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Player Behavior and Team Strategy in SimSpark Soccer Simulation 3D

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Τμημα Ηλεκτρονικων Μηχανικων και Μηχανικων Υπολογιστων

Συμπεριφορά Παικτών και Στρατηγική Ομάδας για το Πρωτάθλημα RoboCup 3D Simulation

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Abstract

Every team which participates in a game, requires both individual and team skills in order to be successful. We could define individual skills as the ability of each member of the team to do actions which are going to be productive and close to the team's goal. On the other hand, we could define team skills as the actions of individuals, brought together for a common purpose. Each person on the team puts aside his or her individual needs to work towards the larger group objective. The interactions among the members of each team and the work they complete is called teamwork. Therefore, when we are talking about a team sport such as soccer, both individual and team skills are in a big need. For human teams, these two skills exist and be improved over time, however, for robot teams these skills are completely in absence. Robotic soccer as well as the simulated one include all the classic Artificial Intelligence's and robotics' problems such as, perception, localization, movement and coordination. Multi-agent systems in complex, real-time domains require agents to act effectively both autonomously and as parts of the team as well. This thesis addresses multi-agent systems consisting of teams of autonomous agents acting in real-time, noisy, collaborative, and competitive environments. First of all, every player in the team should percept his environment and has a reliable imaging of his surroundings. If he does, then he should be able to locate his actual position in the field which is a very important issue in robotic soccer. Nothing could be accomplished by a soccer team if players had a poor movement in the field. For this reason, there must be stable and fast movements by the robot players, this can be prove to be crucial in a soccer game. Last but not least, is the coordination, which is a factor of major importance in a multi-agent system like this. Agents, should be able to coordinate their actions through communication or other effectors in order to work as a team and towards the team's success. This thesis describes, how we created every single part needed by a team for the Robocup soccer simulation league. Additionally, we emphasized in agents' coordination and cooperation.

Every team which participates in a game, requires both individual and team skills in order to be successful. We could define individual skills as the ability of each member of the team to do actions which are going to be productive for himself even if they are not close to the team's objective. On the other hand, we could define team skills as the actions of individuals, brought together for a common purpose. Each person on the

team puts aside his or her individual needs to work towards the larger group objective. The interactions among the members of each team and the work they complete is called teamwork. Therefore, when we are talking about a team sport such as soccer, both individual and team skills are in a big need. For human teams, these two skills exist and be improved over time, however, for robot teams these skills are completely in absence. Robotic soccer as well as the simulated one include all the classic Artificial Intelligence's and robotics' problems such as, perception, localization, movement and coordination. Multi-agent systems in complex, real-time domains require agents to act effectively both autonomously and as parts of the team as well. This thesis addresses multi-agent systems consisting of teams of autonomous agents acting in real-time, noisy, collaborative, and competitive environments. First of all, every player in the team should percept his environment and has a reliable imaging of his surroundings. If he does, then he should be able to locate his actual position in the field which is a very important issue in robotic soccer. Nothing could be accomplished by a soccer team if players had a poor movement. For this reason, there must be stable and fast movements by the robot players, this can be prove to be crucial in a soccer game. Moreover, there are actions like a kick towards the opponents goal which combine movements and other actions in order to be executed by the agent. While these actions are vitally important in order to have a successful soccer playing agent, the agents must work together as a team and coordinate their actions maximizing the team's performance. In this thesis we describes the whole agent's framework emphasizing in the team's coordination.

Περίληψη

Κάθε ομάδα που συμμετέχει σε ένα ομαδικό παιχνίδι απαιτεί τις ατομικές ικανότητες κάθε παίκτη ξεχωριστά αλλά και την συνολική ικανότητα της σαν ομάδα ώστε να είναι πετυχημένη. Θα μπορούσαμε να χαρακτηρίσουμε τις ατομικές ικανότητες σαν ενέργειες ατόμων οι οποίες λαμβάνουν χώρα με σκοπό να γίνουν επικερδείς για την ομάδα. Από την άλλη μεριά, οι ομαδικές ικανότητες είναι ο συνδυασμός τον επιμέρους ενεργειών κάθε παίκτη που επιφέρει κέρδος στην ομάδα. Οι ενέργειες αυτές γίνονται από την πλευρά κάθε παίκτη βάζοντας στην άκρη τις προσωπικές φιλοδοξίες ή ανάγκες για την επίτευξη ενός μεγαλύτερου σκοπού. Ειδικότερα όταν μιλάμε για ένα άθλημα όπως το ποδόσφαιρο, υπάρχει η απαίτηση και των δυο παραπάνω γνωρισμάτων από όλους τους παίκτες της ομάδας. Για τις ανθρώπινες ομάδες αυτό είναι κάτι τετριμμένο που υπήρχε πάντα και συνεχώς βελτιώνεται. Αλλά όταν μιλάμε για ρομποτικές ομάδες ποδόσφαιρου όλες αυτές οι ικανότητες δεν υφίσταται. Το ρομποτικό πρωτάθλημα ποδσφαίρου όπως και αυτό της προσομοίωσης περιέχει όλα τα κλασσικά προβλήματα της τεχνητής νοημοσύνης αλλά και των ρομποτικών συστημάτων όπως η αντίληψη, το πρόβλημα του εντοπισμού, η κίνηση και η συνεργασία. Αρχικά κάθε παίκτης πρέπει να είναι ικανός να αντιλαμβάνεται το περιβάλλον του και να έχει μια αξιοπρεπή απεικόνιση των πραγμάτων που βρίσκονται γύρω από αυτό. Αν είναι ικανός να το κάνει, τότε θα πρέπει να βρίσκει την θέση του στο γήπεδο, κάτι που είναι πολύ σημαντικό στο ρομποτικό ποδόσφαιρο. Τίποτα δεν θα μπορούσε να επιτευχτεί αν δεν υπήρχε η κίνηση, πρέπει να υπάρχουν σταθερές και γρήγορες κινήσεις που θα βοηθήσουν τα μέγιστα και είναι ιδιαίτερα σημαντικές σε τέτοιου τύπου αγώνες. Τέλος, είναι η συνεργασία που επιτυγχάνεται μέσω της επικοινωνίας η άλλων ενεργειών. Οι πράκτορες -ρομπότ- πρέπει να είναι σε θέση να συνεργάζονται μεταξύ τους ώστε να μπορούν να πετυχαίνουν το καλύτερο για την ομάδα τους. Σε αυτή την διπλωματική εργασία περιγράφουμε την δημιουργία κομμάτι-κομμάτι του πλαισίου για την κάλυψη των αναγκών μιας ρομποτικής ομάδας ποδόσφαιρου για το επίσημο πρωτάθλημα προσομοίωσης Robocup, δίνοντας έμφαση στον τομέα της συνεργασίας.

Contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

LIST OF TABLES

List of Algorithms

LIST OF ALGORITHMS

Chapter 1

Introduction

What will happen if we place a team of robots into a soccer field? It is obvious for everyone to realize that nothing is going to happen. This occurs due to the fact that, machines such as robots should be programmed to percept their surroundings and act just like human soccer players. Therefore, everything in the robots' world, start from the absolute zero. Even if, these robots had a perfect sense of their environment, it would be difficult for them to start taking part into the game immediately. There are plenty of things that have to be done until these robots start playing in the way human players do. A simulation soccer game consists of two parts. There is a server which has the responsibility of sending perception messages to the agents, as well as, receiving effector messages from the agents to apply them into the soccer field. The second part is the agents which are processes running independently from each other without being able to communicate directly but only with the server. In the beginning there must be a connection with the simulation server. When we ensure that we are connected with the server, we are ready to proceed to the next steps. Server sends to each connected agent messages every 20ms, these messages include information about agent's vision and other perceptions. Each agent parses these messages to update his perceptions, At the end of the parsing the agent knows the values of every joint of his body, he has also knowledge about the location in relation to his body of every landmark, the ball and other players which are in the field of his view and finally possible messages from teammates. Now, agent is ready to continue to the main procedure of thinking. First of all, agent has to calculate his position in the soccer field, it is not so simple as it sounds and it requires at least two landmarks in the field of our view. We are going to explain this operation

extensively later. Even if, our agent knows his positions in the soccer field and is able to calculate the position of every other agent in his sight, as well as, the soccer ball position, he is still not able to perform a single action. This will be feasible if he combines motions which are going to help him perform each action. Even in real life, a human soccer player has to combine simple movements for example, walking, turning and kicking, to perform a kick towards the opponents' goal. The same principle applies in simulation soccer too. In our approach, we have categorize the actions in relation to their complexity. At first simple actions, which just use motions in order to be completed. We continue with more complex actions which make use of more than one simple actions to be executed by the agent with success. An example of a simple action is a turn towards the ball and a more complex action could be walking to a specific coordinate in the soccer field. We can realize that a complex action such as the above is going to make use of more than one simple actions and movements. Until now, we have accomplished every agent in the field to be able to recognize objects, find its position and do simple and complex actions. Returning to the first question which we have put in the beginning of this introduction, we could answer with certainty that every agent in the soccer field now has a complete sense of its surroundings and is able to perform actions which are able to make changes in his environment. Even so, these improvements are not going to bring success to the team, agents have not the ability to communicate with their team-mates and reasonably they are not able to coordinate their actions. Even humans since the advent of their history form all kinds of groups striving to achieve a common goal, especially , for teams participating in games, where success can only be achieved through collaborative and coordinated efforts. As we realize, coordination and cooperation are the last pieces of the puzzle. This two team skills are going to be accomplished through communication process. This thesis as well as a proposed solution of all the problems generated in robotic soccer. The main objective is to develop an efficient software system to correctly model the behaviors of simulated Nao robots in such a competitive environment as the simulation soccer league. Additionally, we are coming up with an approach in which agents coordinate through the communication channel their actions which will be calculated to be costless and worthy for the team. The challenging and the most time consuming part of this project was the coordination part which I firmly believe is a skill of major importance either in a simulated team or in a real soccer team.

1.1 Thesis Outline

Chapter 2 provides some background information on the RoboCup Competition. In Chapter **??** we demonstrate the main platform in which the simulation league based on. Continuing to chapter 4, where the core ideas and an outline of the architecture of our proposal is discussed. Moving on to chapter 5, where there is an esxtensive documentation about the main objective of this thesis which is coordination of the agents through communication channel . In Chapter 6 a discussion on the results is taking place by providing several experiments in order to evaluate our work. The following chapter 7, presents similar systems developed by other robocup teams including a brief comparison between those systems and ours. Future work and proposals on extending and improving our framework are the subject of the chapter 8. The final chapter 9 serves as an epilogue to this thesis, including a small overview of the system and some long terms plans about it.

Chapter 2

Background

2.1 RoboCup Competition

RoboCup is an international robotics competition founded in 1997. The aim is to promote robotics and AI research, by offering a publicly appealing, but formidable challenge. The name RoboCup is a contraction of the competition's full name, "Robot Soccer World Cup". The official goal of the project: "By mid-21st century, a team of fully autonomous humanoid robot soccer players shall win the soccer game, complying with the official rule of the FIFA, against the winner of the most recent World Cup." Something that may seem impossible with today's technology. I would say that a more realistic goal is to make a team of robots playing soccer like humans and not better than them.

2.2 RoboCup Soccer

The main focus of the RoboCup competitions is the game of football/soccer, where the research goals concern cooperative multi-robot and multi-agent systems in dynamic adversarial environments. All robots in this league are fully autonomous. A competition which gives the possibility of doing research in a more entertaining way.

Humanoid In the Humanoid League, autonomous robots with a human-like body plan and human-like senses play soccer against each other. Dynamic walking, running, and kicking the ball while maintaining balance, visual perception of the ball, other players, and

the field, self-localization, and team play are among the many research issues investigated in the league.

Middle Size Middle-sized robots of no more than 50 cm diameter play soccer in teams of up to 6 robots with regular size FIFA soccer ball on a field similar to a scaled human soccer field. All sensors are on-board. Robots can use wireless networking to communicate. The research focus is on full autonomy and cooperation at plan and perception levels.

Figure 2.1: Middle Size League.

Simulation This is one of the oldest leagues in RoboCupSoccer. The Simulation League focus on artificial intelligence and team strategy. Independently moving software players (agents) play soccer on a virtual field inside a computer. There are 2 subleagues: 2D and 3D. Simulation league 3D is going to be presented extensively in the next chapter. Figure 2.2 shows how the 2D simulation league looks like.

Small Size The Small Size league or F180 league as it is otherwise known, is one of the oldest RoboCup Soccer leagues. It focuses on the problem of intelligent multi-

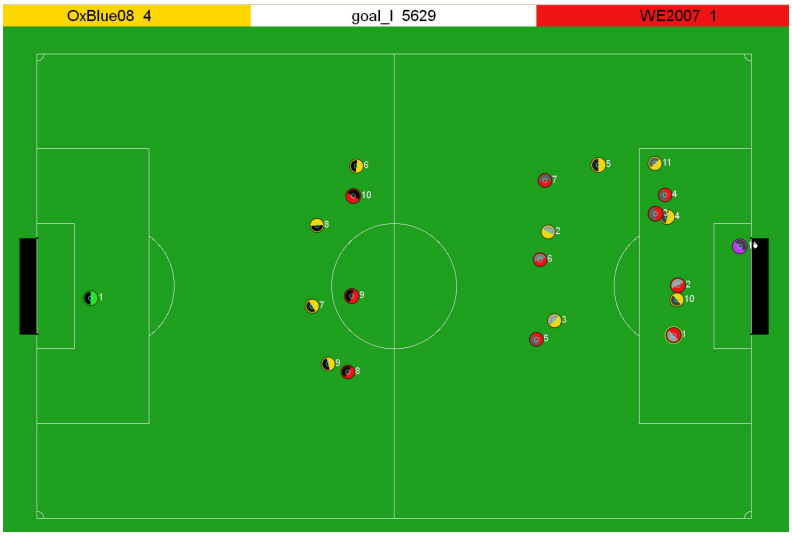

Figure 2.2: 2D simulation game.

robot/agent cooperation and control in a highly dynamic environment with a hybrid centralized/distributed system.

Standard Platform In this league all teams use identical (i.e. standard) robots. Therefore the teams concentrate on software development only, while still using state-of-the-art robots. Omnidirectional vision is not allowed, forcing decision-making to trade vision resources for self-localization and ball localization. The league is based on Aldebaran'As Nao humanoids. "Kouretes" from Technical University of Crete is the only Greek representative in this league, having continuous participations and lots of discriminations.

2.3 RoboCup Rescue

Robot League The goal of the urban search and rescue (USAR) robot competitions is to increase awareness of the challenges involved in search and rescue applications, provide objective evaluation of robotic implementations in representative environments, and promote collaboration between researchers. It requires robots to demonstrate their capabilities in mobility, sensory perception, planning, mapping, and practical operator interfaces, while searching for simulated victims in unstructured environments. Greece

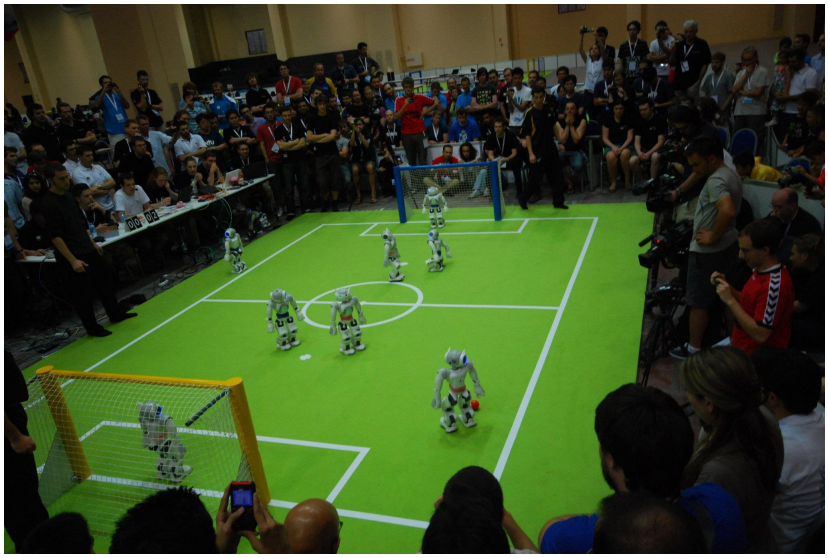

Figure 2.3: Kouretes in action.

has also a participation (2009) in this league by the Aristotle University's team called "P.A.N.D.O.R.A".

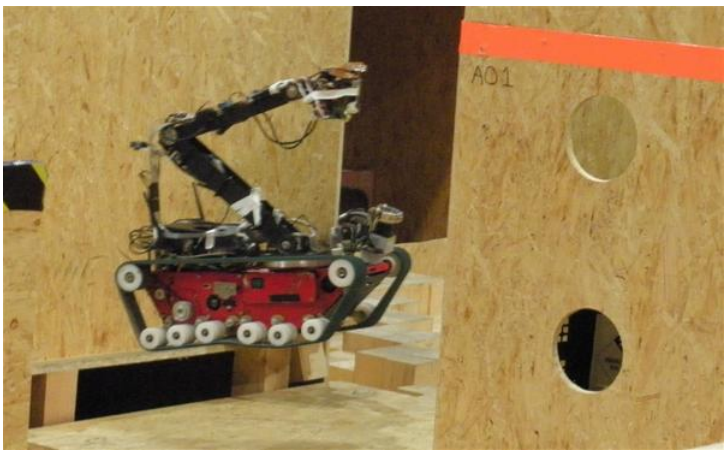

Figure 2.4: PANDORA.

Simulation League The purpose of the RoboCup Rescue Simulation league is twofold. First, it aims to develop develop simulators that form the infrastructure of the simulation system and emulate realistic phenomena predominant in disasters. Second, it aims to

develop intelligent agents and robots that are given the capabilities of the main actors in a disaster response scenario.

2.4 RoboCup @Home

The RoboCup @Home league aims to develop service and assistive robot technology with high relevance for future personal domestic applications. It is the largest international annual competition for autonomous service robots and is part of the RoboCup initiative. A set of benchmark tests is used to evaluate the robots'A abilities and performance in a realistic non-standardized home environment setting. Focus lies on the following domains but is not limited to: Human-Robot-Interaction and Cooperation, Navigation and Mapping in dynamic environments, Computer Vision and Object Recognition under natural light conditions, Object Manipulation, Adaptive Behaviors, Behavior Integration, Ambient Intelligence, Standardization and System Integration.

Figure 2.5: RoboCup @Home.

2.5 RoboCup Junior

RoboCupJunior is a project-oriented educational initiative that sponsors local, regional and international robotic events for young students. It is designed to introduce RoboCup to primary and secondary school children, as well as undergraduates who do not have the resources to get involved in the senior leagues yet.

2.5.1 Soccer

2-on-2 teams of autonomous mobile robots play in a highly dynamic environment, tracking a special light-emitting ball in an enclosed, landmarked field.

Dance One or more robots come together with music, dressed in costume and moving in creative harmony.

Rescue Robots identify victims within re-created disaster scenarios, varying in complexity from line-following on a flat surface to negotiating paths through obstacles on uneven terrain.

Chapter 3

Soccer Simulation League 3D

3.1 SimSpark

SimSpark is a generic physical multiagent simulator system for agents in three-dimensional environments. It builds on the flexible Spark application framework. It is used as the official Robocup 3D simulation server. In comparison to specialized simulators, users can create new simulations by using a scene description language. SimSpark is a powerful tool to state different multi-agent research questions.

3.2 Soccer simulation

RoboCup is an initiative to foster artificial intelligence and robotics research by providing a standard problem in the form of robot soccer competitions. **rcssserver3d** is the official competition environment for the 3D Soccer Simulation League at RoboCup. It implements a soccer simulation where two teams of up to eleven humanoid robots play against each other. You can see the soccer field in figure 3.1.

3.3 Server

The SimSpark server hosts the simulation process that manages the simulation. It is responsible for advancing the simulation. The simulation state is constantly modified during the Simulation Update Loop. Objects in the scene change their state, i.e. one ore

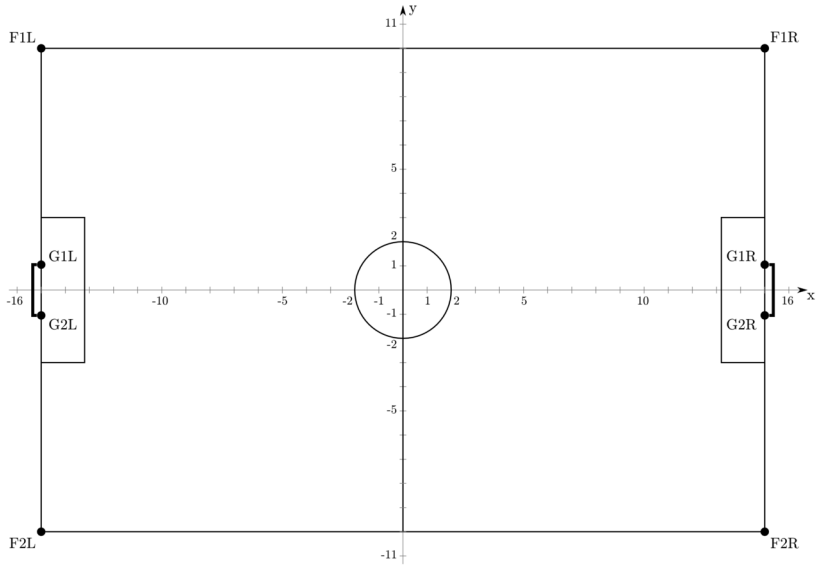

Figure 3.1: Simulation Soccer Field

more of their properties like position, speed or angular velocity changes due to several influences. They are under the control of a rigid body physical simulation, that resolves collisions, applies drag, gravity etc. Agents that take part in the simulation also modify objects with the help of their effectors. Another responsibility of the server is to keep track of connected agent processes. Each simulation cycle the server collects and reports sensor information for each of the sensors of all connected agents. It further carries out received action sequences that an agent triggers using its available effectors. The server can, depending upon its config, renders the simulation itself. It implements an internal monitor that omits the network overhead. Additionally, it supports streaming data to remote monitor processes which take responsibility for rendering the 3D scene.

3.4 Simulation Update Loop

SimSpark implements a simple internal event model that immediately executes every action received from an agent. It does not try to compensate any network latency or compensate for different computing resources available to the connected agents.A consequence is that SimSpark currently does not guarantee that events are reproducible. This means repeated simulations may have a different outcome, depending on network delays

or load variations on the machines hosting the agents and the server.

3.5 Network Protocol

The server exposes a network interface to all agents, on TCP port 3100 by default. When an agent connects to the server the agent must first send a CreateEffector message followed by a InitEffector message. Once established, the server sends groups of messages to the agent that contain the output of the agent's perceptors, including any hinge positions of the model, any heard messages, seen objects, etc. The exact messages sent depend upon the model created for the agent. Details of effector messages are given on the perceptors page. In response to these perceptor messages, the agent may influence the simulation by sending effector messages. These perform tasks such as moving hinges in the model. Details of effector messages are given on the effectors section.

3.6 Monitor

3.6.1 SimSpark Monitor

The SimSpark monitor is responsible for rendering the current simulation. It connects to a running server instance from which it continuously receives a stream of updates that describe the simulation state either as full snapshots or as incremental updates. The format of the data stream that the server sends to the monitor is called Monitor Format. It is a customizable language used to describe the simulation state. Apart from describing the pure simulation state each monitor format may provide a mechanism to transfer additional game specific state. For the soccer simulation this means for example current play mode and goals scored so far.The monitor client itself only renders the pure scene and defers the rendering of the game state to plugins. These plugins are intended to parse the game state and display it as an overlay, e.g. print out playmode and scores on screen.

3.6.2 Roboviz Monitor

[1] RoboViz was made by Justin Stoecker in collaboration with the RoboCup group at the University of Miami's Department of Computer Science. RoboViz is a software program designed to assess and develop agent behaviors in a multi-agent system, the RoboCup 3D simulated soccer league. RoboViz is an interactive monitor that renders agent and world state information in a three-dimensional scene. In addition, RoboViz provides programmable drawing and debug functionality to agents that can communicate over a network. The tool facilitates the real-time visualization of agents running concurrently on the SimSpark simulator, and provides higher-level analysis and visualization of agent behaviors not currently possible with existing tools. You can see a visual comparison of RoboViz (left) and SimSpark monitor in Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2: Roboviz(left) vs SimSpark(right) Monitors.[1]

3.7 Perceptors

Perceptors are the senses of an agent, allowing awareness of the agent's model state and the environment. The server sends perceptor messages to agents, via the network protocol, for every cycle of the simulation. Perceptor messages are sent via the network protocol.There are both general perceptors that apply to all simulations, and soccer perceptors that are specific to the soccer simulation.

3.7.1 General perceptors

GyroRate Perceptor The gyro rate perceptor delivers information about the change in orientation of a body. The message contains the GYR identifier, the name of the body to which the gyro perceptor belongs and three rotation angles. These rotation angles describe the change rates in orientation of the body during the last cycle. In other words the current angular velocities along the three axes of freedom of the corresponding body in degrees per second. To keep track of the orientation of the body, the information to each gyro rate perceptor is sent every cycle.

Message format: `(GYR (n <name>) (rt <x> <y> <z>))`

Frequency: Every cycle

HingeJoint Perceptor A hinge joint perceptor receives information about the angle of the correponding single-axis hinge joint. It contains the identifier HJ, the name of the perceptor and the position angle of the axis in degrees. A zero angle corresponds to straightly aligned bodies. The position angle of each hinge joint perceptor is sent every cycle. Each hinge joint has minimum and maximum limits on its angular position. This varies from hinge to hinge and depends upon the model being used.

Message format: `(HJ (n <name>) (ax <ax>))`

Frequency: Every cycle

ForceResistance Perceptor This perceptor informs about the force that acts on a body. After the identifier FRP and the name of the body the perceptor message contains two vectors. The first vector describes the point of origin relative to the body itself and the second vector the resulting force on this point. The two vectors are just an approximation about the real applied force. The point of origin is calculated as weighted average of all contact points to which the force is applied, while the force vector represents the total force applied to all of these contact points. The information to a force resistance perceptor is just sent in case of a present collision of the corresponding body with another simulation object. If there is no force applied, the message of this perceptor is omitted.

Message format: `(FRP (n <name>) (c <px> <py><pz>) (f <fx><fy><fz>))`

Frequency: Every cycle, but only in case of a present collision.

Accelerometer This perceptor measures the proper acceleration it experiences relative to free fall. As a consequence an accelerometer at rest relative to the Earth's surface will indicate approximately 1g upwards. To obtain the acceleration due to motion with respect to the earth, this gravity offset should be subtracted.

Message format: `(ACC (n <name>) (a <x> <y> <z>))`

Frequency: Every cycle

3.7.2 Soccer perceptors

Vision Perceptor The Vision perceptor delivers information about seen objects in the environment, where objects are either others players, the ball, field-lines or markers on the field. Currently there are 8 markers on the field: one at each corner point of the field and one at each goal post. With each visible object you get a vector described in spherical coordinates. In other words the distance together with the horizontal and latitudal angle to the center of a visible object relative to the orientation of the camera.

Message format:
```
(See +(<name> (pol <distance> <angle1> <angle2>))+(P (team <teamname>) (id <playerID>)
 + (<bodypart> (pol <distance> <angle1> <angle2
 >)))+(L (pol <distance> <angle1> <angle2>)(pol
  <distance> <angle1> <angle2>)))
```

Frequency: Every third cycle (every 0.06 seconds)

GameState Perceptor The game state perceptor delivers several information about the actual state of the soccer game environment. A game state message is started with the GS identifier, followed by a list of different state information. Currently

just the actual play time and play mode are transmitted in each cycle. Play time starts from zero at kickoff of the first half, and 300 at kickoff of the second half and is given as a floating point number in seconds, to two decimal places.

Message format: `(GS (t <time>) (pm <playmode>))`

Frequency: Every cycle

Hear Perceptor Agent processes are not allowed to communicate with each other directly, but agents may exchange messages via the simulation server. For this purpose agents are equipped with the so-called hear perceptor, which serves as an aural sensor and receives messages shouted by other players.

Message format: `(hear <time> self/<direction> <message>)`

Frequency: Every cycle

3.8 Effectors

Effectors allow agents to perform actions within the simulation. Agents control them by sending messages to the server, and the server changes the game state accordingly. Effectors are the logical dual of perceptors. Effector control messages are sent via the network protocol. Details of each message type are shown in each section below. There are both general effectors that apply to all simulations, and soccer effectors that are specific to the soccer simulation.

3.8.1 General Effectors

Create Effector When an agent initially connects to the server it is invisible and cannot take affect a simulation in any meaningful way. It only possesses a so-called CreateEffector. An agent uses this effector to advice the server to construct it according to a scene description file it passes as a parameter. This file is used to construct the physical representation and all further effectors and perceptors.

Message format: `(scene <filename>)`

HingeJoint Effector Effector for all axis with a single degree of freedom. The first parameter is the name of the axis. The second parameter is a speed value, passed in radians per second. Setting a speed value on a hinge means that the speed will be maintained until a new value is provided. Even if the hinge meets its extremity, it will bounce around at the extremity until a new speed value is requested.

Message format: `(<name> <ax>)`

Synchronize Effector Agents running in Agent Sync Mode must send this command at the end of each simulation cycle. Note that the server ignores this command if it is received in Real-Time Mode, so it is safe to configure your agent to always append this command to your agent's responses.

Message format: `(syn)`

3.8.2 Soccer Effectors

Init Effector The init command is sent once for each agent after the create effector sent the scene command. It registers this agent as a member of the passed team with the passed number. All players of one team have to use the same teamname and different player number values.

Message format:
```
(init (unum <playernumber>)
      (teamname <yourteamname>))
```

Beam Effector The beam effector allows a player to position itself on the field before the start of each half. The x and y coordinates define the position on the field with respect to the field's coordinate system, where (0,0) is the absolute center of the field.

Message format: `(beam <x> <y> <rot>)`

Say Effector The say effector permits communication among agents by broadcasting messages. In order to say something, the following command has to be employed.

Message format: `(say <message>)`

3.9 Model

SimSpark comes with Nao robot model for use by agents. The physical representation of each model is stored in an .rsg file.The Nao humanoid robot manufactured by Aldebaran Robotics. Its height is about 57cm and its weight is around 4.5kg. Its biped architecture with 22 degrees of freedom allows Nao to have great mobility. **rcssserver3d** simulates Nao nicely.

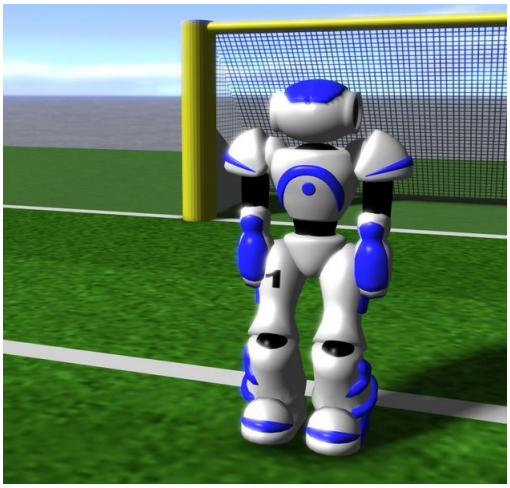

Figure 3.3: Nao in simulation monitor

Chapter 4

Agent

In this chapter we are going to discuss how the agent functions. Each agent consists from several parts which are described in detail.

4.1 Agent Architecture

Before seeing each part of the agent's software separately, it is time to describe the framework's architecture. Figure 4.1 shows the framework's architecture. Soccer Simulation Server known as rcssserver3d is responsible for sending to our agent perception messages. Communication layer is the one that handles the connection between the agent and the server. In agent layer, these messages are handled by a message parser which is responsible for updating all agent's beliefs. Consequently, functions that require new perceptions start. From now on, agent is able to do what the behavior tells him. In our approach, only goalkeeper "runs" an independent behavior, the other eight field players start a communication procedure in order to inform the goalkeeper about their beliefs about the worldstate and their attributes. Goalkeeper is going to decide about the actions that every field player should do. So, we can realize that field players do not execute any behavior. We are going to describe coordination procedure later in a separate chapter. Communication controller and motion controller are responsible for handling the agent's requests for sending a message to his team mates or a movement that he has to execute. These two controllers send in every cycle effection messages to the connection layer which will send them back to soccer simulation server.

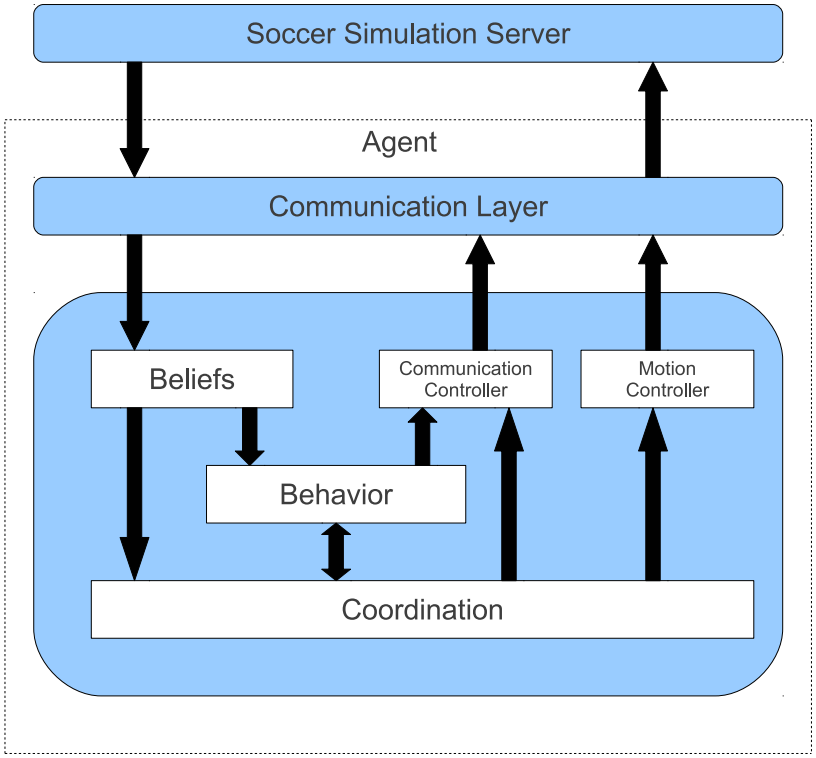

Figure 4.1: Agent's Architecture.

4.2 Connection

The SimSpark server hosts the simulation process that manages the soccer simulation. It is responsible for advancing the game from on cycle to the next. So, each agent connects to this server. Agents receives messages from the server every 20ms; These messages includes information about all agent's perceptions. As we can see in the Figure 4.2, SimSpark Server sends to agents sense messages in the beginning of every cycle. Each agent who is willing to send an action message, he can send it in the end of this cycle, Server is going to receive at the same time it will send the next sense message.

4.3 Perceptions

Perceptions in simulation soccer are quite different in comparison with real robots' competitions. We do not receive data from agent's sensors but from the server, which send

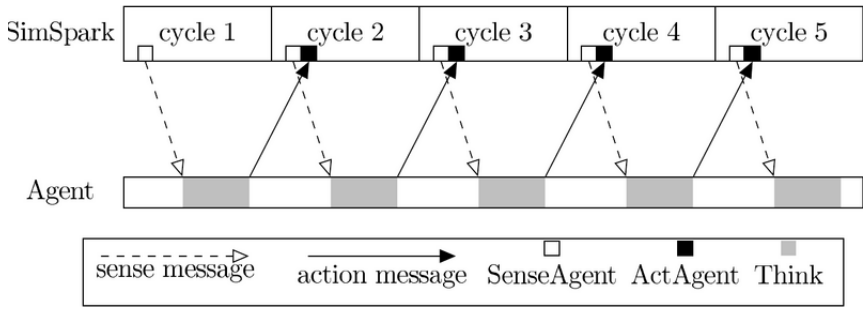

Figure 4.2: Simulation Update Loop.

them to us in every cycle. These messages have this form:

```
(time (now 46.20))(GS (t 0.00) (pm BeforeKickOff))(GYR (n torso)
(rt 0.00 0.00 0.00))(ACC (n torso) (a 0.00 -0.00 9.81))(HJ (n hj
1)(ax 0.00))(HJ (n hj2) (ax 0.01))(See (G2R (pol 14.83 -11.81 1.
08))(G1R (pol 14.54 -3.66 1.12)) (F1R (pol 15.36 19.12 -1.91))(F
2R (pol 17.07 -31.86 -1.83)) (B (pol 4.51 -26.40 -6.15)) (P (tea
m AST_3D)(id 8)(rlowerarm (pol 0.18 -35.78 -21.65)) (llowerarm (
pol 0.19 34.94-21.49)))(L (pol 8.01 -60.03 -3.87) (pol 6.42 51.1
90 -39.13 -5.17))(L (pol 5.91 -39.06 -5.11) (pol 6.28-29.26 -4.8
8)) (L (pol 6.28 29.34 -4.95)(pol 6.16 -19.05 -5.00)))(HJ(n raj1
) (ax -0.01))(HJ (n raj2) (ax -0.00))(HJ (n raj3)(ax -0.00))(HJ(
n raj4) (ax 0.00))(HJ (n laj1) (ax 0.01))(HJ (n laj2) (ax 0.00))
```

The above message is just an example message our agent has been sent during game time. It includes information about the server time, the game state and time, the values of each one of his joints and data from vision, acceleration, gyroscope and force sensors. We parse this messages and saves data in appropriate for each type of perception data structures. Figure 4.3 illustrate this procedure.

4.4 Localization

Once we have all the necessary beliefs updated, it is time for us to use them in order to locate our agent in the field. A brief description of the localization process follows.

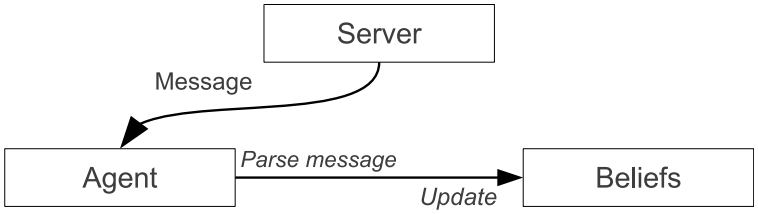

Figure 4.3: Beliefs Update.

Localization Process

Localization process is executed every three cycles (60ms) and when we receive observations from the vision perceptor. If we have visible objects in our field of view, we organize them in terms of their type. There are three types: Landmarks, Co-Players and Opponent Players.

After that, we make use of the landmarks to find our position in the field. A key recursive factor is that our agent in this simulation league has a restricted vision perceptor which limits the field of its view to 120 degrees. An example of this limitation is shown in the figure 4.4. We can realize that localization process would have been more easier to be created if there were a omni-directional field of view.

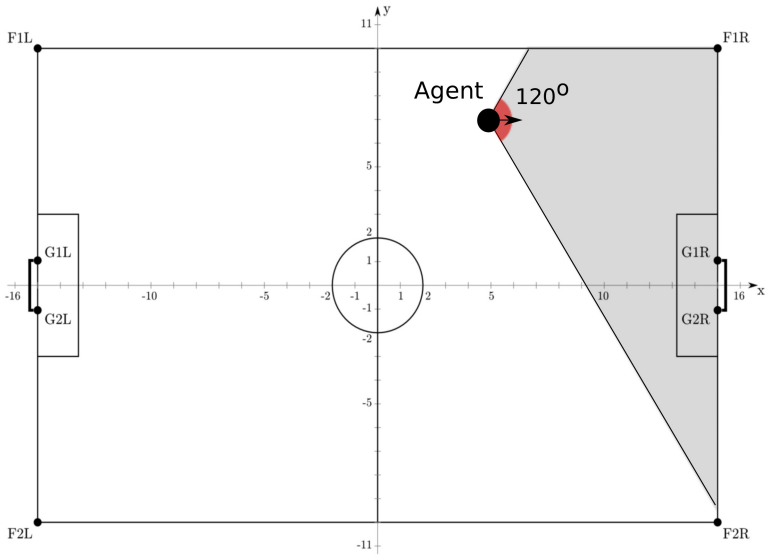

Figure 4.4: Nao's Field of View.

Localization process became possible through three main functions. The first function, takes two landmarks as arguments and returns to us a possible position for our agent. If our agent sees more than two landmarks, then this function is called for every combination of two landmarks and in the end we calculate the average position of these results. If our agent sees less than two landmarks, then he has a complete unawareness of his position in the soccer field. Figure 4.5 shows how this function works. Except from

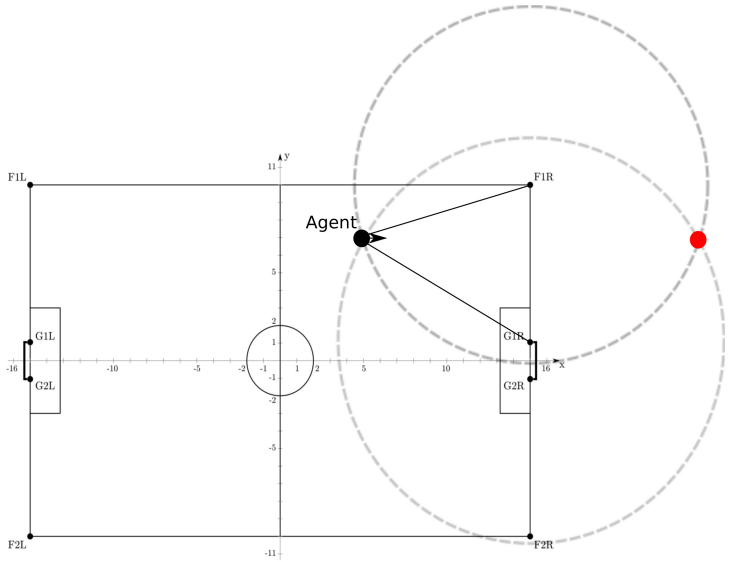

Figure 4.5: Localization Main Idea.

the calculation of our position in the soccer field, localization is responsible to locate ball and other agents in the field. Knowing our position helps us locate other objects too. For every other object which is locates in our field of view, vision perceptor informs us about its vertical angle, its horizontal angle and its distance from our agent. This information is enough for the calculation of their exact positions. Finally, after the localization process end, we are able to have the following observations:

Our Position Only if our agent sees more than one landmarks.

Body Angle Only if our agent knows his position.

Other Agents Positions Only if our agent knows his position and other agents are located in the field of his view.

Ball Position Only if our agent knows his position and ball is located in the field of his view.

In the figure 4.6 we can see the results which are given by the localization process.

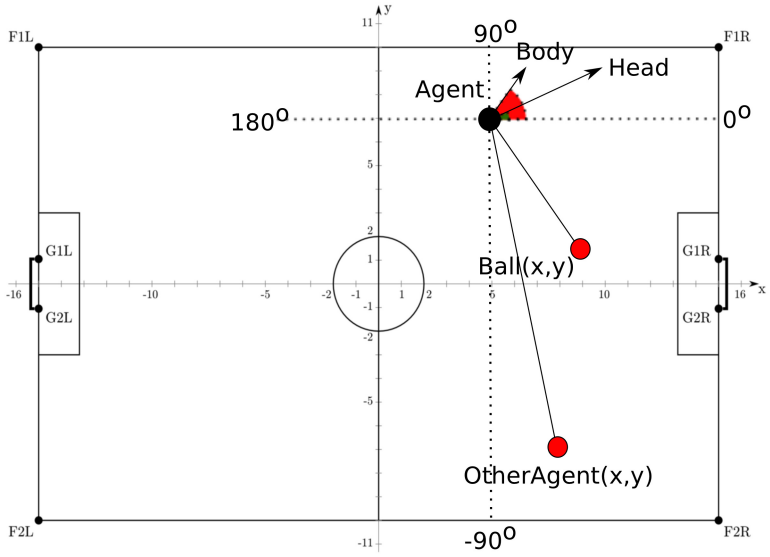

Figure 4.6: Localization Results.

4.5 Localization Filtering

In absence of a stochastic localization system, we are forced to ensure that localization results are good enough for us to rely on. Due to the symmetry of the field's landmarks and the faulty observations due to noise localization is not always accurate enough to depend on. Therefore, a kind of filtering is required for the observations we take by the localization process. Algorithm 1 describes the process of localization filtering. The general idea that we follow in our approach is that if our agent takes one thousand observations per minute it will be easy for him not to take into consideration the observations with the biggest fault. In general, localization provides us with not consecutive faulty observations. To overcome this difficulty, we came up with a simple and clever approach. A queue full of observations is always gives us our agent's position in the field. When an observation is coming, we check if the queue is empty or full; If it is empty, we just

Algorithm 1 Localization Filtering

```
1: Inputs: Observation
2: Outputs: FilteredPosition
3: if x, y ≠ NaN then
4:   if size(Queue) = 0 then
5:     Queue.Add(Observation)
6:     MyPosition = AVG(Queue)
7:   else if size(Queue) < Max then
8:     if Observation ≉ AVG(Queue) then
9:       Queue.Remove()
10:    else
11:      Queue.Add(Observation)
12:      MyPosition = AVG(Queue)
13:    end if
14:  else
15:    if Observation ≉ AVG(Queue) then
16:      Queue.Remove()
17:    else
18:      Queue.Remove()
19:      Queue.Add(Observation)
20:      MyPosition = AVG(Queue)
21:    end if
22:  end if
23: end if
```

add the observation into the queue. If it is full of elements, then we check if the new observation seems faulty in comparison to the average of the queue. If it does, we do not take it into account and we just remove an element from the queue. If not, then we add it to the queue. If queue is neither empty nor full, we make the same procedure checking if it is a faulty observation, with the only difference that we do not remove any element if it is not. Localization filtering applies for both the calculation of our agent's position and the ball's position. Its result was the improvement of the localization results in an adequate degree in order to rely on them with more confidence. This filtering smooths the belief of our belief's position and rejects every faulty observation.

4.6 Motions and Movement

In robotics, we could define a motion as a sequence of joint poses. A pose is a set of values for every joint in the robot's body at a given time. For example, for a given set of n-joints a pose could be defined as:

$$Pose(t)=\{J_1(t), J_2(t), ..., J_n(t)\}$$

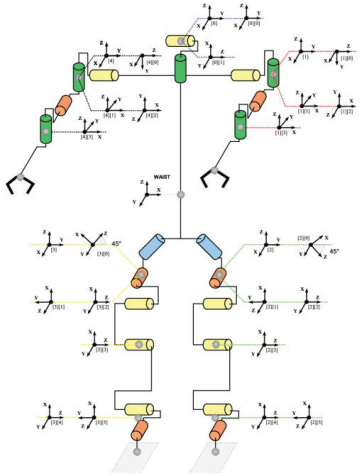

Figure 4.7: Nao's anatomy.

Figure 4.7 shows Nao's 22 joints. Motions are very important part of every team taking part in the simulation league. Most of the teams in this league make use of dynamic movement which is a major advantage for their side. In this approach, we are using motion files. Motion files are set of poses which has static and standard values for each joint for every movement. The difference between static motion files and dynamic movement is that dynamic movement takes into consideration the center of the body's mass and the direction in which we want to head our agent. This movement gives to the robot better body balance and fast movement especially in situations when the robot wants to change direction or to make a turn. In this approach we are using two kinds of static motion files. Text based and XML based motion files. Agent, before initializes himself in the field read these files and saves them into the dynamic memory to be ready to use them without any need of reading them every time he needs them.

4.6.1 XML-File Based Motions

These motion files has been created from FIIT RoboCup 3D project. They are in XML structure and it was easy for us to implement them into our project. The following lines show the structure of these xml motion files.

```
<phase name="Start" next="Phase1">
<effectors>
Joint Values
</effectors>
<duration>duration</duration>
</phase>
<phase name="Phase1" next="Phase2">
<effectors>
Joint Values
</effectors>
<duration>duration</duration>
</phase>
<phase name="Phase2"next="Phase1">
<effectors>
Joint Values
</effectors>
<duration>duration</duration>
<finalize>Final</finalize>
</phase>
<phase name="Final">
<effectors>
Joint Values
</effectors>
<duration>duration</duration>
</phase>
```

It is easy to understand that each movement is split into phases. Each phase has a duration and values for every necessary for the movement joint of the robot. Moreover,

every phase has an index which points to the next phase. For example, we can see that the first phase ”Start” has an index for the next phase: ”Phase1”. Phases with a finalize field help us to end each movement. For example, the phase:”Phase2” has a finalize index which points to the phase: ”Final”, this means that if we want to end this motion, we should continue the motion with the finalize phase and not with the next.

4.6.2 XML-File Based Motion Controller

Motion controller is responsible for handling the movement requests by the agent. Agent has not access in motion controller itself but he has access in the motion trigger. We can imagine this trigger as a variable which can only be changed by the agent. Each agent declares the movement he is willing to do in this variable. Motion controller reads this variable in every cycle and generates a string which is the result of his process. In Figure

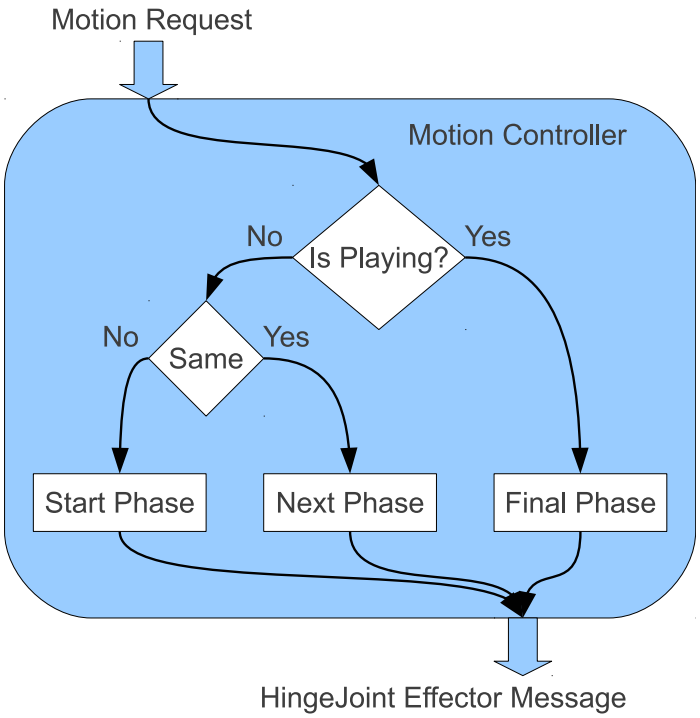

Figure 4.8: Motion Controller.

4.8 we show the general architecture of the motion controller. Motion controller checks if there is a motion which is playing already. If yes, motion controller tries to finalize

the playing movement in order to start playing the new requested movement. In next

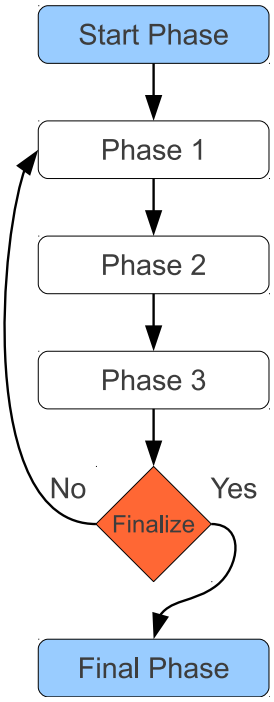

Figure 4.9: Phase Sequence.

Figure 4.9 is described the exact motion sequence. In general, XML motions is created to include cycles. For example, walking motion has three main phases which create a cycle. If motion trigger does not change at the last phase, we will continue with the first phase not with the final. As we saw in the structure of every XML based motion file, each phase has a set of joint values. These values are in degrees scale. To generate motions for our agent we need to create a motion string. This string holds information about the velocity we want to give in every joint involved in the motion phase. This velocity can be calculated by:

$$DesiredVelocity = AlreadyJointValue \text{ - } DesiredJointValue$$

This is the velocity of every joint. Furthermore, every phase has a duration in which has to be executed. So, phase duration has to be divide with the duration of every server cycle. This will give us the number of cycles this phase will be playing.

$$CyclesNumber = \frac{PhaseDuration}{CycleDuration}$$

Now, we have the phase's velocity and the duration in cycles. We can calculate, how much will be the speed of every joint in order to reach to the desired joint value in this time limit.

$$Velocity = \frac{DesiredVelocity}{CyclesNumber} \text{ degrees/cycle}$$

An observant reader would have noticed that velocity is determined in degrees per cycle and not in degrees per second as we read in the effectors section in (Chapter 3.8). This is because we wanted to perform each phase according to its duration in cycles in order to be able to understand when a move is over and not to depend in a universal chronometer. This velocity is calculated for every involved joint in the motion. The final output of the motion controller will be send to the server.

4.6.3 Text-File Based Motions

The other kind of motion files we are using is created by Webots simulator. These text based motion files have simpler structure than the XML ones. At the second row, there are the definition for all joints which are related to the specific movement. For example, walking motion requires only the joints from both robot's legs. The next rows from left to right have information for the duration of each pose, the pose name and finally the joints' values for each joint in the same order as they are defined in the second row.

```
#WEBOTS_MOTION,V1.0
LHipYawPitch,LHipRoll,LHipPitch,LKneePitch,LAnklePitch,...
00:00:000,Pose1,0,-0.012,-0.525,1.05,-0.525,0.012,0,...
00:00:040,Pose2,0,-0.011,-0.525,1.05,-0.525,0.011,0,...
00:00:080,Pose3,0,-0.009,-0.525,1.05,-0.525,0.009,0,...
00:00:120,Pose4,0,-0.007,-0.525,1.05,-0.525,0.007,0,...
00:00:160,Pose5,0,-0.004,-0.525,1.05,-0.525,0.004,0,...
00:00:200,Pose6,0,0.001,-0.525,1.051,-0.525,-0.001,0,...
00:00:240,Pose7,0,0.006,-0.525,1.05,-0.525,-0.006,0,...
00:00:280,Pose8,0,0.012,-0.525,1.05,-0.525,-0.012,0,...
00:00:320,Pose9,0,0.024,-0.525,1.05,-0.525,-0.024,0,...
```

4.6.4 Text-File Based Motion Controller

Motion controller for text based motions is based on the same principle as the XML controller. The joint values in the motion files represent radians. So, we convert these values into degrees and then we proceed with the next steps. Each pose lasts for one or two cycles depending on the speed we want each motion to be executed. This motion controller could be customized easily to perform motions differently. There are parameters that can be changed such as:

Speed How fast we want pose to be executed.

Duration How many cycles from pose to pose.

Pose Offset Pose Offset = 2, we execute pose1,pose3,pose5,...

Hardness Factor Hardness Factor = 0.9, we multiply the velocity with this factor.

The velocity of every joint is calculated by:

$$DesiredVelocity = AlreadyJointValue \text{ - } RadiansToDegrees(DesiredJointValue)$$

$$Velocity = \frac{DesiredVelocity * HardnessFactor}{Speed} degrees/cycle$$

This velocity is calculated for every involved joint in the motion. The final output of the motion controller will be send to the server.

4.6.5 Dynamic Elements in Movement

In contrast with the general idea about static motion files stated in the beginning of this Section 4.6, we have tried to implement some dynamic features in our movements. There is not so much room for improvement in these static motions but we achieved to have nice results.

Walk Leaning Walking can be lean to the right and to the left. There was an improvement on overall performance as agent should turn his body every in every occasion.

Walk Slowdown Its important our agent to slowdown his speed in order to stop his body with more stability.

Turn Agents turns his body as much as he needs from 1 to 40 degrees.

4.7 Actions

Actions are the results of the agent's perception in combination with his procedure of thinking. In our approach actions are split into groups in terms of their complexity and their type.

4.7.1 Simple

First of all, simple actions which are make use only of motions and have a simple structure. These simple actions are:

Turn To See Ball This action results in turning the agent until ball is in his field of view.

Turn To Ball This action turns agent towards the ball.

Turn To Locate This is the default action each agent does when he loses his position (sees less than two landmarks) in the field.

Walk To Ball Agent walks towards the ball. He stops when the ball is close enough for him to shoot it. Remind that distance from ball is coming from vision perceptor and define the distance between the agent's vision perceptor which is attached to agent's head and the ball. So we it is better to calculate the distance between agent's foot and the ball. This became feasible thought direct kinematics via trigonometry in 2-dimension space. Starting from agent's ankle it is easy to calculate every joint's position from ankle to head. Figure 4.10 shows how joint values are related with the foot's distance from the ball.

Stand Up Agent executes it when he is fallen on the ground in order to get up.

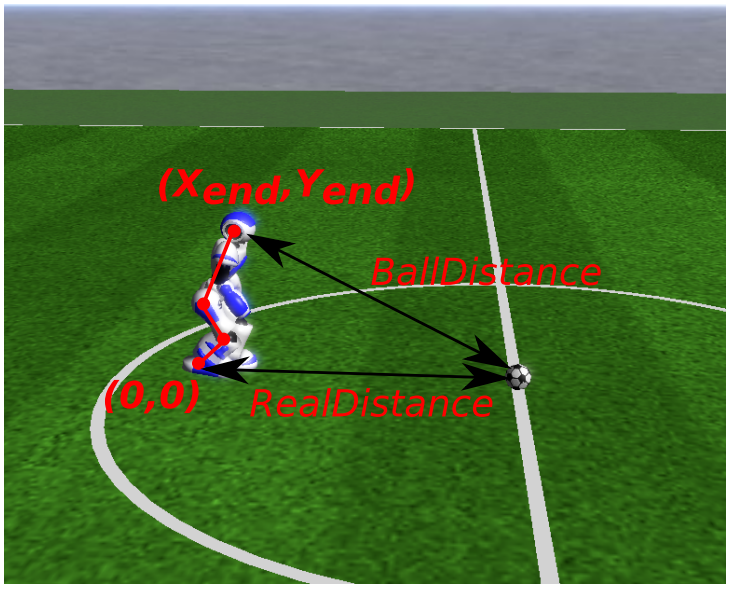

Figure 4.10: Ball Distance from Agent's Foot.

Prepare Kick Agent executes it before performs a kick. This action is needed in order to have a proper position and resulting in a successful kick. Figure 4.11 shows an example in which we are showing the agent's position before the kick.

4.7.2 Complex

Complex actions are created to make use of more than one simple actions and motions and have a more complicated structure. These complex actions are:

On Ball Action This action uses Walk To Ball in order the agent to reach the ball. In this action we use the agent's belief about his location in the field to help us find the direction and the kick's type. This action has a states' machine logic. Figure 4.12 shows in what order this action is executed. For big

Walk To Coordinate This action takes the agent to a specific coordinate in the soccer field. To achieve this action we need to know our position in the field and the target coordinate. Agent is able to know his position so it is easy for us to calculate in which direction agent has to walk in order to get in the specific coordinate. Figure 4.13 shows us that agent should travel from the point (X_{start}, Y_{start}), to the point

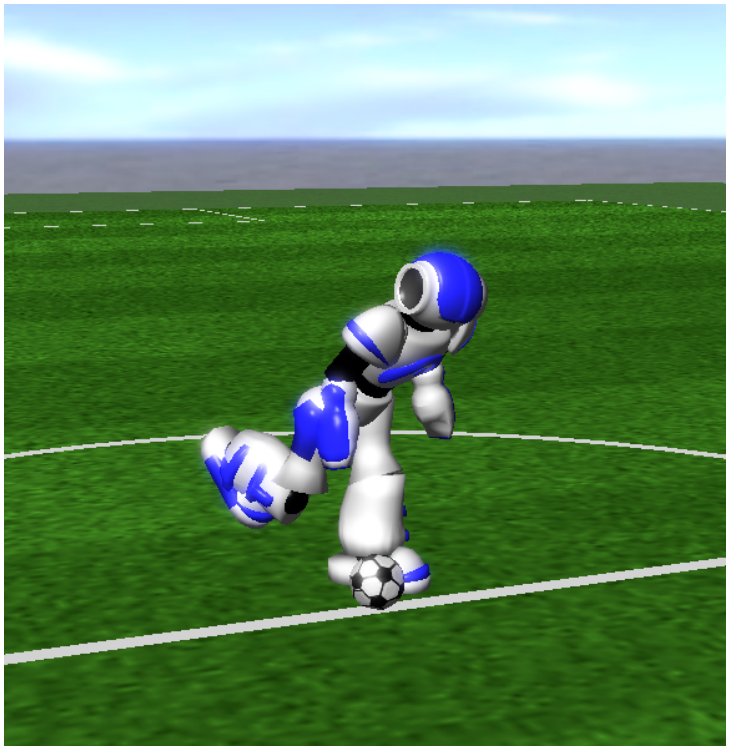

Figure 4.11: Nao Before Kick Ball.

(X_{target}, Y_{target}). It is easy to find $\vartheta^{\circ}_{target}$:

$$
\begin{aligned}
d_X &= X_{target} - X_{start} \\
d_Y &= Y_{target} - Y_{start} \\
\vartheta^{\circ}_{target} &= atan2(d_X, d_Y) \\
d_{target} &= \sqrt{d_X^2 + d_Y^2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Been helped from the above calculations agent is always aware of the distance and the direction he has to travel towards his target position.

Walk To Direction With this action agent walks towards a specific direction.

Walk With Ball To Direction As far as agent reaches the ball, he will try to keep the ball in front of him and walk towards a direction keeping into mind that the ball has to be always in front. This action is not yet functional in our approach as

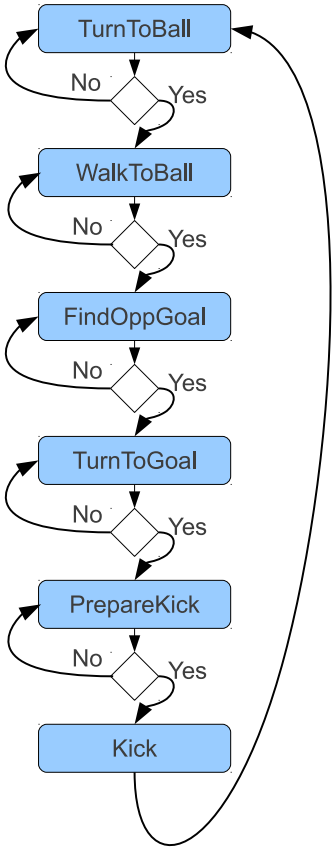

Figure 4.12: On Ball Action Logic Sequence.

movements based on motion files make it hard for us keeping ball in front of our agent all the time.

4.7.3 Vision

Vision related actions are created to control the vision perceptor which is attached to the robot's head as well as to collect data from this perceptor in order to execute related actions such as obstacle avoidance. These vision related actions are:

Move Head This action is related with the movement of the head. Nao robot has two joints attached in the neck which give us the freedom of moving the head in relation to the action is being performed.

type 1 Head moves to its original position.

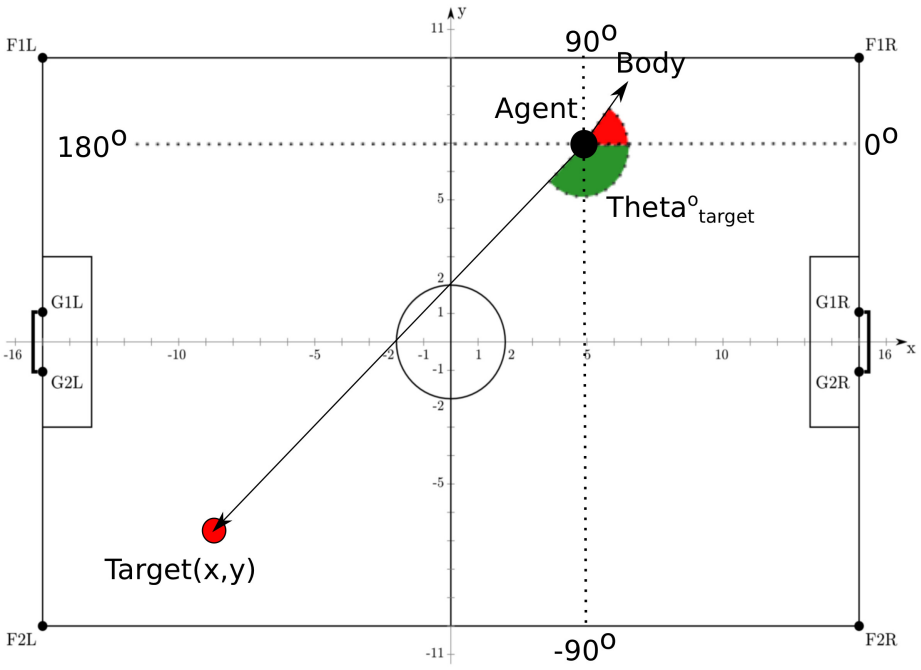

Figure 4.13: Walk To Coordinate Action.

type 2 Head moves until agent see the ball.

type 3 Head moves in relation to the ball's movement.

type 4 Head make a harmonic movement in order agent to have a nice perception of his environment.

type 5 Head moves until agent can localize himself in the field.

Watch Object Movement This action requires that object is in agent's field of view. Knowing the direction and the speed of the moving object is only feasible if we keep in memory a short number of observations. We keep two sets of five observations which we take within a time offset. Finding the average position of each set gives a distance between these two positions. If this distance will be divided with the time difference of the two observation sets we are going to have the direction and the speed of the moving object.

Find Opponents Goal This action is used in Go Kick Ball To Goal in order to take observations about the direction of the opponents goal in relation to agent's body angle.

Percept Obstacles An action that has the responsibility of having a good view of all obstacles which are located in agent's close range. Due to the fact that simulated Nao's head can move in horizontal axis from 120° to −120° and our field of view is 120° means that we can have a complete imaging from all obstacles which are located close to our agent. So, in every cycle of Nao's head we store all obstacles in an array. It is usual to observe the same obstacle more than once, in this situation we calculate the average of these observations. At the end of head's cycle we call the main action which tries to find alternative routes if there is an obstacle in our way.

Obstacle Avoidance In a dynamic and a multi-agent environment like simulation soccer this action is more than necessary. However, there are some teams in simulated soccer competition which have not yet develop an obstacle avoidance system. In our framework there is a reliable and a well-tested system to avoid possible collisions with other agents as well as landmarks.

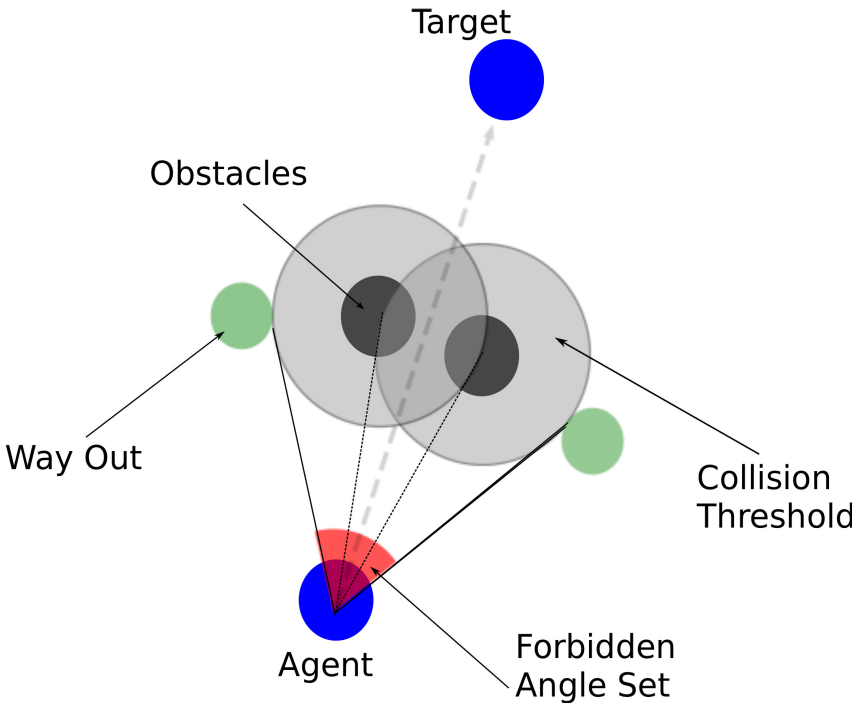

Figure 4.14: Obstacle Avoidance.

Figure 4.14 shows an example in which there are two obstacles between the agent and his target. During his walking to his target agent scans the field for possible obstacles through the action mentioned above. If agent realizes that there is an object which blocks his way to the target in the same simulation cycle he starts calculate the possible way out angles that he could choose in relation to his observations about all obstacles. For every obstacle, we calculate a set of two angles. These angles is determined by the distance between our agent and the obstacle and they show in which direction we can avoid this obstacle. When these angles are calculated, we check each angle of each set if it belongs to another angle set as well. Angles which belongs to another set are removed from the final list. This process' algorithm is described in Algorithm 2. Once we have

Algorithm 2 Way Out Angle Set

Inputs: $Obstacles = \{O_1, O_2, ..., O_n\}$
Outputs: $WayOutSet[]$
for each i in Obstacles **do**
  $WayOutSet.Add(Calculate(O_a, t))$
end for
for each j in WayOutSet **do**
  for each t in $\{r, l\}$ **do**
    if $WayOutSet_{j,t} \in WayOutSet_k, \vee k \in \{1, 2 * n\}, k \neq j$ **then**
      $WayOutSet.Remove(j, t)$
    end if
  end for
end for

all the qualified angle sets from the algorithm, it is time to find coordinates which are safe in order to avoid the obstacle. For each angle in these sets we calculate a specific coordinate. These coordinates in the soccer field will give us routes that are safe to follow. Now, we are going to calculate the cost for each route in respect with our body angle, the whole distance we have to travel to target if we follow this route. The route with the minimum cost is qualified to be followed by the agent. Calculating this cost will give as a dynamically consistent results. If cost function outputs a specific route at time T, assuming that obstacles are not moving, this function will output the same route for every time t > T, until we will have a clear route to our target position.

4.7.4 Other Sensors

Other Sensors related actions are created to collect data from gyroscope, accelerometer and force resistance perceptors. In this category there is only one action. This action is called **Check If Fall** and is responsible to check if our agent is fallen on the ground. In a multi-agent environment like this we should be aware about possible collisions with other agents or falls because the instability of movements. First of all, incoming perceptual inputs related to both gyroscope and accelerometer values are used to detect whether the robot has become subject of a turmoil. Taking values above a threshold from these two perceptors, it is possible that the robot has fallen, but we are not completely sure to perform a stand up action yet. It is not unusual to receive values above threshold due to a collision without a fall. So, we have to check the force resistance perceptors which are located on the sole of agent's feet. If these perceptors imply that the legs do not touch the ground then we are pretty sure to perform a stand up action.Foot pressure value is also used to determine whether the stand up action is succeeded.

4.8 Communication

Communication in Simspark is not ideal. There are not restrictions about the say effector and every player can use it in every cycle. However, the hear perceptor comes up with some restrictions. Messages should not have a length more than twenty characters from the ASCII subset [0x21; 0x7E] excluding [0x28; 0x29] which are the parenthesis characters, (and). Messages shouted from beyond a maximal distance (currently 50 meters) cannot be heard. Note that as the field is currently only 20x30 meters (36 diagonally), this does not turn out to be a limit in practice. Most importsant restriction is that the number of messages which can be heard at the same time is bounded. Finally, each player has the maximal capacity of one heard message by a specific team every two simulation cycles (thus every 0.04 seconds per team). Due to the limited communication bandwidth we utilize the communication channel in the following way, making sure that every message which is sent from an agent will be heard by other agents in time. A simple communication protocol is created in which time is sliced into pieces each one of them lasts for one cycle (20ms) and repeats every three cycles (60ms). Figure 4.15 shows how time is sliced. Every three cycles there is one of these pieces in which only one agent is

able to send his message to the others. Every one of these slices has an integer label on it which states the uniform number of the player which is able to send his message. This label grows by one in every time a player send his message until it reaches the maximum uniform number, then it returns to the number one. Agents are not permitted to use a common chronometer for this task but we make sure that each player is synchronized with the others making use of the changing game states. By using this simple protocol we achieve that every player can receive the other eight agents' messages in 540ms!

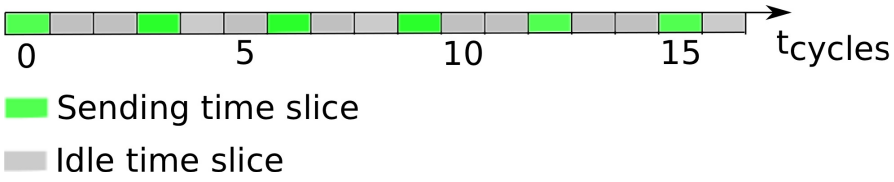

Figure 4.15: Time Slicing Communication.

4.9 Goalkeeper Behavior

This section presents the behavior that leads goalkeeper to make decisions and choose actions for himself. As we said in Section 4.1, goalkeeper is the only agent in our team who "runs" his own behavior. His behavior depends on a finite state machine. His initial state is "**start**" state. In this state goalkeeper tries to move himself in the center of his goal. When he accomplishes to move there, we change his FSM's states to "**Guard**" state. In guard state he makes use of the **Watch Object Movement** action to figure the ball's position and the possible direction and speed of its movement. Figure 4.16 is going to help you understand easier this state's basic idea. Goalkeeper Considers his position as the start of both axis x and y due to difficulties in making use of the localization process. So, red dashed line determines the goalkeeper's y-axis. For every movement of the ball he tries to compute if there is an intersection point between his y-axis and the grey dashed line which starts from ball's position in the direction of ball's movement. If there is an intersection point between these two lines then agents computes if this point is out of the two thresholds ($Threshold_{Right}$,$Threshold_{Left}$). If not, we are pretty sure that ball is heading towards our goal. We compute how much time will take to the ball to meet our y-axis according to its speed and taking account the friction between ball

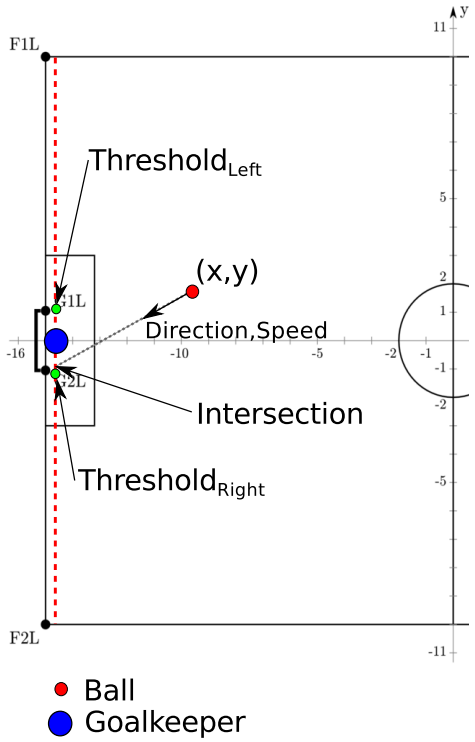

Figure 4.16: Goalkeeper Fall Function.

and the ground. If this time is equal or less than the time takes our agent to fall, agent performs a right or a left fall. You can see agent falling to prevent a goal in Figure 4.17. There are also other states. State "**Libero**" is a state in which goalkeeper sees the ball into his box and there are no other agents near to it. Then goalkeeper goes to clear the ball from his box. Through coordination process informs other field players that he is at "libero" state to prevent them from going towards the ball too. When he clears the ball, he returns to his initial position.

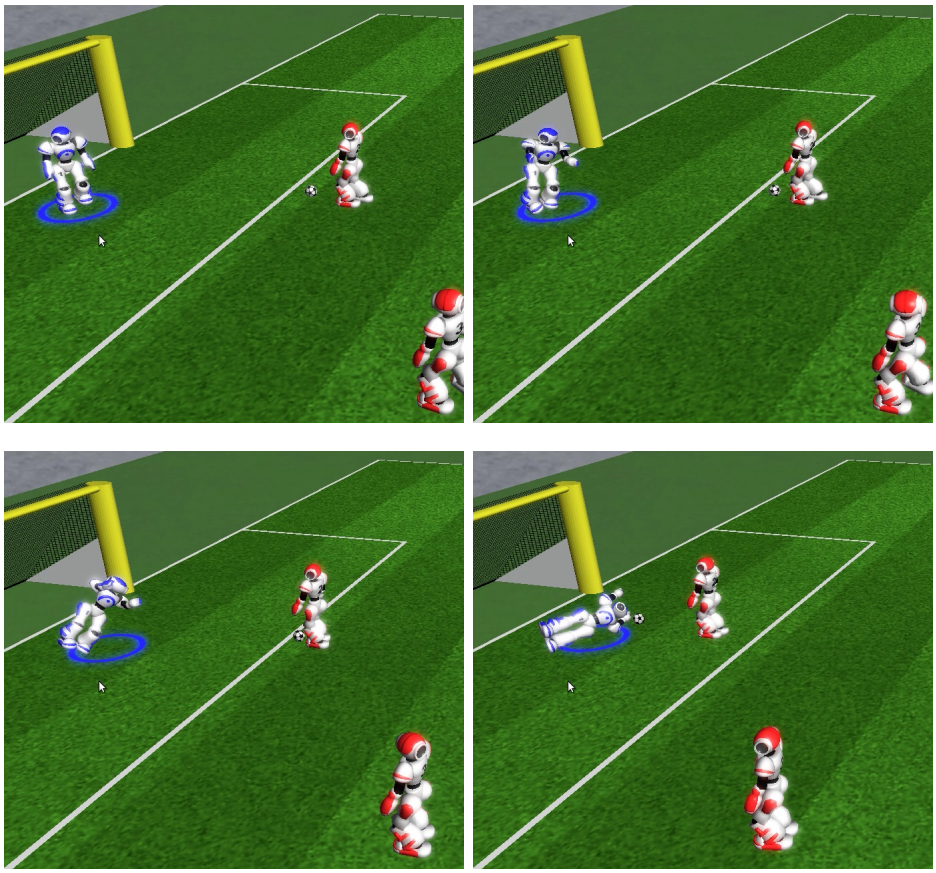

Figure 4.17: Goalkeeper Falls to Prevent Opponents from Scoring.

Chapter 5

Team's Coordination

In this chapter, we are going to present the most important, exciting and time consuming part of this thesis. Until now, we have discussed all parts that agent is going to need in order to be functional into the soccer field. With all these functionalities agents are able to locate themselves in the field, communicate with each other and execute actions combining movements through motion controller. However, agents miss a thinking process with which the will be able to decide about what action they should do for their team's benefit. For example, imagine a human soccer player who is able to do all the things needed in a football match but he has not the ability to choose what to do. Therefore, there must be presented a high-level process which will combine all these skills, motions,communication ability and actions having as a result a complete agent's behavior. As a behavior, we could define the process in which each agent takes as input his beliefs and decides what he will do as an output. In our approach, instead of each agent having his own behavior, players are depend on a centralized process which is called coordination. Coordination's algorithm is responsible to gather messages from all agents and as an output it produces actions which are costless for all players who are included into this process.We choose goalkeeper as the coordination's administrator to be the one who is going to execute this procedure. This means that goalkeeper will only be "running" his own behavior and other field players will not. Field players are just sending their beliefs to the goalkeeper and he is sending back the actions which are calculated by the coordination's algorithm execution. Figure 5.1 shows the difference between a field player and the goalkeeper. Goalkeeper has to calculate actions for all field players as well as execute his own behavior. In contrast, field players do not execute any behavior

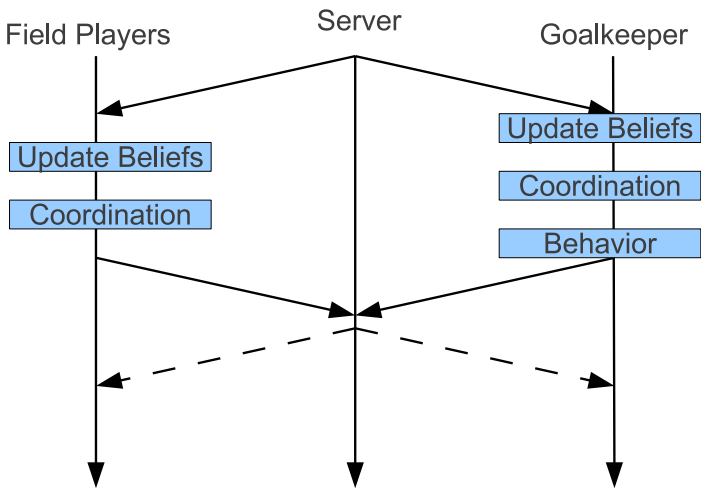

Figure 5.1: Coordination cycle.

but only send messages to goalkeeper and receive the calculated actions from him. We selected the goalkeeper to take the responsibility for this task due to the fact that he has the less significant role in the simulation soccer. Coordination's procedure is executed in several phases and not at once. These phases are:

Update coordination beliefs Multiple world state beliefs from field players have to be combined in order to update our belief for the world.

Split field player into groups Field players are split into groups according to their significance to the game state. The groups are:

Active This group consists of three players and their responsibility is to support and protect the on ball player who is chosen by coordination to be the one who will be given an action which is related to the ball.

Inactive This group consists of players which is not able to know their position on field or they have been fallen on the ground.

Support This group consists of the team's rest players and their responsibility is to fill team's formation positions with the best way possible.

Find positions for active players All possible positions which are best candidates for assigning active players there.

Assign actions for active players Calculation of the best two positions according to their cost.

Calculate team's formation Formation is calculated according to ball's position.

Assign roles for all players Team players are assigned roles in relation to the team's formation and their current position.

Find positions for support players All possible positions which are best candidates for assigning active players there.

Assign actions for support players Calculation of the best two positions according to their cost.

Algorithm 3 describes the coordination procedure. In every cycle-step, only few of the above phases are executed. We chose doing that because of the time limitation of the think's cycle. So, in order to have a smooth algorithm's execution we decided to separate functions in a number of server cycles.

5.1 Messages and Communication

Coordination could only be accomplished through communication. We use the common communication channel through simulation server in order to provide the messaging between the players. For this reason, communication plays a major role in our approach.

5.1.1 Message Types and Formats

There are multiple types of messages, each of them has a different functionality and serves a exact purpose. These message types are:

Init Message This type of message declares the start of the coordination procedure for each agent into the field. All field players should sent this message to the coordination's administrator in order coordination procedure to begin.

Message format:

```
i,<Uniform number>
```

Algorithm 3 Coordination Algorithm

Inputs: $CoordinationMessages = \{M_1, M_2, ..., M_{N-1}\}, N = numberofplayers$
Outputs: $Actions = \{A_1, A_2, ..., A_{N-1}\}$
if $Step == 1$ **then**
  $B \leftarrow UpdateBeliefs()$
else if $Step == 2$ **then**
  $S \leftarrow CoordinationSplitter(B)$
else if $Step == 3$ **then**
  $A_p \leftarrow ActivePositions(B, S)$
else if $Step == 4$ **then**
  $A_c \leftarrow ActiveCoordination(A_p, S)$
else if $Step == 5$ **then**
  $F \leftarrow TeamFormation(B)$
  $R \leftarrow RoleAssignment(A_c, B, F)$
  $S_p \leftarrow SupportPositions(R, F, S)$
else if $Step == 6$ **then**
  $SupportCoordination(R, F, S, B, A_c, S)$
end if

Start Message This type of message is only sent by the administrator, it declares that all agents are now initialized in the process. Each receiver should immediately start sending coordination messages.

Message format:

```
s,<Uniform number>
```

Coordination Message This is the most important type message. It has information about each agent's beliefs. There are four types of these messages in respect to the agent's situation. these types are:

Type C Agent has complete awareness of the world state. He sends his uniform number, his position and the ball's position as accurately as he can.

Message format:

```
c,<Uniform number>,<Agent X>,<Agent Y>,
```

```
<Ball X>,<Ball Y>
```

Type L Agent has complete awareness only for his position in the field, ball is not in his field of view and it could be best not to send us faulty observations about ball's position. He sends his uniform number and his position.

Message format:

```
l,<Uniform number>,<Agent X>,<Agent Y>
```

Type B Agent has complete awareness only the ball's position. He sends his uniform number, and the ball's distance and angle in relation to his body angle.

Message format:

```
b,<Uniform number>,<Ball Distance>,
<Ball Horizontal-Angle>
```

Type X Agent has complete unawareness of the world state. He is sending only his uniform number.

Message format:

```
x,<Uniform number>
```

End Message This type of message serves to stop field players from sending coordination messages. In this step administrator of the coordination is ready to execute the procedure and calculate the actions for all field players.

Message format:

```
e,<Uniform number>
```

Action Message This type of message is only sent by the administrator, it declares which action an agent has been assigned by the coordination process. These messages are sent in the end of the coordination procedure when actions for all field players have been calculated.

Message format:

```
a,<Uniform number>,<Action ID>,<Action parameter1>,
<Action parameter2>,<Action parameter3>
```

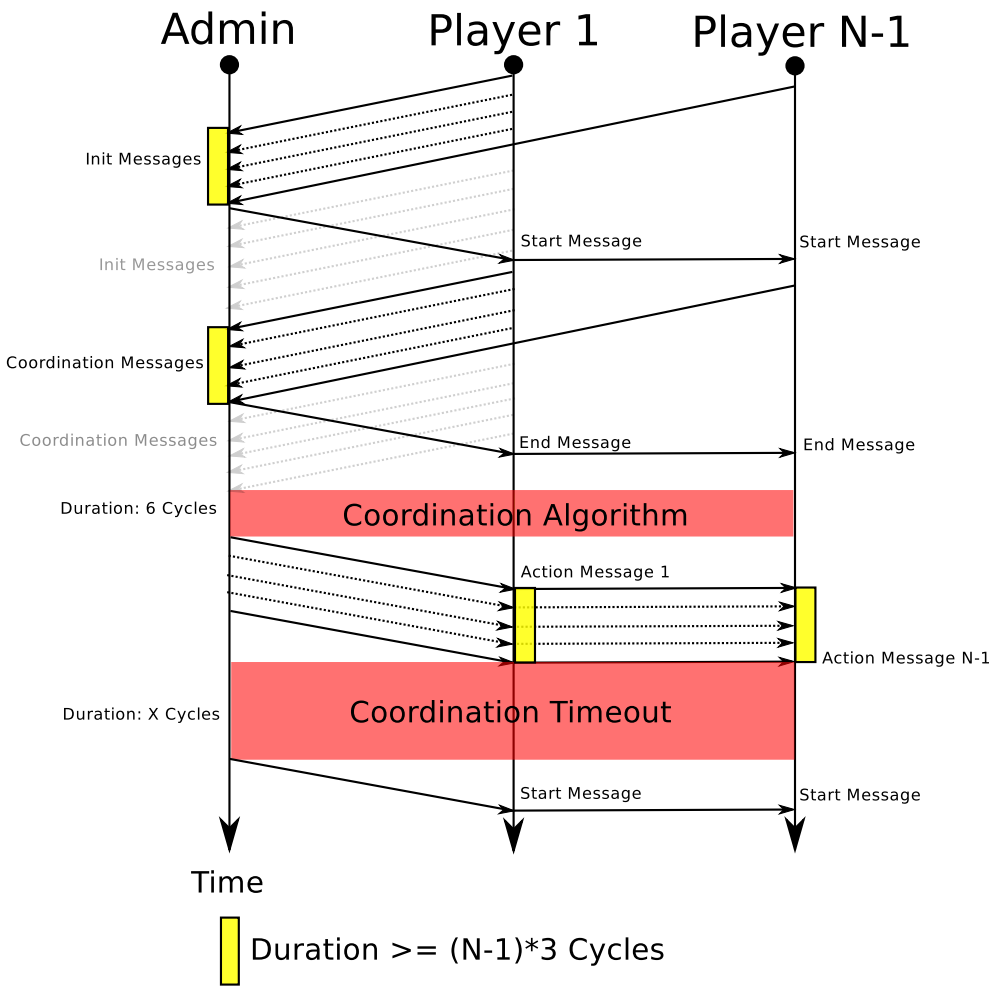

Figure 5.2: Communication Process in Coordination.

Figure 5.2 shows the whole procedure of communication between the agents in order to coordinate their actions. First of all, agents have to initialize their presentation in the field with an "init" message. Goalkeeper saves these message in a temporal array and when he realizes that all players have been initialized themselves he sends them a "start" message. This message means that all players in the field are ready to start

the coordination process. In this phase field players send their "coordination" messages to the goalkeeper. When goalkeeper gathers these messages from all field players, he sends them an "end" message to stop broadcasting. The next phase of the process is the execution of the coordination algorithm which lasts for six server cycles, approximately 120ms. After coordination phase calculated action must be sent to field players. We are using "action" messages to inform each player about the action he should do. After this phase, the same process is repeated after a timeout which we can be defined by us.

5.2 Coordination's Beliefs

In the above section we have presented about how field players exchange messages with the goalkeeper which is the coordination's administrator and the agent who executes the coordination's algorithm. In this section we are going to discuss about how the administrator could have the adequate knowledge of the world state receiving different observations from different agents. This is a field of major importance in such a multi agent system like simulation soccer. Having multiple observations of the same world could be a problem. Administrator has to combine all these observations without knowing which of them is faulty or correct in order to obtain a realistic representation of the world. Knowing ball's position and agents' positions will be more than enough to execute the algorithm without making guesses.

5.2.1 Ball's Position Weighted Samples

Ball position is calculated only from agents' observation who are able to locate it in the field and have a good knowledge about their position as well. We can infer that these observations are obtained by agents who are sending "type C" coordination messages. Furthermore, if goalkeeper has also a ball observation he uses it too. As we can see in Figure 5.3 ball observation can differ from each other. In our approach, we use a simple algorithm to approach ball's position with great accuracy. We use this algorithm to split these observations according to the others. A threshold is defined in order to form sets of observations. This threshold is called margin of observation error. Every observation set has a weight. In the beginning, for a given number of n observations we have n observation's sets each one of them has a default weight (1).

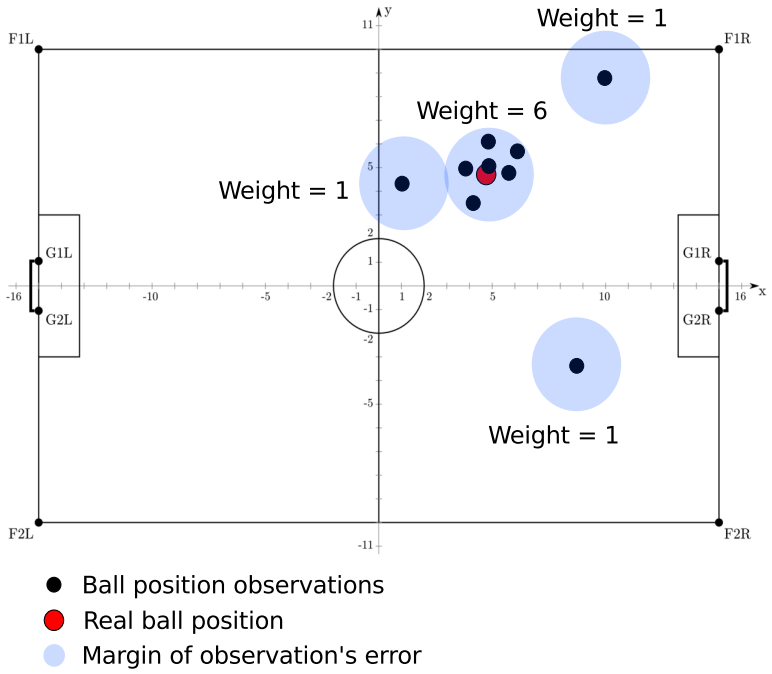

Figure 5.3: Ball's Position Observations.

$\mathbf{Obsevation_i} = (x, y)$
$\mathbf{Weight_i} = 1$

Then, we try to correlate these sets, for every two sets which are been correlated it is formed a new set which contains observations from the two parent sets. The weight of the new set will be the sum of the parents' weight.

$\mathbf{ObsevationSet_i} = \{(x_1, y_1), ..., (x_k, y_k)\} \vee k \in [1, n], k \in \mathbb{Z}$
$\mathbf{Weight_i} = k$

Figure 5.3 shows the procedure. We can see four sets of observations which have been assigned a weight. The set with the most observations included is naturally assigned the biggest weight. Consequently, we have to calculate the final position of the ball. Given N-observation's sets which each of them has K-observations, the final ball belief will be:

$$\textbf{BallBelief} = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\frac{Weight_i}{N*K}\sum_{j=1}^{K}ObsevationSet_i[j]$$

5.2.2 Agents' Distances from Ball

The next step into beliefs section is to determine each agent's distance from the ball. This can be accomplished by two ways. First, for agents who send "Type C" and "Type L" coordination messages and they are able to know their exact position in the field, this distance is calculated by finding the distance between the ball and the agent. For players who are sending "Type B" coordination messages we just take the distance part of the message. Finally, for "Type X" messages we assume ∞ distance.

5.3 Possible Subsets in Coordination Process

The existence of multiple operating agents makes coordination function is too complex or too expensive to solve by one single agent. In our case it would be the goalkeeper who is going to solve this huge problem for nine players or eleven which is the number of players in the next server's version. One possible solution to this problem is to split players into subsets which would be easier to coordinate their actions in real-time. In this approach, there are three subsets:

Active subset Active subset consists of three agents. It is the most important set of agents in the coordination. Agents who constitute this subset have the responsibility of making worthy actions for their team. Moreover, having to calculate actions for three players is not complex for such an important group.

Support subset Support subset consists of agents who are neither in the active subset nor the inactive one. Coordinate actions for these agents is the most time consuming and expensive part of the coordination algorithm.

Inactive subset Inactive subset consists of agents who are sending "Type X" messages. It is the less important set of agents in the coordination. Agents who constitute this subset assigned the same action, to find their position. Finding their positions will be resulted to be inserted either in the active or in the support subset in the next coordination cycle.

5.4 Coordination Splitter

In this section we are going to discuss how the above three groups are generated by coordination splitter. An array full of team's agents is sorted according to the distance each agent has from the ball. We assign to the active subset the agents in the three first positions of the sorted array. Other agents with distance less than infinity join the support subset. Remind that we assume ∞ distance from ball for the agents who have no idea for their position and have not the ball into the field of their view. In Figure 5.4 we can see an example of the coordination splitter. Assuming that all agents are complete awareness of their position, we could realize that the agents in the red distance's threshold will join the active subset. The other six players who have farther distance from ball will join the support subset.

5.5 Soccer Field Value

In order to proceed with our discussion about coordination process, we have to demonstrate a simple but functional way to give a value in every spot of the soccer field. In Figure 5.5 we see that each spot in the field takes a value from a function. The main idea is that as we ball is moving towards the opponent goal, this value is becoming higher. In contrast as ball is moving towards our goal, this value is becoming lower.

5.6 Active Positions' Calculation

Until now, we have updated the coordination beliefs and we have split agents into subsets. in this phase of the coordination process, we have to find adequate and worthy positions for the active subset. We distinguish two cases, in the first case, ball is located in our field's half. In this case we have to find worthy positions which have a defensive approach. On the other hand, if ball is located in the other field's half we have to find positions which have an attacking approach. In both cases we create an array of equidistant coordinates which are located in a radius which is determined by the ball's location and they are not out of field's thresholds. Figure 5.6 shows how these positions are shown in the soccer field through roboviz monitor.

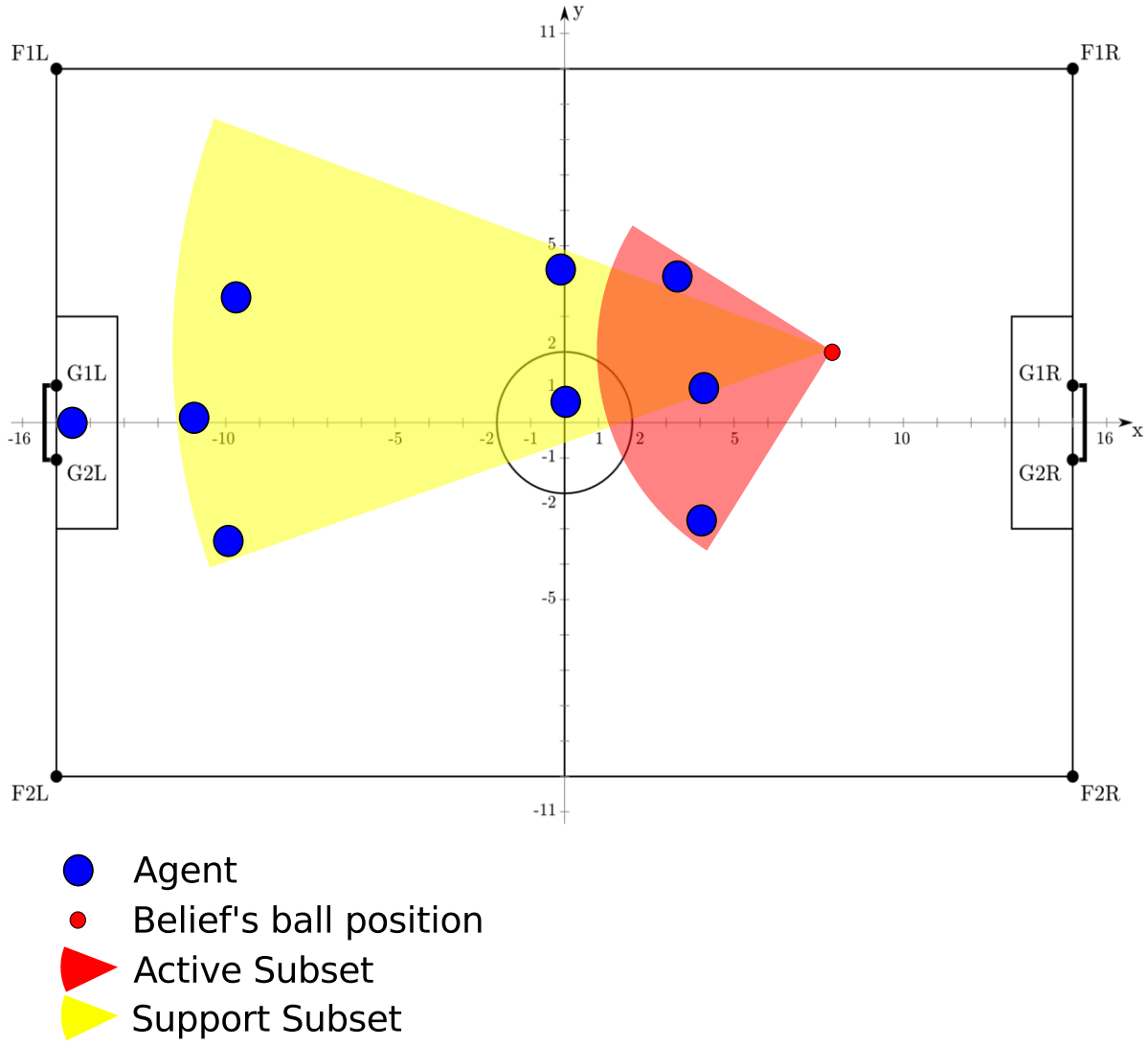

Figure 5.4: Coordination Splitter.

From these set of coordinates we choose the best according to their value. As we saw in the previous section each coordinate of the field has a unique value. Consequently, we will try to choose a number of coordinates which summarize in a max value in an attacking approach or in a min value in a defensive approach, careful not to overcome a max number of coordinates which is nine. This will help us to keep iterations below a threshold. Figure 5.7 shows how these positions are shown in the soccer field through roboviz monitor.

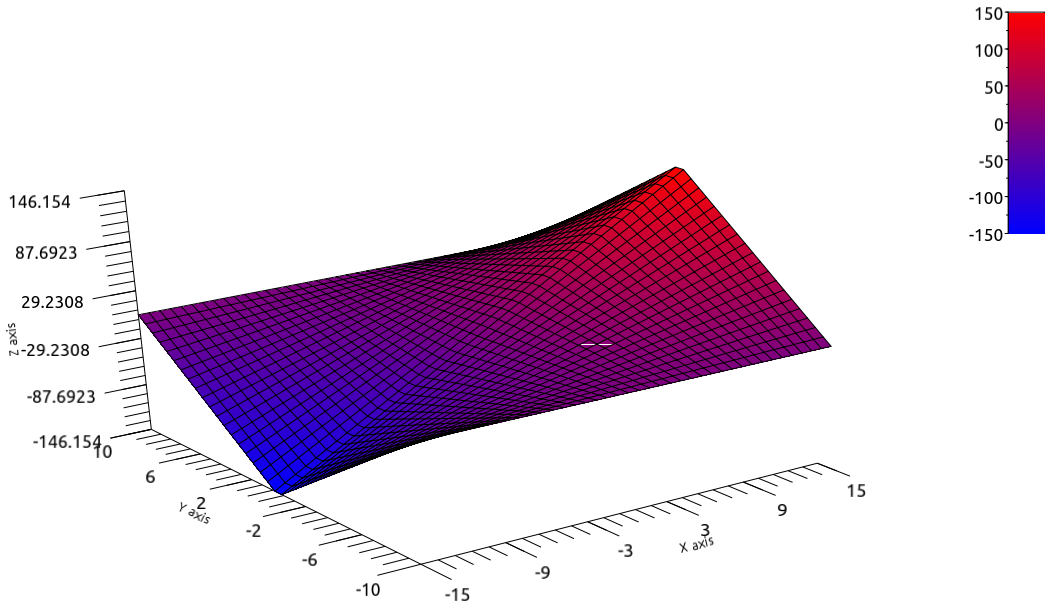

Figure 5.5: Soccer Field Value.

Figure 5.6: Active positions before elimination.

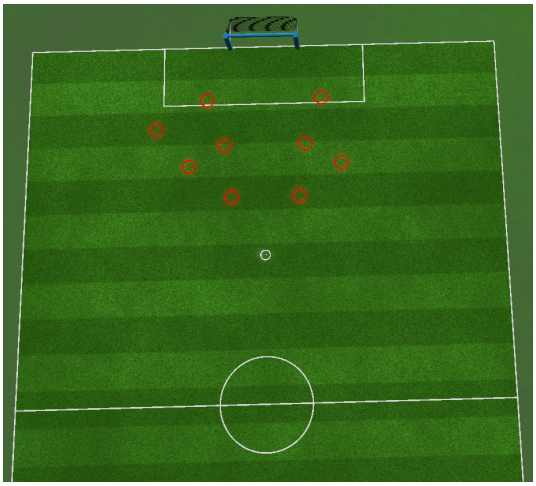

Figure 5.7: Active positions after elimination.

5.7 Active Subset's Coordination

Once we have find worthy positions for the active players it is time to find the player who is more adequate than others to become the on ball player. Moreover, we should assign each of the rest players into an active position. This is called mapping function and will have a significant role in the next coordination's phases.

5.7.1 On Ball Player

An agent from the active subset has to be selected in order to be sent an action which is related to the ball. We have to find the agent who has minimum value according to two parameters:

1. **Distance from ball** d_i, ball's distance from each agent in the subset.

2. **Angle towards goal** ϑ_i, this angle is the sum of two angles, the first is the angle between agent's body and the ball. The other angle is the angle between ball and the opponent's goal.

Given an active subset:
$\mathbf{ActiveSubset} = \{Agent_1, Agent_2, Agent_3\}$
$\mathbf{Value_i} = d_i + a * \vartheta_i, a \in \mathbb{R}$

OnBallPlayer $= \arg\min_i(Value_i)$

Additionally, we give to the agent who had been assigned an action towards the ball in the previous coordination cycle a small advantage over the others to be again the on ball player. We do this due to the fact that there will be continuously changes in the on ball player in cases in which two agents have approximately same distances and angles from the ball.

5.7.2 Active Players' Best Mapping

Next in the active coordination phase we should assign positions for the other two players who have been included to the active subset. Algorithm 4 shows how we can find the optimized mapping. In a greedy approach, we calculate the cost of every possible mapping. In addition, in every mapping we take into account the following mapping $(OnBallPlayer \rightarrow Ball)$ which will be helpful in order to find possible collisions between on ball and the active players. Given a set of nine positions the active coordination algorithm will be: We can realize that even we are using a brute force method the number of

Algorithm 4 Active Players' Best Mapping

1: **Inputs:** $ActivePlayers = ActiveSubset - Agent_{OnBall}$
2: $Activepositions = \{P_1, P_2, ..., P_N\}$
3: **Outputs:** $OptimActiveRoleMap$
4: $OptimActiveRoleMap = \varnothing$
5: $S = \binom{N}{2}$
6: **for each** s in S **do**
7: $\quad ActiveRoleMap = RoleMap[s] \cup (OnBallPlayer \rightarrow Ball)$
8: $\quad OptimActiveRoleMap = mincost(ActiveRoleMap, OptimActiveRoleMap)$
9: **end for**

possible mapping remains able to be computed in real-time. Assuming maximum number of active positions in our case nine, the possible mappings are: $\binom{9}{2} = 72$ mappings.

5.8 Team Formation

The formation itself is not a main contribution of this thesis but serves to set up the role assignment function and the coordination of the support subset. In general, team's formation is determined by the ball's position in the field. The formation is broken up into three groups including all players of the team except from goalkeeper.This section presents the team's formation used in our approach for both 0.6.5 and 0.6.6 rcssserver3d versions.

5.8.1 9-Players Server Version (0.6.5)

Attacking group which consists of three positions:

FC *Forward center*

FL *Forward left*

FR *Forward right*

Defensive group which consists of three positions:

DC *Defender center*

DR *Defender right*

DL *Defender left*

Finally, midfield group which consists of two positions:

ML *Midfielder left*

MR *Midfielder right*

As an example, Figure 5.8 shows how the different role positions of the formation are depicted in the soccer pitch. In general attackers are responsible to be assigned positions near to ball when ball is on opponents' half of the field. Then, the forward center is given a position close to the ball and the other two forwards are given positions on either side of the ball in an angle and a distance offset which are determined and dynamically changed according to the ball's exact coordinate. If ball is located in our half, then forwards are

given positions which are in the middle of the field. On the other hand, defenders are mainly positioned to guard our goal. To determine their position on the field a straight line is calculated between of the team's own goal and the ball. Central defender is given a position placed on this line and his distance from our goal is proportional to the ball's position. The other two defenders' positions are located on either side of the defender center. Midfielders' positions is determined by the ball's position as well. For an attacking phase, in which ball is located to the opponents' half of the pitch, midfielders are given position near to the forwards in order to support our attack. In the opposite situation they are given position in front of our defense line to help defenders. Finally, goalkeeper positions himself independently to always be in the best position to stop a shot towards our goal. In some cases, when ball is located near to the field's edges formation positions are adjusted not to be out of them.

5.8.2 11-Players Server Version (0.6.6)

Attacking group which consists of four positions:

FC *Forward center*

FL *Forward left*

FR *Forward right*

SF *Support Forward*

Defensive group which consists of three positions:

DC *Defender center*

DR *Defender right*

DL *Defender left*

Finally, midfield group which consists of two positions:

MC *Midfielder center*

ML *Midfielder left*

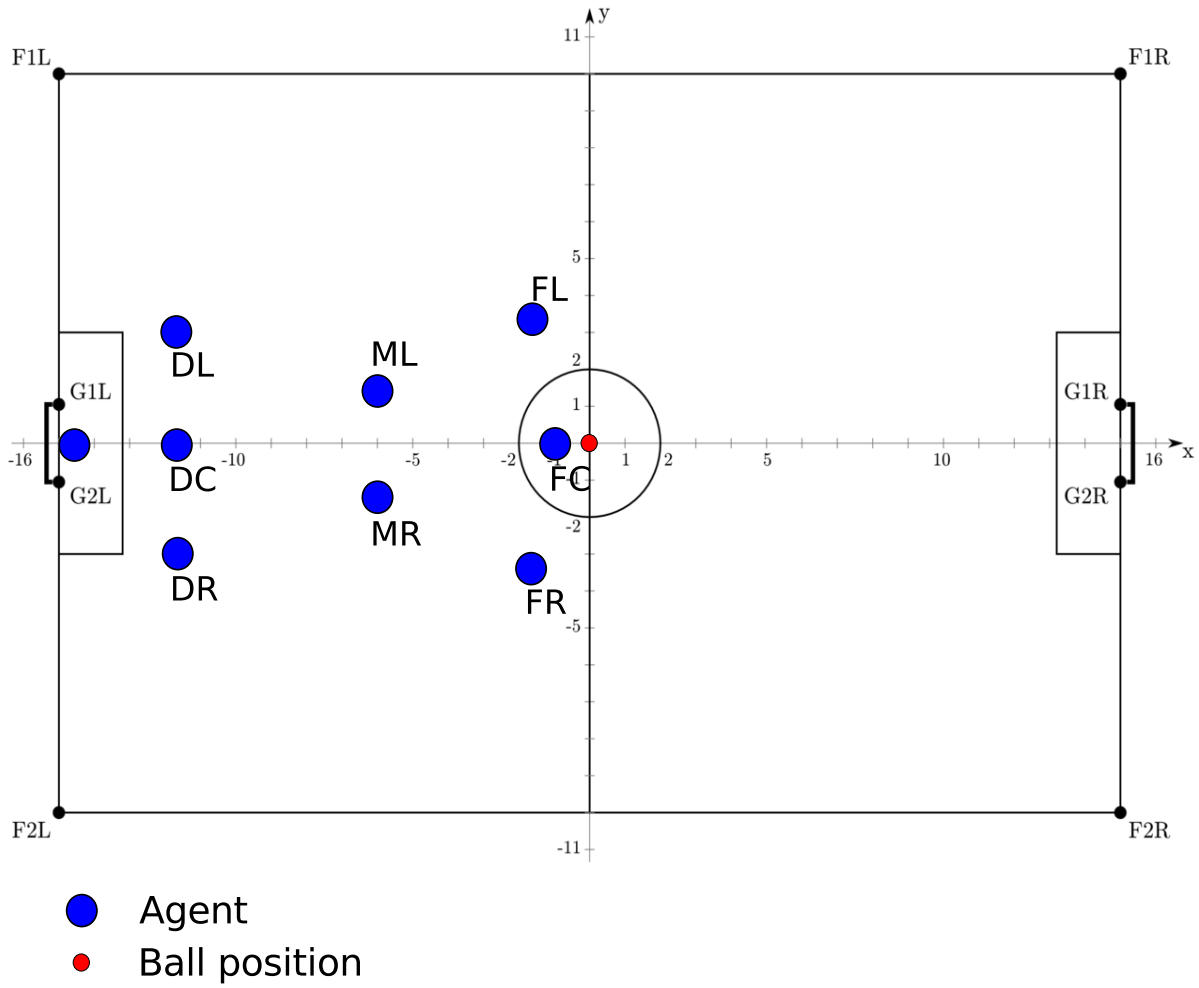

Figure 5.8: Formation Role Positions for 9 vs 9.

MR *Midfielder right*

Figure 5.9 depicts how the different role positions of the formation shown in the soccer pitch for the newer server version in which team consists of eleven players. Forward group is based on the same principle as the previous version's approach. In addition, a player is added beyond the forward center's position. In the midfield region there are now three players. Midfield center's position is behind with an offset distance from the forward center's position. Moreover, the other two midfielder positions are on either side of the midfield center position in an angle and distance. Defense line is exactly the same as it was in the previous version.

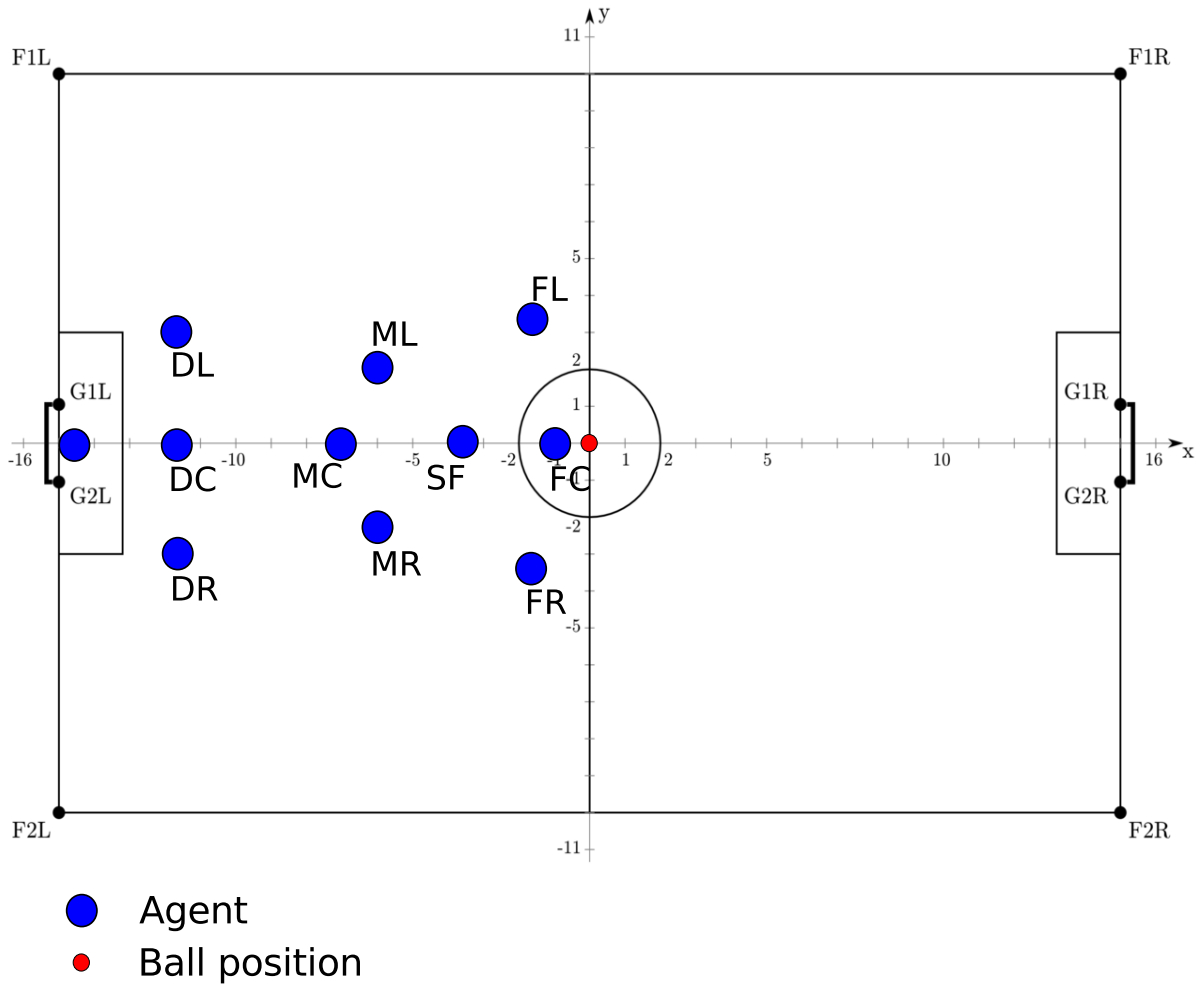

Figure 5.9: Formation Role Positions for 11 vs 11.

5.9 Role Assignment Function

In this section we present the role assignment function. This function after the evaluation of the current game state's beliefs and the optimized active positions, tries to assign roles for the all agents. This will prove to be very helpful on the next coordination steps when we will have to find positions for the support subset's agents. Given a calculated team formation we have to assign roles to the active subset's players. As we know, positions for active agents are strictly connected and near to the ball's position on the field. So, for N active players we choose N team's formation positions which minimize the distance from the ball. These team's formation roles will be assigned to the active players. The other

team roles will be available to the support subset during support coordination process. As an example, figure 5.10 shows how the this role assignment works. Active players will be assigned the red team roles due to the fact that they are located near to the ball's position. Once these positions will be bound by the active players, the only roles that support players can compete about will be the grey colored positions. A naive role mapping would have assign roles permanently to specific players. This will be performed poorly in such a dynamic environment. It would be also weak in situations where an agent assigned to a defensive role may end up out of position without being able to change roles with another player who may be in a better position to defend our goal. In our approach, every role mapping is calculated with a full sense of the world's state, resulting to a dynamic and unpredictable way of assigning roles to the agents. During testing, there were several cases in which a forward player ended up to have a defense role at the end of the game or the opposite.

5.10 Positions for Support Subset

In this section, we are going to discuss about which position will assigned to the support subset. In an ideal case, we would have same number of support agents and same number of positions, this is going to happen when inactive subset is completely empty. In this case this section has not any meaning. In other cases, when there are agents who are not able to know their positions or seeing ball, we have to decide about which position of the team's formation will be eliminated from the support coordination. Considering the ball's position, we have to make sure that there will be positions for support players near to the ball. So, given N players in the support subset we simply compare these team's formation position to find the N closest to the ball's positions. Coordination's final step will find an optimized way to map support agents to these positions.

5.11 Support Coordination

This is the final phase of the coordination process. Until, now we have calculated the optimal mapping of the active agents' subset. So it's time to find a mapping which will give as an optimal solution for the support agents as well. Given a support position set which has been discussed in the previous two sections we have to assign a position

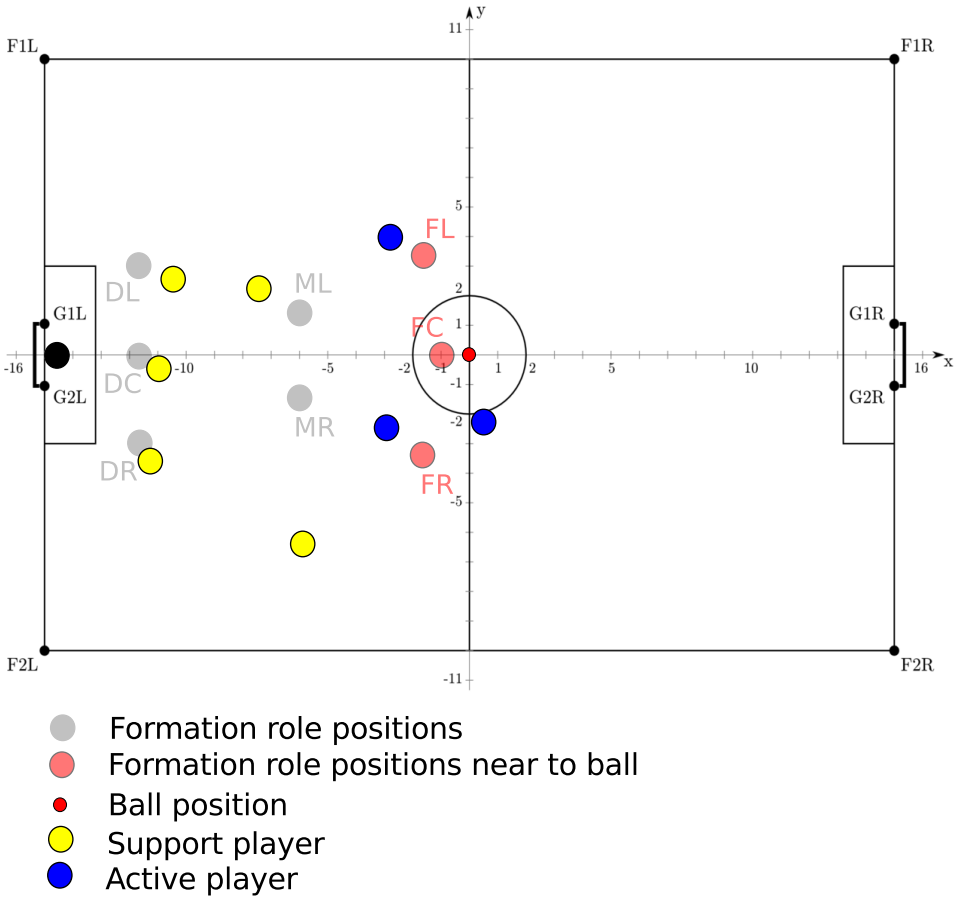

Figure 5.10: Role Assignment Function.

of this set to each and every agent of the support subset. Using a greedy algorithm which would calculate all possible mapping to find the optimal solution was the first solution to this problem. However, a brute force approach would only be applicable for the previous server's version in which each team consists of nine players, in which we would have to calculate all mappings only for the support subset which consists of five players at maximum. This means a factorial complexity about: $\leqslant 5! \Leftrightarrow \binom{5}{5} = 120$ mappings. Unfortunately, moving from nine to eleven eleven players this would be a problem as having to calculate at worst case $7! \Leftrightarrow \binom{7}{7} = 5040$ mappings it would be difficult for an agent to calculate all these mappings in real-time without any delay in sending effector messages to the server. We find the solution in a UT Austin Villa's paper [2] which was appeared in the RoboCup international Symposium. A dynamic

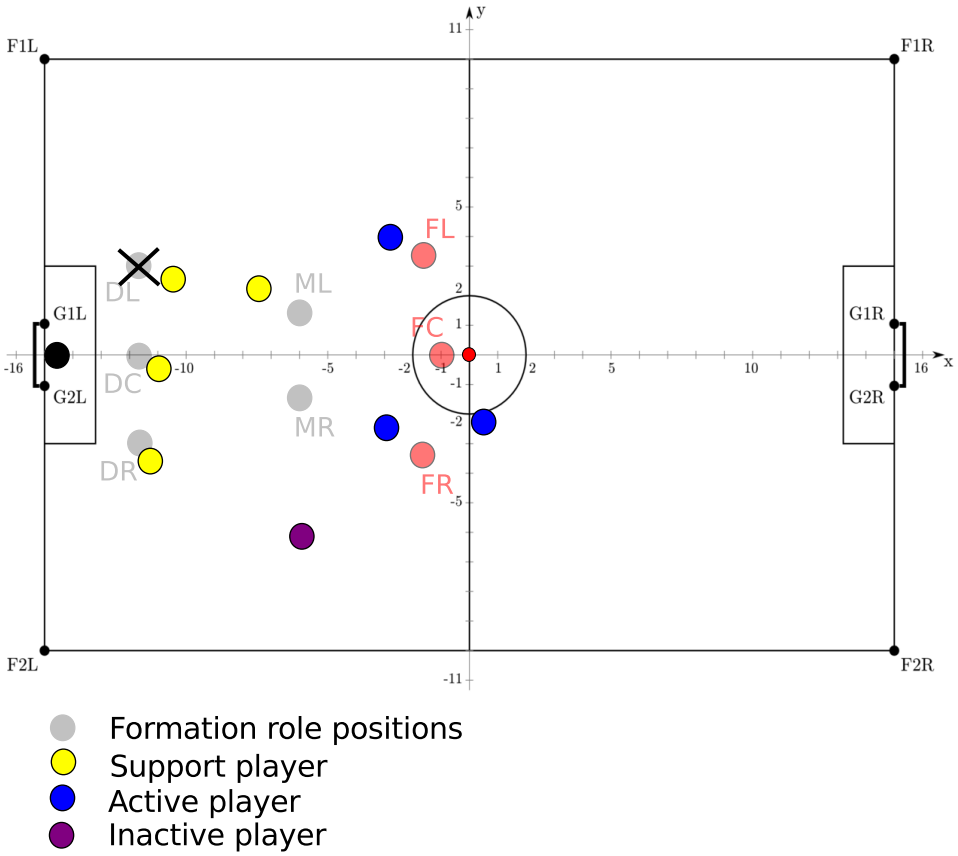

Figure 5.11: Support Positions.

programming implementation which is able to compute an optimal solution within the time constraints imposed by the decision cycle's length ($\approx$ 20ms).

This dynamic Algorithm 5 is based on a key recursive property, theorem **??**. This property stems from the fact that for every mapping there is a subset of a lower cost with which we can reduce the cost of the complete mapping by augmenting it with that of the subset's lower cost mapping. An example of this procedure is shown in Table 5.11. As we see in this table, an optimal mapping is built iteratively for position sets from $\{P_1\}$ to $\{P_1, P_2, ..., P_n\}$. In every step of this algorithm we use the lower cost's mapping for a subset of agents and positions which are compatible with our current mapping.

Remind that in the *Kth* iteration of the algorithm, each agent will be assigned to the P_K position. Then the possible positions K-1 will be assigned to the other n-1 agents. These assignments result in a total of $\binom{n-1}{k-1}$ mappings to be evaluated each in each iter-

Algorithm 5 Dynamic programming implementation [2]

Inputs: $SupportPlayers = \{A_1, A_2, ..., A_n$
$SupportPositions = \{P_1, P_2, ..., P_n\}$
Outputs: $OptSupportMap$
$OptSupportMap = \varnothing$
for $k = 1 \rightarrow n$ **do**
  for each α in SupportPlayers **do**
    $S = \binom{n-1}{k-1}$, sets of k-1 agents for supportPlayers - $\{\alpha\}$
    for each s in S **do**
      $SupportRoleMap\ m_0 = RoleMap[s]$
      $SupportRoleMap\ m = m_0 \cup (\alpha \rightarrow P_k)$
      $OptSupportMap[\{\alpha\} \cup s] = mincost(m, OptSupportMap[\{\alpha\} \cup s])$
    end for
  end for
end for

$\{P_1\}$	$\{P_1, P_2\}$	$\{P_1, P_2, P_3\}$
$A_1 \rightarrow P_1$	$A_1 \rightarrow P_2, min(A_2 \rightarrow P_1)$	$A_1 \rightarrow P_3, min(\{A_2, A_3\} \rightarrow \{P_1, P_2\})$
$A_2 \rightarrow P_1$	$A_1 \rightarrow P_1, min(A_3 \rightarrow P_1)$	$A_2 \rightarrow P_3, min(\{A_1, A_3\} \rightarrow \{P_1, P_2\})$
	$A_2 \rightarrow P_2, min(A_1 \rightarrow P_1)$	$A_3 \rightarrow P_3, min(\{A_1, A_2\} \rightarrow \{P_1, P_2\})$
	$A_2 \rightarrow P_2, min(A_3 \rightarrow P_1)$	
	$A_3 \rightarrow P_2, min(A_1 \rightarrow P_1)$	
	$A_3 \rightarrow P_2, min(A_2 \rightarrow P_1)$	

Table 5.1: Mappings Evaluated During Dynamic Algorithm [2].

ation. Summing to $\sum_{i=1}^{N} \binom{n-1}{k-1}$ possible mappings.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} \binom{n}{k-1} = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k} = 2^{n-1}$$

Therefore, the total number of mappings that we have to calculate their costs using this approach are $n2^{n-1}$. For nine players in each team this algorithm would not have any impact in making coordination faster as the previous brute force algorithm will have 5! (120 mappings) not much bigger complexity than this approach $5 * 2^4$ (80 mappings).

However, in the new version of soccer simulator in which we can have even seven players in our support subset this approach gives us great improvement in our coordination time, $7 * 2^6$ (448 mappings) $\ll 7!$ (5040 mappings).

5.12 Mapping Cost Calculation

In this section we are going to present how each mapping's cost is calculated. This function serves our approach in two cases. First, in active coordination in which active players wants to find an optimized mapping between them and the possible active position. Second, in support coordination in which support players wants to find an optimized mapping between them and the team's formation position which have assigned to them.

5.12.1 Properties for Support's Mapping Cost

For support players things were easy. In support coordination we have same number of agents and positions. So these properties are:

1. **Total distance** C_d - Total distance agents have to travel in order to reach in their optimized mapping positions. It is a positive cost, so agents will try to minimize this cost.

2. **Possible Collisions** C_c - In each mapping we check every combination of two agents and their assigned position if are to collide. If the lines between agents and their target positions are intersecting in a point which has almost the same distance from the agents then we add a big cost in this mapping. It is a positive cost and agents will try to minimize it. Figure 5.12 shows the idea behind the detection of a possible collision between two agents. In order to detect a possible collision these two distances d_1,d_2 have to have a small difference between them.

$$Totalcost = C_d + C_c$$

As you can realize, the mapping with the smallest cost will be chosen by coordination's executor.

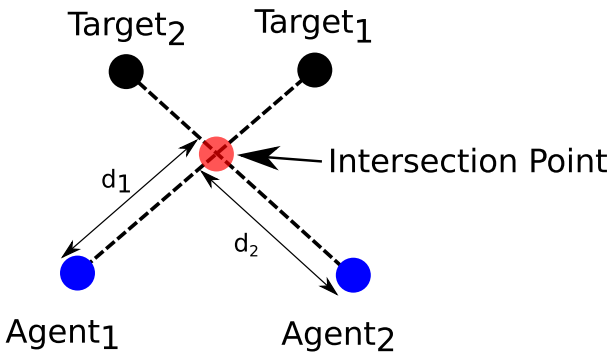

Figure 5.12: Collision Detection Approach.

5.12.2 Properties for Active's Mapping Cost

In active coordination we have two agents and a maximum of nine positions. It is obvious that we have to take into consideration more properties. Using the same support's properties will force our players to go always to the nearest positions. So, we had to think about other properties in order to assign target positions for our players which will be valuable for the team's defensive and offensive movement without the ball. These properties are shown below:

1. **Total distance** C_d

2. **Field's value** C_v - Agents will try to maximize this cost according to the game state and the value which has every position in the field, see Section 5.5. For example, in an attacking phase agents will try to select positions which maximize this value. It is a negative cost.

3. **Possible Collisions** C_c

4. **Close routes** C_r - Agents routes should be safe, so we calculate the difference between start positions' distance and target positions distance. This cost is a negative cost and agents will try to maximize this.

5. **Neighboring positions** C_p - In general agents will try to avoid be assigned in neighboring positions. So if their target positions are near to each other this is going to add more cost. It is a negative cost and agents will try to maximize this.

6. **Positions aligned to X-axis** C_a - we want team stretching into the field in order to have players in all regions of the soccer pitch. Agents will try to maximize their Y-axis difference and this cost is negative too.

$$Totalcost = C_d - C_v + C_c - C_r - C_p - C_a$$

The same principle applies here too, the mapping with the smallest cost will be chosen by coordination's executor.

Chapter 6

Results

In this Chapter are presented the results of our approach in every part of our work. We are going to see what we achieve in motions part, in communication part, in coordination part and finally and most important the overall results which is the real competitive soccer matches against other teams which participated in Robocup competition of 2011 held in Istanbul.

6.1 Movement

This section presents the improvements we have done in the movements part of this thesis. In general, as we have said above motions files are not created by us but from other teams or other platforms such as Webots Simulator. The only thing that we could do is to try improving these motions until we have reached an adequate result for our team. Table 6.1 shows the improvements made in motions whenever was possible. Optimized walk motion has reached a speed of .45m/s which is comparable but much slower then the UT Austin Villa's walking engine which produces a walk motion of .71m/s.

6.2 Communication

Testing communication process through ideal external communication ability when only our team has the ability to send messages gave nice results. Agents were able to "hear" all their teammates in an averaged 30 Server-Cycles. However, even in competition's

Motion Version	**Walk**(m/s)	**Turn**(degrees/s)	**Kick**(meters)	**S. Kick**(meters)
Webots (Text-Based)	0.11	21	3	-
FIIT (XML)	0.22	25	3 (4 sec)	4 (5 sec)
Webots Opt.	-	**30**	-	-
FIIT Opt.	**0.45**	24	**3** (2 sec)	**5.5** (2 sec)

Table 6.1: Motion's Performance Improvement

Communication Phase	Ideal (Cycles)	Normal (Cycles)
Init Messages	24 (.48 Sec)	24 (.48 Sec)
Coordination Messages	24 (.48 Sec)	42.5 (.85 Sec)
Action Messages	24 (.48 Sec)	24 (.48 Sec)

Table 6.2: Communication Results

situations when both teams have the ability to send messages to their teammates the results remained approximately the same. Table 6.2 presents the communication phases' performance during communication process. We can see that there are not serious delays in these communication phases. This happens due to the fact soccer simulation server does not allow players to send messages in the same server cycle. We take advantage of the fact that there are separately tracked capacities for both teams, because teams should not be able to block the hear perceptors of their opponents by shouting permanently. In fact, we send messages every three cycles, so, it does not a restriction for our team, and server allows our team to shout messages in most cases.

Team	Goal Difference	Games
UTAustinVilla	-4.6	3
Robocanes	-	0
BeeStanbul	-4.0	3
NomoFC	-	-
Rail	0.0	2
OxBlue	-	-
FUTK3D	-	-
FARZANEGAN	-	-
L3M-SIM	+0.5	4

Table 6.3: Full-Game Results

Team	P	W	D	L	F	A	Pts
AST3D	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
UTAustinVilla	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Robocanes	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
BeeStanbul	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 6.4: Tough Mini Tournament

Team	P	W	D	L	F	A	Pts
AST3D	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
NomoFC	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
OxBlue	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
FUTK3D	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
L3M-SIM	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
FARZANEGAN	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 6.5: Easy Mini Tournament

6.3 Coordination

6.4 Overview

6.4.1 Full Game Results

6.4.2 Mini Tournament (Tough Opponents)

6.4.3 Mini Tournament (Easy Opponents)

Chapter 7

Related Work

7.1 UT Austin Villa

[3] UT Austin Villa is the most known and the best team which is participating in the Robocup's simulation league. Its first appearance was in the Robocup 2007 held in Atlanta, U.S.A, in July 2007. It belongs to University of Texas and consists of five members, professor Peter Stone, graduate students Patrick MacAlpine and Samuel Barrett and finally two undergraduate students Nick Collins and Adrian Lopez-Mobilia. The main characteristic of this team is its state-of-art dynamic movement. Its fast and stable walk is recognizable and offers them great results. A typical example of this great team's results can be that in Robocup's competition in Istanbul 2011 this team won all 24 games it played and scored a total of 136 goals without conceding any.

In their last paper [2] about positioning, it is explained their approach of player positioning in the field. First, a full team formation is computed. Second, each players calculates the best assignment of players according to his belief about the world. Finally, a coordination mechanism is used to choose among all players' suggestions. This coordination mechanism using a voting system. Players assignment with the most votes will be used as a result.

I am not the appropriate person to criticize their longterm work and contribution to the Robocup's simulation league, as I deal with this league only for a few months. However, I would like to mention that in our approach there is a major difference in the way that players coordinate their actions. The separation of the team into subsets makes it easier to solve all these problem caused due to complexity constraints. Furthermore,

we are using active's group players in order to have a better role assignment to positions near to ball which have huge importance in games like soccer. Finally, I wish we had such a perfect movement controller like UT Austin Villa's one. It would be a nice challenge to compare these two coordination systems in the same movements' level.

7.2 BeeStanbul

[4] The beeStanbul project from the Artificial Intelligence and Robotics laboratory (AIR lab) at Istanbul Technical University (ITU) is the first initiative from ITU to participate in RoboCup competitions. It consists of five members and has been participating in the Robocup's competitions since RoboCup 2010 held in Singapore. It is a nice team which accomplished to qualify up to second round in the last Robocup competition in Mexico 2012.

First of all, they are making use of both static and dynamic movements and their walking machine is more than adequate. Concentrating in their work at the coordination part of their project.They split team agents into three groups, defenders and attackers. The attackers group involves the forward and the midfielder agents while the defend- ers group involves only the defender agents.Since two agents are assigned to the goalkeeper and the forward roles, the remaining seven agents are to be assigned to these roles. This is accomplished by a distributed Voronoi cell construction approach in which each agent calculates its own cell independently from that of the others. Therefore, every agent has a differently shaped cell and these can overlap. The time complexity of the method is $O(n^2)$ where n is the number of agents in the team. After constructing the cell for itself, each agent determines the center of the cell as its new target. Agents become closer to each other by using this strategy. In their approach, only teammates in the viewpoint of the agent are considered. So we can realize that there can be situation in a soccer game when each agent who computes his own cell could be completely unaware if any of his teammates is located in his field of view. Having a better knowledge of teammates position in the field is a key feature in our approach.

Chapter 8

Future Work

8.1 Dynamic Movement

Most of the teams which have been participating in the Robocup's simulation soccer league make use of dynamic movement. This is a major drawback for our side and I hope this issue to be resolved in the near future.

8.2 Passing

Hopefully, is a short-term goal for us to add passing feature in our framework. You could realize that passing is a key attribute in every soccer team's success. There have to be improvements in team formation in order for passing to be implemented well into.

8.3 Testing and Debugging in New Server's version

There are things to be tested in order our team to meet the standards of the new Server's Version 0.6.6 in which there are some changes with the most important that there are now eleven players for each side and field's size has changed. It will be easy to make these changes in our source code, as the whole code is written in a way that allows these changes to be done easily.

8.4 Participation in Robocup

Robocup is a well-known competition especially for people who are interested in robotic soccer. Since I started this project, during the last winter semester in the course of Autonomous Agents, I was having the ambition for our team to participate in this league. It will not be easy to be competitive at once but it will be a nice experience. Furthermore, we are going to have the opportunity to test our agent in real conditions.

Chapter 9

Conclusion

We have presented a team's framework for the Robocup Simulation League 3D - a physically realistic environment that is partially observable, non-deterministic, noisy and dynamic, as well as a dynamic coordination system which evaluates all the necessary variables and be executed only by one player. Creating a team's framework from scratch was a big challenge especially when this project does not depend in any other third party software's part except from motions files and the dynamic programming implementation created by UT Austin Villa. In general, teams participating in this league consists of more than two members in most cases. It is my personal belief that in order to be competitive in this league there has to be a team effort in which each member should concentrate in a single part of the whole problem.

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