

HUMAN CONTROL OF REMOTE COMPUTER-MANIPULATORS

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Summary

This paper describes a man-computer-manipulator system for doing a variety of exploration and assembly tasks for space, undersea, hazardous terrestrial environments, warehousing and medical applications. Emphasis is placed upon the allocation of functions to man and machine and the nature of their on-line interaction. The human operator through a combination of analogic commands (hand movements to specify direction, magnitude, time relative to his view of the task) and symbolic commands (typewritten alphanumeric characters), sets subgoals, subroutines, and stopping conditions in terms of the manipulator's position and touch sensors. The computer interprets the human commands, reads data from the manipulator's own sensors, performs geometric transformations and executes optimal or heuristic procedures to drive the manipulator actuators. Laboratory experiments with such a system are described, and problems of organizing command languages, designing touch sensors and manipulators are detailed.

Introduction and Problem Statement

Remote manipulation up to the present time has been carried out mainly in nuclear "hot cells" and to a lesser extent undersea. Generally in these applications a direct mechanical or electro-mechanical linkage continuously slaves the movements of the mechanical hand to those of a hand guided by a human operator a relatively few feet away. The only extra-terrestrial application has been the manipulator on the Surveyor spacecraft which was commanded in very simple discrete movements to dig the surface of the moon and to position experimental apparatus. General purpose manipulators have recently been employed in production tasks, wherein the manipulator repeats a stored motion sequence "taught" it by a human operator who moves its degrees of freedom through the desired path to record the important points along it. None of these devices makes use of artificial intelligence or even environmental sensing for automatic control. An extensive historical review of developments in remote manipulation has recently been written by Johnsen and Corliss.¹

Beginning with the experiments of Ernst several developments of autonomous robots have begun at MIT, Stanford University, and Stanford Research Institute^{3,4,5} which have potential application to an unmanned Mars mission. Completely autonomous devices will surely be practical for a wide range of recognition and control tasks eventually. It is the authors' contention, however, that for the immediate future it will be economically expedient to send a manipulator or vehicle having a low level of artificial intelligence but supervised by a human

operator on earth. It would transmit to him relatively simple sense data and other information for his interpretation and for use as the basis of further instructions. At lunar and nearer distances the telemetry required is entirely within the present state-of-the-art.

More generally it is believed that non-routine mechanical handling or assembly tasks too remote or too hazardous or scaled too large or too small for direct manipulation by man can best be controlled by a mixture of human and artificial intelligence. The problem is how man and computer should interact. This paper describes laboratory simulation experiments involving human subjects together with computers in real-time control of two, three and seven degree-of-freedom mechanical manipulator devices. In these experiments the computer continuously recognizes simple patterns and effects control trajectories to achieve relatively near subgoals, whereas the man intermittently observes system states and sets subgoals. The paper also illustrates by example the ways in which a human operator and a computer can efficiently complement one another in planning and executing task strategies.

Loop Delays from Signal Transmission, Coding and Process Dynamics

A continuous control system usually becomes unstable when loop delays exceed one half cycle at any signal frequency for which loop gain exceeds unity. In control from earth the speed of light poses loop delays (round trip) of 1/3 second to synchronous Earth satellites, 2.6 seconds to the moon and at best several minutes to Mars. To this is added the delay for signal coding and decoding which may be nearly five seconds even for high priority signals in complex state-of-the-art vehicles like Apollo. Low resolution pictures from Mars will take several minutes, high resolution pictures an hour or more. Process lags of inertia and viscosity can add further delay to remote mechanical operations.

Laboratory experiments in human control of simple manipulators (two-dimensional translation and grasp) have shown that with only visual feedback human subjects avoid the slow and erratic movements that delay tends to induce by consistently adopting a move-and-wait strategy, whereby limited open loop moves (without feedback) are punctuated by waits of one loop delay time in order to gain feedback and confirmation or reorientation.⁶ Task completion time can be accurately predicted from completion times and measures of open-loop performance taken when there is no delay. Unfortunately, the move-and-wait strategy takes time and completion time increases linearly with delay. Other experiments with loop delays in tasks having continuous force feedback (one-dimensional contact push-

ing tasks without vision) indicate that high feedback gain can cause instability and that searching movements must be slow to limit impact forces.

These results suggested that when time delays are necessarily present the human operator should not control in a continuous closed loop but should serve instead as a supervisor or intermittent monitor and setter of subgoals for an automatic or computer-control loop.⁸ The dynamic movement of the manipulator would then be under control of a local computer eliminating stability problems. Moreover, the completion time would become far less sensitive to delay since the operator would command relatively long segments of the task, reducing the number of waits for correct feedback.

Such a system is illustrated in Fig. 1. A laboratory simulation has been implemented consisting of an American Machine and Foundry Model 8 master-slave manipulator driven by stepping motors through an augmented PDP-8 computer.

Man-Machine Console Interface

The human supervisor may issue his commands as strings of alphanumeric characters through a conventional teletype as in Fig. 2a (such commands we call "symbolic commands"). He may also indicate direction, magnitude, and time through moving a multi-degree-of-freedom joystick which may even have articulations corresponding to those of the manipulator (these we call "analogic commands"). Experiments by Verplank⁹ with a device shown in Fig. 2b suggest it is quicker and certainly more natural for the human operator to demonstrate to the computer certain movements or positions by the analogic mode than symbolically. This is true even if the analogic control device has only on-off switches for each articulation so that the operator must himself adjust his arm and body to achieve the position correspondence. Conceivably the analogic control could also take the form of a scaled physical model of the manipulator in a model of the task environment. The human operator's goals could then be communicated to the computer by his manual rearrangement of the model.

We have experimented with sense and display of both visual and tactile feedback. As one would expect, ordinary television feedback is quite satisfactory provided the human operator can, at will, call either for a close-up or a comprehensive view. The close-up is needed for details of grasp or position of tool relative to object, while the comprehensive plan or profile view shows the manipulator base or absolute reference frame, the mechanical hand and the manipulated objects all in relation to one another.

Even the crudest of tactile sensors such as a simple electrical contact is useful for automatically stopping the arm motion if an object is touched. The manipulator arm has sufficient elasticity to render collisions with fixed objects harmless, and transient shocks are quickly damped out. We have also developed a prototype touch sensor having on its surface a deformable mirror which distorts a regular grid pattern. The human operator observing the reflected image through closed circuit television can infer the point by point pattern of normal forces on the gripping surface of

the manipulator hand. This device is shown in Fig. 3.

Command Language

In order to develop, on-line, the commands appropriate to a particular task from a small set of primitive commands, a simple compiler called MANTRAN has been written by Barber.¹⁰ It accepts typed commands to the manipulator to move at a specified rate to a specified position or in a specified direction until certain specified conditions occur, allowing the operator to combine these into "programs" that can be called by name. Such programs may have within them various searching or grasping or emergency conditional subroutines. A simple but useful mode is to be able to assign a name to a given manipulator configuration (simultaneous set of relative positions or angles at each articulation) and at some arbitrary time later to simply type the configuration name and have the manipulator automatically return there. This requires, of course, that the computer maintain a state vector for the current manipulator configuration with which to compare the stored state vector corresponding to the named configuration. Alternatively, the system can be commanded to respond to the analogic controller until certain positions are obtained or until the hand contacts an object, at which time the program branches out of the analogic mode. An example of MANTRAN is shown in Fig. 4.

Functional Organization of the Computer-Manipulator System

It is convenient to represent the breakdown of functions in the computer manipulator system as in Fig. 5. Whereas Fig. 1 illustrates the physical location of major components, Fig. 5 indicates the various kinds of logical processing necessary for supervisory control. Most but not all of these functions are implemented in the laboratory system described above.

Beginning at the left, the ill-defined function of evaluating and setting subgoals is performed by the human operator. He interacts with the symbolic (keyset) and analogic (local physical model) controllers to convey his intentions. A computer element called the command interpreter converts these human responses into a unirre concatenation of commands, or if certain criteria are not met, returns to the operator via the display with a query or a reminder.

The operator, and in turn the interpreter, can give four kinds of commands to an executive controller! 1) he can instruct the exteroceptors (receptors which sense the external environment) to be positioned, oriented and focussed in a certain way and to tell him what they sense; 2) he can request that certain "what would happen if ___" experiments be conducted within an abstract representation of the manipulator and task internal to the computer; 3) he can request the execution of certain moves—simple ones like move manipulator angle A plus-two degrees, or complex ones like search region R for part P and assemble it with 9; 4) he can request that certain transformations available within the computer system be applied to data and that the

results then be displayed to him.

The block labelled "task model" is itself worthy of far more discussion than can be given it in the present paper emphasizing the nature of the human operator's supervisory control, and its internal organization is discussed much more fully in a separate paper by Whitney submitted for this conference.¹¹ In summary, however, one can say that if the positions in six-degrees-of-freedom of all rigid elements of both manipulator and environment are represented by a single vector, then any interactive movements of the manipulator with the environment can be represented by a series of vectors or by a trajectory in vector space. In theory, then, optimal control strategies are those for finding minimal cost trajectories from initial state to goal state in the state space.¹²

While a finely reticulated state space for a system having many motor states, many sensor states, and many environment (manipulated object) states is clearly far too large to be useful for overall control, the state space model provides a formal norm or baseline to which other techniques can be compared. State space models of a tractable size can be used to perform simple manipulations, or to perform parts of more complex ones. In any case an important practical problem concerns the definition of what are rigid elements, what are costs, and what discrete resolution is appropriate to represent the real world in the state space model.

A simple example of interaction of the human operator with the task model is described in a subsequent section of the paper.

It is important to note that the executive controller oversees many "automatic" feedback loops and interactions which are not under direct control by the human supervisor. As indicated by dotted lines and letters in Fig. 5, the executive controller mediates direct or straight through requests for (a) sensory analysis of the environment or for (b) task model experiments. Imperative move commands automatically call for, in sequence, (c) search and identification of objects in the environment, (d) task model experiments, and finally (e) manipulator movements.

The executive controller mediates (f) the feedback from the exteroceptor actuators (actually the interoceptors of the exteroceptor subsystem, analogous to the position sensors of the muscles of the eye) and the (g) signals from the task model to control where to look next. Similarly (h) the feedback control of the experiments of the task model or internal representation of the manipulator as well as (i) the feedback control of the actual manipulator are handled by the executive controller.

The task model is updated by (j) the sensed state of the environment and (k) the sensed state of the manipulator. Knowledge of (l) the sensed state of the environment and (m) the results of the task model experiments are automatically used in optimal or sub-optimal control of the manipulator. A significant part of this latter function is the decision as to what individual angular changes of actuator movements within the manipulator will achieve the final desired position. The reverse transformation from component angles to gross con-

figuration is easy trigonometry but the required transformation from joint or hand position to component angles can require complicated matrix inversions, or approximation methods, or worse yet (in the case of redundant degree-of-freedom manipulators), be undefined. This specific problem has been the subject of several previous papers.^{13,14}

Finally the operator can ask for a variety of information (n) to be displayed to him. The organization of this aspect of the system is probably very important but, since as yet no experiments have been done emphasizing it, it is left indeterminate.

Note that the executive controller, the task model, the command console interpreter and also the display boxes must all be implemented largely by digital logic. Which computer functions belong to the "local" computer and which belong to the "remote" computer are unsolved engineering problems and will surely depend upon, among other things, the specific task context, the amount of telemetry processing required for signals of the necessary precision and the like.

Human Intervention in Computer Control Procedures

Because of the economic limits on multi-dimensional state space or other formal models of whole manipulation tasks referred to above, a primary goal of our research is identification of the ways human operators and computers can interact in planning and executing manipulation tasks. This will be presented by example.

Fig. 6 represents a manipulation task in a reticulated 10 by 10 unit space. The manipulator jaws J and J¹ and the blocks A and B are each one unit on a side and all moves of blocks and jaws must be an integer number of units in extent. The goal is to move the jaws so as to get block A to square A¹. Neither blocks nor jaws can occupy a cross-hatched square (wall). The jaws move horizontally as one, and vertically J* moves relative to J over four spaces from closed to wide open (they are illustrated one space open). The jaws can grasp a block or push it; in order to grasp a block the jaws must first straddle it with one unit space on each side.

Table 1 gives an arbitrary set of primitive functions and tests which can be concatenated in various ways to perform tasks such as the one in our example. The functions and tests are organized into three subroutines GRASP, MOVE and PUSH. Within each subroutine a series of tests is made for a yes answer the arrow to the right calls for an action and a return to the previous test or a jump to a different subroutine; for a no answer the downward arrow calls for the next indicated test or action. In moving a block from one position to another a general rule is first to try to move by grasping the block, and if there is no room for that to try to move by pushing the block.

The task of getting A to A¹ is still too difficult for the subroutines of Table 1 to handle, and requires the human operator to intervene at least often enough to break the task into three elemental move B to B*, return jaws to left side of wall, move A to A¹; by intervening a bit more often a considerable saving can be made in use of subroutines,

A completely different procedure is for the

human operator to provide the defining information for a state space, as referred to earlier in this paper and as described formally in a companion paper submitted for this conference by Whitney.^{11,12} Given three objects (two blocks and a set of jaws) which can move to any position on a 10 x 10 grid, a vector space of size $10^2 \cdot 10^2 \cdot 10^2$ is required. Since J' can assume one of four states relative to J we need a total space of $4 \cdot 10^6$ states. We assume that an initial and terminal state (that is, initial and terminal positions of jaws and blocks in the 10 x 10 grid) having been specified, an algorithm exists for getting from one to the other in optimal or at least satisfactory fashion, details of which are given by Whitney.

If the operator intervened and called for a series of three initial to terminal state trajectories (B to B', return jaws to left, A to A'), then the state space required for each subtask would be considerably smaller than that required for the whole task. For this example B to B' would require at most consideration of all jaw states and all B states but no A states, thereby reducing the state space a factor of 10^2 . Return of the jaws would require no A or B states, netting a reduction by 10^4 . A to A' would net a reduction by 10^2 . Clearly, the sum of these state spaces, even if all of the 10 x 10 physical grid is allowed for each task element, is much smaller ($4 \cdot 10^4 + 4 \cdot 10^2 + 4 \cdot 10^4 = 8.10^4$) than the 4.10^6 state space required for the whole task. If, in addition to judging that certain objects can be eliminated from certain subtasks the human operator also judges that certain regions of the 10 x 10 grid can be eliminated from consideration (for instance in returning jaws from the B' neighborhood to the left side of the wall) then further reduction can certainly be made.

To make our point about the computational saving which accompanies intelligent intervention by the human operator permit us to digress from our example of Fig. 6. Suppose (Fig. 7) that for a 10 x 10 grid two objects X and Y must interact. At the outset suppose we (the human operator) know that A and B must interact in a general way within the bounded area 1, then must pass together from area one to area two while located within the 1-2 overlap area, interact within area 2, similarly pass to 3, interact in 3, pass to 4 and interact in 4. It would not be necessary to consider a state plane of size $(10 \cdot 10)$ for object A combined with $(10 \cdot 10)$ possibilities for B, or 10^4 . This is because A and B are never simultaneously in different zones except when together in the overlap areas. Thus a state space of $(5.5) \cdot (5.5)$ accommodating all A-B combinations in zone 1 overlapping a state space $(6.5) \cdot (6.5)$ in zone 2 similarly overlapping a $(6.6) \cdot (6.6)$ zone 3 state space which in turn overlaps a $(5.5) \cdot (5.5)$ zone 4 state space provides for an optimal trajectory to be selected from among all possibilities. The total state space is 3446, less than 35% of the 10^4 state space. In general, a task involving n objects, each of which can assume any one of S states, requires a state space of S^n . Breaking the task down into m subtasks in the ith of which only r_i of the objects can move and each is limited to o_i states requires a state space of

$$\prod_{i=1}^m o_i^{r_i}$$

This will, except in unusual circumstances, represent a savings in both computational time and storage, since $r_i = n$ and $o_i = S$.

It is our purpose here to compare the savings in calculation and storage; i.e., the reduction in the total number of states, resulting from specification and delimitation of either heuristic procedures or formal state spaces. We presume that a human operator is the one who intervenes, sets appropriate goals and calls appropriate heuristic routines, or that he bounds the state space—at least we do not understand how a higher level computer program can do it.

Returning to our first example, Table 2 shows various elements of the task of Fig. 6. Task elements 1 through 11 are possible parts of the whole task (move A to A') and are not mutually exclusive. Task element 1 (move B to B') incorporates the rule "try moving by grasping before trying Pushing." This procedure would automatically call subroutines in the order 12 12 3 and utilize 19 moves. For comparison, if the operator saw that pushing should be tried first, only heuristic 3 would be used and require 10 moves. The same objects are required for the state space procedure in either case and we allow (conservatively) a $4.10^2 \cdot 10^2$ space. In either case the state space procedure can be expected to calculate that a 10 move push is the best.

Task elements 3 and 4 are simpler elements, so simple that a human operator might be expected to call for the actual point to point move path (designated m) instead of calling a subroutine. With either of these the grid space required could be greatly restricted.

Task element 5 could be included as part of 6, 7 or 8 though here it is given separately. Element 6 actually illustrates a cascade of four subtasks (move A to A₁, then to A₂, then to A₃, then to A'). The subgoals are achieved at the slash marks in the subroutine sequence. This series of heuristics would result if a human operator initially thought a shortest path was A to A₁, then to A₂, then directly to A'. But after getting to (or committing the program to) A₂ he would realize (or have to have pointed out to him) that with A at A₂ he has not left room for regrasping A and will have to set a new subgoal A₃ to which A can be pushed and then grasped or pushed to A'. If the human operator had thought ahead he would have set A₄ and A₅ as subgoals, and as indicated a shorter string of heuristics would be necessary. Again, by state space procedure, the same (but a very large) state space would get from A to A' automatically.

As a further example of how the operator can delimit the state space, suppose for task element 8 he recognized that from A₁ or A₄ to A₂ or A₅ the jaws would have to be closed. Then the state space for this portion of the task need consider only block A over a 7.2 grid and the jaws J over a 7.1 grid. Let the jaws and A operate open or closed-jawed over the grid B wide and ten high at the left for the A to A₁ or A₄ subtask and a over a grid five wide and ten high at right for the last part. This then requires a state space $(4 \cdot 3 \cdot 10 \cdot 3 \cdot 10) + (7.2 \cdot 7 \cdot 1) + (4.5 \cdot 10 \cdot 5 \cdot 10) = 13698$ in size. This

compares with the 40000 state space otherwise needed. The situation is similar to that of Fig. 7.

The task elements 10, 11, 12 and 13 provide a finer breakdown of the A to A' subtask.

Below the double line in Table 2 are shown several ways of accomplishing the whole task; in each case are shown the total string or heuristic subroutines and implied moves using that procedure; the total state space is also indicated with the implied moves for that method.

Indices of efficiency for heuristic or state space techniques such as these can be formed by making a ratio of the number of moves, number of routines called, or size of state space for a given procedure, to the corresponding number for a normative heuristic or brute force procedures such as the first whole task procedure given. Note that the last and most efficient procedure requires the human operator to observe that block B may be pushed out of the way by block A without need to modify the A to A' procedure. Much more dramatic efficiencies can be demonstrated for human intervention in the state space techniques when the physical space is more finely reticulated due to the

$$\sum_{i=1}^m 0 \cdot r_i$$

rule stated above. Heuristic techniques are by nature context dependent and not much generalization can be made.

Conclusion

A laboratory simulation and some empirical evidence have been described which demonstrate the advantages of having human operators operate as supervisory controllers of remote computer-manipulators, where the man sets subgoals and sets procedural constraints and the machine does the rest automatically. Many practical advantages of such man-machine interactive systems are foreseen to speed UD remote or monotonous tasks, avoid the costs and risks of supporting man in hazardous environments, and provide a true flexibility of exploration and manipulation not near to achievement by completely autonomous machines.

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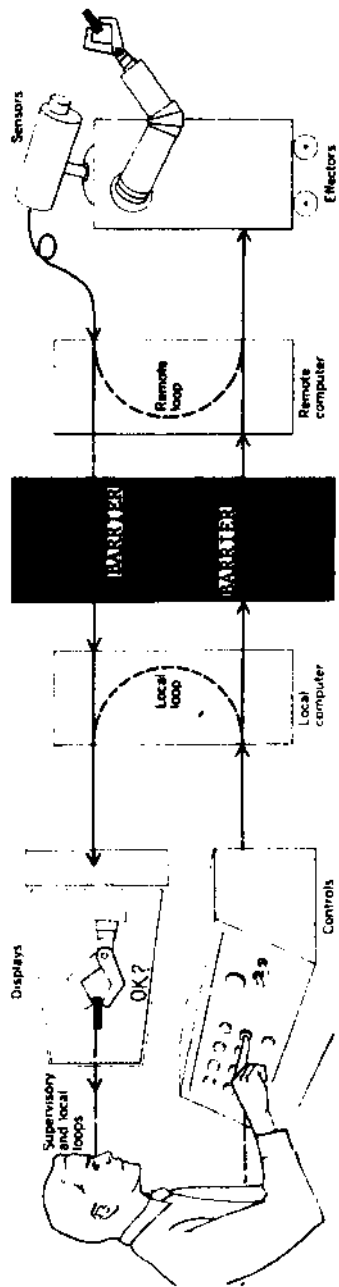


Fig. 1. Schematic Diagram of Supervisory Control of Remote Manipulation.

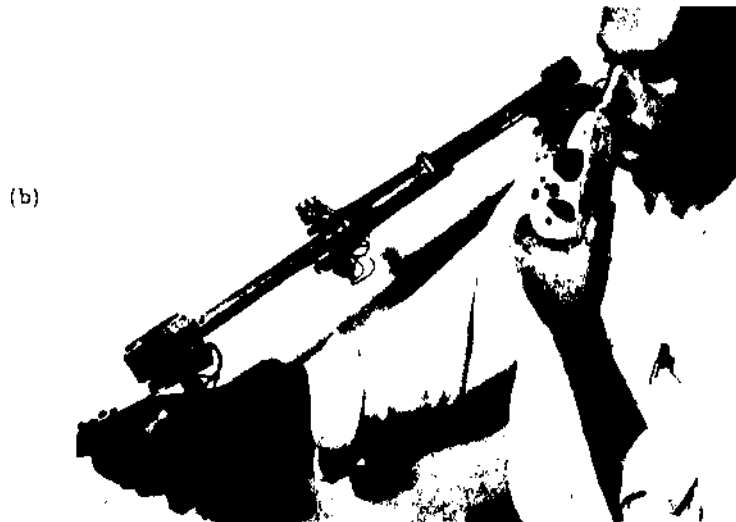


Fig. 2. Symbolic and Analogic Controllers. Above (a) human subject controlling mechanical hand to pick up coffee cup through use of symbolic commands, Below (b) in each of seven degrees of freedom (which correspond to manipulator) operator can operate a three positional (plus, zero, minus) switch. Knobs on the shoulder piece are for switching computer modes (increment, rates, etc.)*

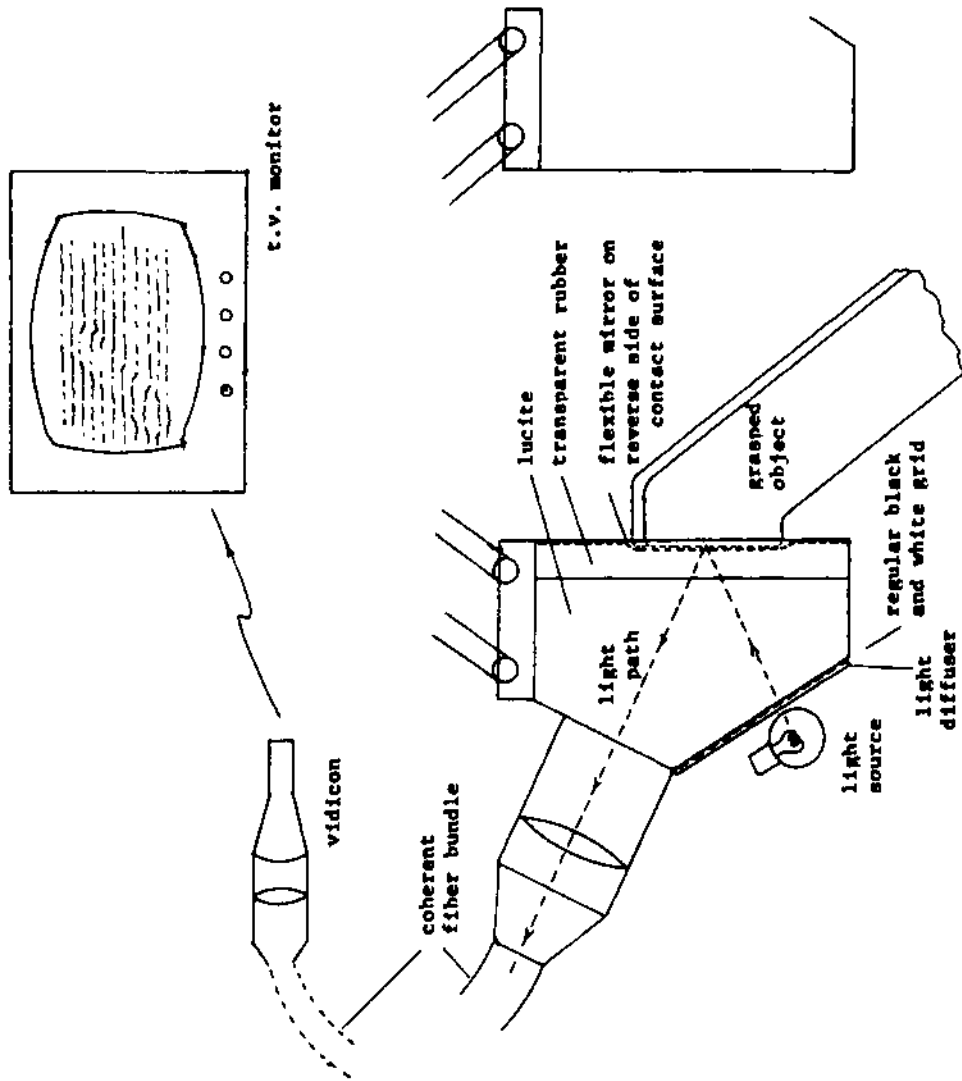


Fig. 3. Touch Sensor. Grasped object deform flexible mirror which causes distorted grid pattern to occur as human operators visual (not tactile!) display.

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S1.1 MOVE FORWARD 13 AND LEFT 543.
      JULIE A3 TOUCH FRONT.
      IF MOVE CONDITIONS SATISFIED, GO 2
      IF A3 00 3
      IF A3 00 4.

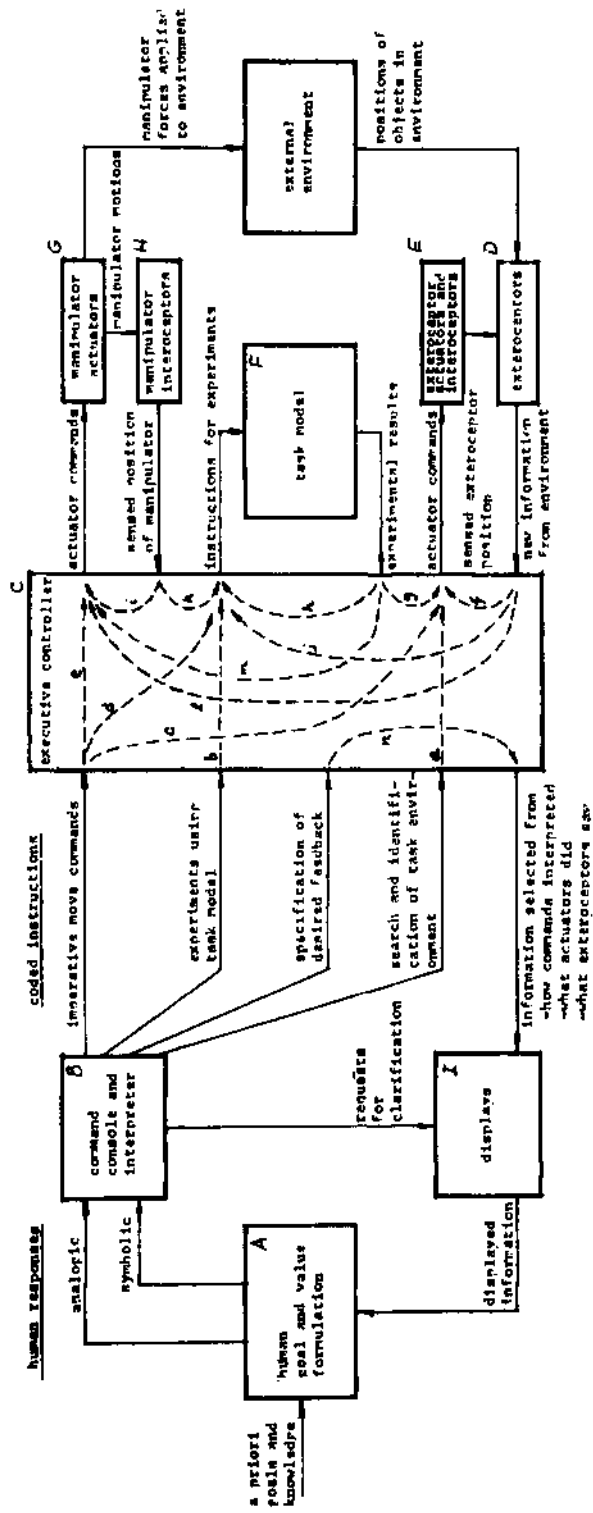
S1.2 MOVE FORWARD 13 AND LEFT 543
      JULIE A3 TOUCH RIGHT.
      OR B3 TOUCH FRONT.
      IF MOVE CONDITIONS SATISFIED, GO 1
      IF A3 00 5
      IF A3 00 4.

S1.3 MOVE BACK 20 AND LEFT 248
      TYPE DONE AND STOP*

S1.4 MOVE BACK 21 AND LEFT 24*
      00 4 8
  
```

Fig. 4. Example of MANTRAN. At each step the computer types what is underlined and the human operator responds to set subgoals or procedures.

Figure 5 Functional Taxonomy of Computer/Manipulator



- a. direct instructions to actuator actuators
- b. direct instructions to perform experiments on task model
- c. instructions to actuator actuators as part of move strategy
- d. instructions to perform task model experiments as part of move strategy
- e. direct instructions to manipulator actuators
- f. modification of actuator positions as a function of what actuator sensed
- g. modification of actuator positions as a function of task model experiments
- h. execution of task model experiments as a function of previous experiment results
- i. manipulator position feedback control
- j. updating of task model as a function of new information on the environment
- k. updating of task model as a function of where manipulator is
- l. manipulator control as a function of new information on the environment
- m. manipulator control as a function of task model experiment results
- n. information selection for display

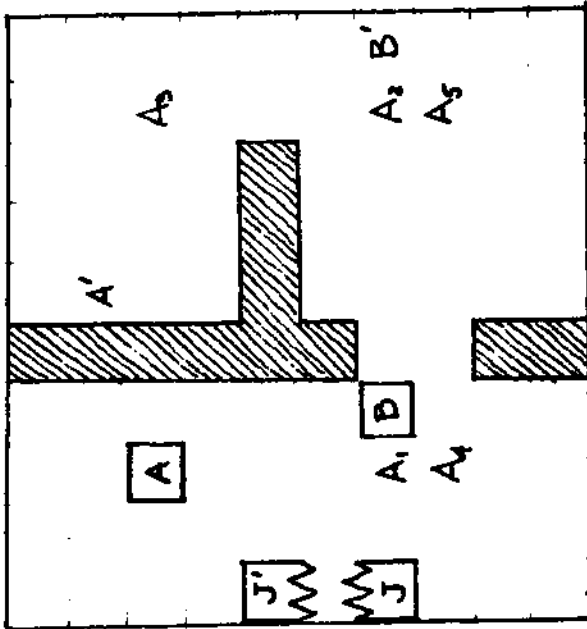


Fig. 6. Manipulation Task in a 10 x 10 Grid: Control jaws J and J' to move A to A' without going through wall.

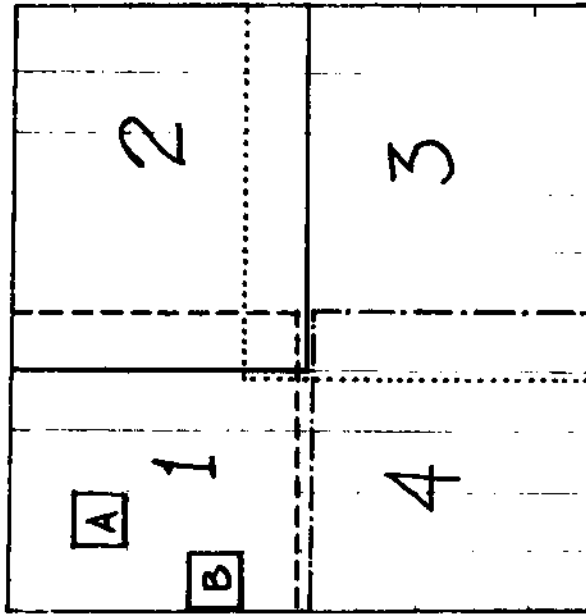


Fig. 7. Example of State Space Reduction. Physical space (a), a 10 x 10 grid. Task requires that A and B after each of interactions in zone 1, 2, and 3 transition to 2, 3 and 4 respectively while being simultaneously in overlap region. This reduces to four state spaces with (5·5), (5·6) and (6·6) and (5·5) respectively.

Table 1. Heuristic Subroutines for Fig. 6.

1. GRASP

- a) are jaws grasping block → go to MOVE
- b) are jaws straddling block → grasp
- c) are jaws lined up to slide to straddle block → straddle
 ↓
 go to MOVE

2. MOVE

- a) examine PATH to subgoal
- b) is there wide enough free path → take it (done--go to SUPERVISOR for greater subgoal)
- c) can jaws be closed more → close
- d) is there moveable obstacle in otherwise free path → put marker on execute list, reenter GRASP with new arguments)
- e) is there block in jaws → go to PUSH
 (stuck--go back to SUPERVISOR for lesser subgoal)

3. PUSH

- a) examine PATH to subgoal
- b) is there no pushing path exclusive of moveable obstacle → (stuck)
- c) are jaws in pushing position → push (done, go to SUPERVISOR for greater subgoal)
- d) is there wide enough free path to move to pushing position → move
- e) is there a moveable obstacle in path to get to pushing position → put marker and arguments on execute list, reenter PUSH with new arguments
 (stuck--go back to SUPERVISOR for lesser subgoal)

ALTERNATIVE PROCEDURES

TASK ELEMENTS	HEURISTICS		STATE SPACE	
	Routines Used (Refer to Table 1)	Number of Moves	Approximate of Size State Space	Number of Moves
1. Move B to B'	12123	19	40000	10
2. Push B to B'	3	10	40000	10
3. Line up jaws to push B thru hole	m	4	20	4
4. With jaws lined up push B to B'	m	6	100	6
5. Return jaws to left side	23	6	40	6
6. Move A to A' (thru A ₁ , A ₂ and A ₃)	1212/12123/12123/1212	45	40000	45
7. Move A to A' (thru A ₂ and A ₄)	1212/12123/1212	41	40000	41
8. Move A to A' with constrained state space	-	-	13660	41
9. Move A to A ₄	1212	14	3000	14
10. Move jaws to push A position	m	6	50	6
11. With jaws lined up push A to A ₅	m	5	10	6
12. Move A from A ₅ to A'	1212	15	4000	15
Whole task (1, 5, 7)(one state space)	12123/23/1212 12123/12123/1212	66	400000	57
Whole task (1, 5, 7)(two state spaces)	same	66	80000	57
Whole task (2, 5, 7)(two state spaces)	3/23/1212 12123/12123/1212	57	42000	57
Whole task (3, 4, 5, 9, 10, 11, 12)(seven state spaces)	m/m/23/1212/m/ m/1212	57	7200	57
Whole task (9, 10, 11, 12)(four state spaces where push one block with the other)	1212/m/m/1212	41	7100	41

Table 2. Various Task Elements and How They Combine To Accomplish the Task of Fig. 6.