model of the Android based robots connected to a computer. A phone connects to the server using a TCP socket. Once connected, a user can use the GUI of the server to remotely start or stop threads that control the video camera, sensors, GPS and the IOIO that controls the robot and read sensors values. Data is streamed to the server over different UDP sockets. The pulse width of the PWM signals can also be sent by the server to control a robot remotely.

of each component are adequate for robotics purposes. However, we are still working on improving the performance of our app especially for image processing and streaming (e.g. using FFmpeg). We have to emphasize that at this point, we did not try to close programs and services running in the background in order to optimize the scheduling done by the Android OS. Programming certain parts of the app in C/C++ using the NDK should also improve performance.

To remotely control multiple robots, monitor their video and sensory information, and allow for direct communication between robots, we developed a C++ application that can run on a desktop computer or laptop (see Figures 6 and 7).



**Figure 7.** Server program running on a computer. Left - multiple phones/robots can connect to the server and stream data such as video feed. Right - Interface for one robot. Using this window, users can start/stop streaming the video, sensory information coming from the compass, accelerometer, and IR sensors connected to the IOIO. They can also control the robot using the keyboard or allow the robot to run in autonomous mode.

This program was developed using the Qt libraries, and can run on Windows, Mac OS and Linux. A phone can connect to the server using a TCP socket. Once connected, a user can use the GUI of the server to remotely start or stop the video camera, sensors, GPS, and the IOIO in order to read the values of the IR sensors and control the robot. Data is streamed to the server over UDP sockets. Start and stop commands are sent from the server to a phone over the TCP socket. PWM values used to control the robot remotely if needed are also sent over the TCP socket. The server received 20 frames per seconds during experiment I (see Table 3), displaying the video feedback in near real time over Wi-Fi. We had similar results when two phones were connected to the server. More experiments will be conducted in the future to make sure that the program can scale up when connected to more robots. The

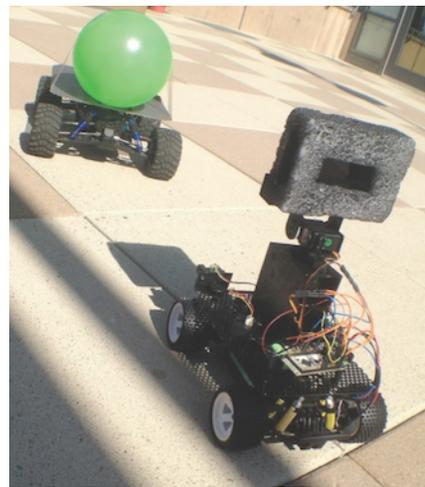
software (Android app and server program) is available online (see Table 2, Android Robotic Platform).

#### IV. APPLICATIONS TO EDUCATION AND RESEARCH

In this section, we describe two applications of our Android Robotic Platform, one developed by students in an undergraduate course on Android programming, and the other developed for computational neuroscience research. These case studies give an idea of the type of applications that can be used with our platform, and highlight the features of the platform.

##### A. Autonomous Android Vehicle

Using our platform, students in an undergraduate Android programming course programmed robots to recognize, track, and follow a specified color object, as well as have the ability to avoid obstacles (see Figure 8).



**Figure 8.** Autonomous Android vehicle tracking and following a green ball transported by a remotely controlled vehicle.

The source code, videos and information can be found online (see Table 2, Android Robotic Platform). Their Android application used the camera of a Samsung Galaxy S II, with OpenCV libraries in order to find the contours of a green ball. In their case, commands (PWM signals) were sent from the Smartphone to the R/C car's speed controller and steering servo through the IOIO, and the IOIO sent the values of four infrared sensors used for obstacle avoidance, to the Smartphone. The pan and tilt unit was also controlled from the

IOIO and was used to scan the environment when the robot lost sight of the ball, and to track the ball as it moved. The students also used a second robot that was controlled remotely using a Motorola Droid RAZR and IOIO board. The phone was connected to the IOIO over Bluetooth, and the phone's accelerometers were used to control the car by tilting the phone in different directions. This car was used to carry the green ball around and be followed by the autonomous robot.

The project was a success and confirmed that this platform could be used for education by undergraduate computer science and engineering students. We have to emphasize that the performance of the tracking algorithm used was not of major importance for this project. However, in multiple demonstrations, the follower robot found the leader robot, and tracked it while simultaneously avoiding obstacles.

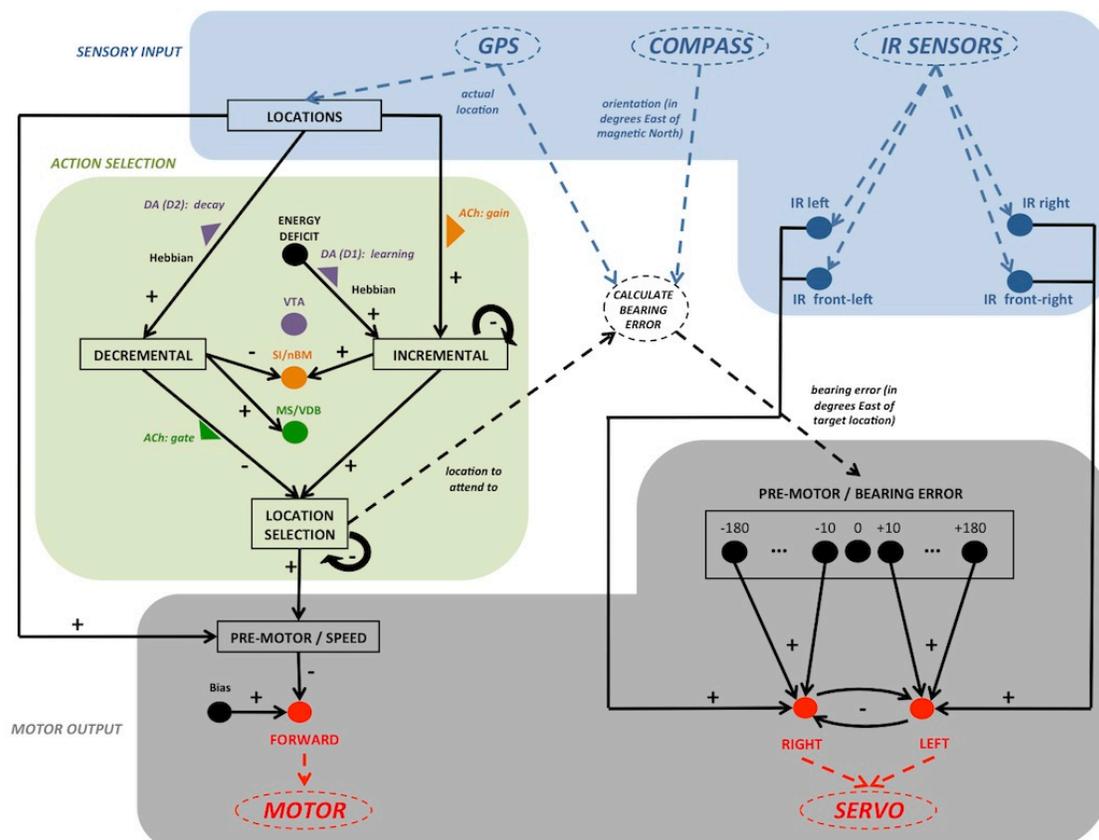
### B. Android Based Robot Controlled by a Neural Network

For our own research in computational neuroscience, an autonomous Android robot performed a task known in cognitive sciences as a reversal learning task [12]. In such a task, subjects learn an association very well, and then due to a change in conditions, they need to forget what they learned previously and learn a new association.

In our instantiation of this task, the Android robot had to learn the locations of valuable resources. The robot had an energy level that decreased over time. After some exploring the robot learned the rewarding location and headed to that location when its energy level was low. The experiment was conducted outdoors on an open grass field where two GPS locations were chosen (L1 and L2) and only one location

contained resources (see Figure 10, right). The robot would "consume" resources when it was at the rewarding location. It took three visits to consume all the resources. After the third visit, a reversal was introduced by placing the resources at the other location. The experiment consisted of ten trials and the locations were selected at different places on the open field for each trial.

A neural network running on the Android phone controlled the robot and received the GPS location, compass reading (azimuth) and the values of the IR sensors as inputs. The neural network was composed of 60 firing rate neurons and 67 synapses (connections). The neural activities and synaptic connections were updated every 100ms, due to the limitations of the phone used (HTC Incredible 1) and the long update cycles of the GPS (1Hz). It processed the sensory information in order to learn where the reward was located and select a location to attend to, and outputted the signals controlling the motor and servo of the robot. The neural network driving the behavior of the robot was composed of three main groups (see Figure 9): sensory input, action selection and motor output (see [12] for more details). The locations area consisted of two neurons, one for each location (L<sub>1</sub> and L<sub>2</sub>). The neural activity of this area was based on the distances between the location of the robot and L<sub>1</sub> and L<sub>2</sub>. Four infrared sensors were connected to the IOIO and were used to detect obstacles. Four neurons encoded the value of these IR sensors and sent signals to the servos of the robot. The action selection group was based on the known functional neuroanatomy for attentional pathways. It consisted of a decremental and an incremental attention area, and an action selection area (Location Selection in



**Figure 9.** Neural architecture driving the behavior of the robot. It was composed of three main groups: sensory input, action selection and motor output. Solid line items represent neural implementation (neurons and connections). See [12] for more details.

Figure 9). These areas had two neurons, one for each location ( $L_1$  and  $L_2$ ). The main function of the action selection group was to learn that a location was predictive of a reward, and to choose a location to attend to, causing the robot to stop at a novel location, or to go back to the reward location when the robot's energy was low. Reinforcement learning caused the robot to remember where the reward was located in order to go back to it when its energy level decreased. The motor output group consisted of a pre-motor/speed area composed of one neuron for each location ( $L_1$  and  $L_2$ ), a pre-motor/bearing error area composed of 37 neurons (10 degree resolution), and three motor neurons: one to move forward, one to turn right and one to turn left. The activity of the motor neurons was mapped into the pulse width of the PWM signals controlling the robot's motor and servo.

The robot successfully performed the task in roughly 8.5 minutes. Experimental trials are described below and can be seen on a video online (see Table 2, Android Robotic Platform). We set up the experiment so that the robot always started at location  $L_2$ . The robot initially learned that no resources were present at this location and started to move. If the robot went back to this location again, it would not stop since learned that  $L_2$  did not contain a reward. During this time, the robot's energy level kept decreasing. Once the robot found location  $L_1$  where the reward was located, it stopped and stayed still until its energy level was fully replenished. During this time, the robot learned to associate resources with the location  $L_1$ . Once its energy level was full, the robot started to move again and explore its environment. When its energy level was low, the robot would go back to the location  $L_1$  associated with the reward. The robot consumed all the resources present at  $L_1$ , by visiting  $L_1$  three times, in 3.1 minutes on average. A reversal was then introduced by placing resources at location  $L_2$ . However, the robot persisted in going back to  $L_1$  for  $\sim 2$  minutes until it finally switched back to an explorative behavior. The robot then found and learned that the resources were now at the location  $L_2$ . As before, when its energy level was low, the robot would go back to the location  $L_2$ . The robot consumed all the resources present at  $L_2$  in 3.3 minutes on average.

In sum, these results show that the robot managed to perform the task in a short amount of time during which it initially learned a stimulus-reward association, and then demonstrated the ability to switch strategy when a reversal was introduced. The robot also exhibited perseverative behavior in accordance with the behavior observed in rats [13, 14] and monkeys [15] performing a reversal learning task. Importantly, for the present article, this work showed that the Android based robot can support complex research projects. The behavior of the robot was entirely driven by a neural network that ran on the phone in real-time, with no previous offline training. The robot managed to perform a reversal learning task successfully by increasing its attention to relevant location and decreasing its attention to irrelevant ones.



**Figure 10.** Left – Android based robotic platform with four infrared sensors and a protection case for the IOIO. Right - open grass field with both locations  $L_1$  and  $L_2$ , where the experiment was conducted.

## V. DISCUSSION

In this manuscript, we presented a promising trend in robotics, which leverages smartphone technology. These smartphone robots are ideal for hobbyists, educators, students, and researchers. We described different smartphone based robotic projects, and we also demonstrated the relatively easy and inexpensive construction of an Android based robotic platform. Our experience and analyses show that these phones can handle multiple sensors and perform complex tasks in real time.

We do want to emphasize that the platform presented in this manuscript represents only one example of an Android based robotic platform and many different variants exist. Android phones can also be used with other robotic platforms, proving the high potential of using smartphones in robotics (see Table 2, Cellbots). Compared with other smartphone based robotic platforms, our platform is more modular as sensors and actuators can be easily added, removed or relocated on the robot, and it can also be used outdoors. The cost of our platform is also lower than “classical” robotic platforms with similar features and onboard computing power. In the future, the hardware of our platform will be improved by reinforcing the chassis structure, and by adding additional sensors (speed, touch, gas, thermal, etc.) necessary for mapping and for disaster victim identification. Additionally, the use of different chassis (wheels, tracked, or legged vehicles) and steering mechanisms (front wheels steering, differential steering) will be considered.

Because of their accessibility and extensibility, we believe that smartphone based robots will be used extensively in many different configurations and environments. For example, the use of inexpensive but capable robots will be highly beneficial for swarm robotics to create a heterogeneous swarm where groups of different robots would carry out different tasks, similar to the Swarmanoid [16]. Our own group is currently working on swarm robotics approaches to search and rescue operations. The overall strategy is to create robots capable of mapping and identifying victims in a disaster zone, and interact with human operators. This robotic swarm could also be modified for environmental monitoring such as pollution or fire detection. The combination of the powerful and efficient hardware of modern Android phones, as well as sensing and interacting devices for robotics, makes Android phones ideal onboard computers. In addition, an API which provides easy access to sensors, cameras, wireless connectivity, text to speech and voice recognition functionalities, open source

software and libraries such as OpenCV and ROS, as well as cloud based applications facilitates programming. GPUs on smartphones are also improving rapidly and will soon be adequate to perform more complex algorithms through parallel computation. Furthermore, the low cost and high availability of Android phones make them very attractive for developing countries where Android based robotics will surely boost robotics research and education. To summarize, we believe that Android based robotic platforms will be used extensively for multidisciplinary, innovative and affordable projects in research and education. In addition, this approach to robotics will stimulate the creativity of electrical, mechanical and software engineers, as well as robotics students and hobbyists.

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