



UMEÅ UNIVERSITY  
DEPARTMENT OF COMPUTING SCIENCE

ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE  
METHODS AND APPLICATIONS

5DV181

# Map maker

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# Abstract

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# Chapter 1

## Context

### 1.1 Code structure

Our program is divided in three main modules, the mapping module, the planning module and the controller module. The role of the first one is to build the map of the environment of the robot using the echoes of the lasers. The role of the second one is to plan the goal of the robot and the path that the robot must follow in order to explore the world. The role of the controller module is to make the robot move towards its goal while avoiding the obstacles in its way.

To communicate with the MRDS server we created a class named 'Robot', it is used as an interface to send and receive informations to and from the MRDS server easily. The received informations are directly adapted to our needs and stored using our 'Position' and 'Laser' datastructures in this class.

### 1.2 How to run our program

For this assignment we used Python 3 as programming language, to run the program you can use the following syntax:

```
> python3 main.py
```

## Chapter 2

# Mapping

The first point on which we worked was to find a way of building a map of the environment of the robot using the lasers echoes.

To do so we created a class 'Map' that contains a grid of values between 0 and 1. Those values represent probability that there is an obstacle on that cell. All the values are initialized to 0.5 which is the average value between 0 and 1 since we do not know if there is an obstacle or not at that place.

To update this grid we created a class 'Cartographer' that uses the echoes of the lasers. For each laser echoe we compute the distance between the robot cell and the cell hit by the laser in the grid. Then we use the 'Bresenham' algorithm to update all the cells in between the two above. For all those cells we compute an increment that is added or subtracted to them using the following procedure:

1. First we compute an increment value in regard of the value of the cell, the values for max and min increments are respectfully 0.15 and 0.015:

- If the cell is a hit cell, meaning that it is the cell where the laser echoed back:

$$inc\_iro\_certainty = min\_increment \text{ if } is\_empty(cell) \text{ else } max\_increment$$

- If the cell is not a hit cell:

$$inc\_iro\_certainty = min\_increment \text{ if } is\_obstacle(cell) \text{ else } max\_increment$$

2. Then we compute an increment factor in regard of the distance between the robot and the cell to update:

$$inc\_factor\_iro\_dist = 1 - abs(\frac{distance}{max\_lasers\_distance})$$

3. The final increment is computed by multiplying the factor with the defined increment:

$$final\_increment = inc\_iro\_certainty \cdot inc\_factor\_iro\_dist$$

4. The final increment is added to the cell if the cell corresponds to the cell hit by the laser and that the distance of the echoe is below the maximum laser distance. Otherwise it is subtracted.

With this method when a cell is qualified as obstacle it will be 10 times harder to decrement its value than to increment it and reversely. That makes the map more consistent because even when the robot hits something which make it shake or turns very fast we will not have false values in our grid. The distance factor is useful because it will make the cells near the robot update more easily than the cells far away, since the further away the cell is from the robot the less precise the laser information is.

This is the factory map built moving the robot by hand using the cartographer described above.



Figure 1: Explored map by hand

The mapping module also contains the 'ShowMap' class which is used to display the built map.



## Chapter 3

# Planning

The planning module is divided in three different parts.

1. The first thing to do is to find a goal point, that goal point must be chosen in a way that will make the robot explore unknown parts of the environment.
2. Then we have to build a path for the robot to follow between the actual position of the robot and the target.
3. The final thing to do is to use a path tracking algorithm that will make the robot follow the built path.

### 3.1 Find a goal point

In order to find a goal point we have to detect an unexplored zone that we can access to, to do so we used an approach based on frontier detection. A frontier is a region on the border between an explored zone and an unexplored zone. Then the first thing to do in order to determine the next goal point is to detect the frontiers.

#### 3.1.1 Detect the frontiers

At first we thought that a naive approach could be enough for this part, but we later noticed that it was not efficient enough.

##### 3.1.1.1 First naive approach

To detect the frontiers we go through all the unexplored cells of the grid and if that cell has an explored empty cell in its Von Neumann neighbourhood we know it is part of a frontier. The Von Neumann neighbourhood is composed of the four adjacent cells around a cell. Once we went through the whole grid we

have a list of all the cells that are on a frontier, the next step is to divide them into several regions.

To divide the frontiers in regions we go through the previously built list, each time we put a cell in its region we delete it from the initial list. For each cell we go through its Moore neighbourhood (The entire 8 cells neighbourhood). If one of its neighbour is in the initial list we recursively call the same function.

This is the pseudocode of the 'get\_divided\_frontiers' function:

---

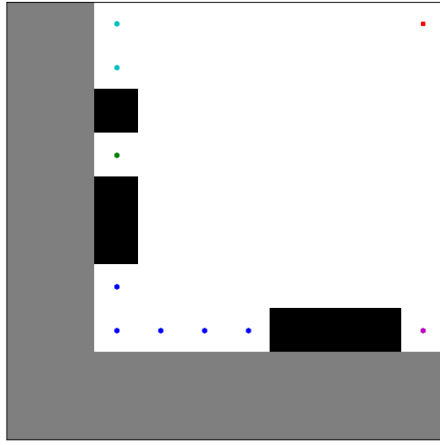
**Algorithm 1** get divided frontiers

---

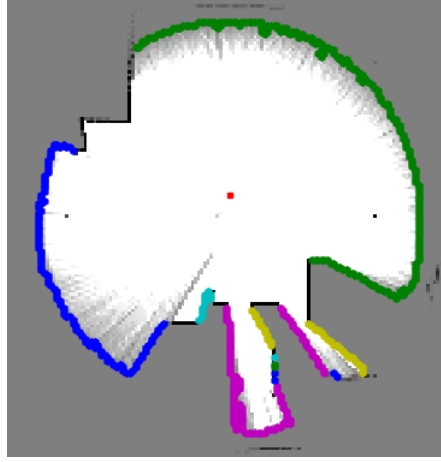
```
1: procedure GET_FRONTIERS(map)
2:   frontiers is an empty array
3:   for cell in map do
4:     if is_unknown(cell) then
5:       for neighbour in von_neumann_neighbourhood(cell) do
6:         if neighbour not in frontiers and is_empty(neighbour)
7:         then
8:           frontiers.append(neighbour)
9:         end if
10:      end for
11:    end if
12:  end for
13:  return frontiers
14: end procedure
15: procedure BUILD_FRONTIERS(frontiers, current_frontier, cell)
16:   neighbours  $\leftarrow$  moore_neighbourhood(cell)
17:   for neighbour in neighbours do
18:     if neighbour in frontiers then
19:       current_frontier.append(neighbour)
20:       frontiers.remove(neighbour)
21:       build_frontier(frontiers, current_frontier, cell)
22:     end if
23:   end for
24: end procedure
25: procedure GET_DIVIDED_FRONTIERS(map)
26:   frontiers  $\leftarrow$  get_frontiers
27:   divided_frontiers is an empty array
28:   while frontiers is not empty do
29:     current_frontier is an empty array
30:     cell  $\leftarrow$  frontiers.pop(0)
31:     current_frontier.append(cell)
32:     build_frontier(frontiers, current_frontier, cell)
33:     divided_frontiers.append(current_frontier)
34:   end while
35:   return divided_frontiers
36: end procedure
```

---

On the following figure we can see an example of the detected frontiers, the black pixels are obstacles, the white ones are empty cells, the red spot is the robot position and the other spots are the regions of frontiers. The map is 10 by 10 and there is a different color for each region. By testing this same function on a real map built by the robot in MRDS we noticed that despite being theoretically precise it is not efficient enough (it took around 5 to 10 seconds to get the frontiers). However, the function gave a very good result as we can see below:



(a) Frontiers test map



(b) Frontiers real map

### 3.1.1.2 Final approach, the Wavefront Frontier Detector algorithm

We found this algorithm in a scientific paper, happily there was a very comprehensible pseudocode in the paper that we simply followed to implement it in our project.

This is the pseudocode of the algorithm:

---

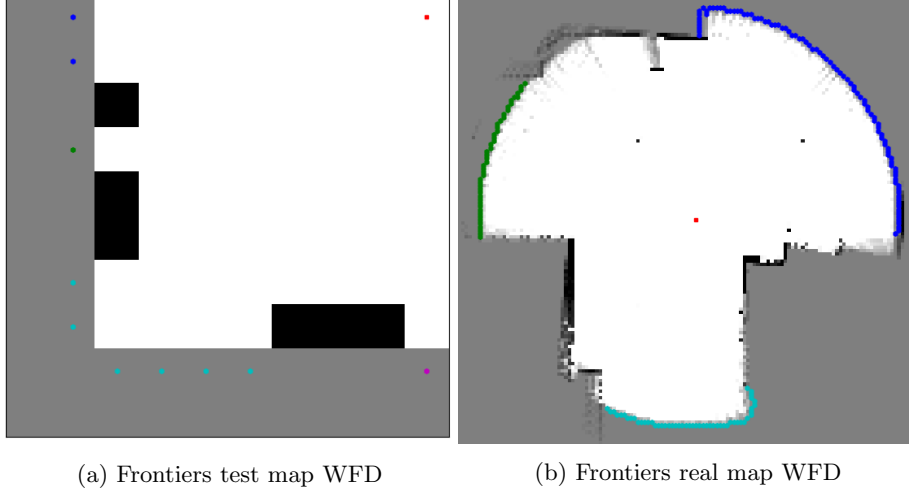
**Algorithm 2** Wavefront Frontier Detector

---

```
1:  $queue\_m \leftarrow []$ 
2:  $queue\_m.append(robot\_cell)$ 
3:  $frontiers \leftarrow []$ 
4:  $map\_open \leftarrow set([])$ 
5:  $map\_close \leftarrow set([])$ 
6:  $frontier\_open \leftarrow set([])$ 
7:  $frontier\_close \leftarrow set([])$ 
8:  $map\_open.add(robot\_cell)$ 
9: while  $queue\_m$  is not empty do
10:    $p \leftarrow queue\_m.pop(0)$ 
11:   if  $p$  in  $map\_close$  then
12:     continue
13:   end if
14:   if  $is\_frontier\_point(p)$  then
15:      $queue\_f = []$ 
16:      $frontier \leftarrow set([])$ 
17:      $queue\_f.append(p)$ 
18:      $frontier\_open.add(p)$ 
19:     while  $queue\_f$  is not empty do
20:        $q \leftarrow queue\_f.pop(0)$ 
21:       if  $q$  in  $map\_close$  and  $q$  in  $frontier\_close$  then
22:         continue
23:       end if
24:       if  $is\_frontier\_point(q)$  then
25:          $frontier.add(q)$ 
26:         for  $w$  in  $moore\_neighbourhood(q)$  do
27:           if  $w$  not in  $frontier\_open$  and  $w$  not in  $map\_close$  and
            $w$  not in  $frontier\_close$  then
28:              $queue\_f.append(w)$ 
29:              $frontier\_open.add(w)$ 
30:           end if
31:         end for
32:       end if
33:        $frontier\_close.add(q)$ 
34:     end while
35:      $frontiers.append(frontier)$ 
36:     for  $cell$  in  $frontier$  do
37:        $map\_close.add(cell)$ 
38:     end for
39:   end if
40:   for  $v$  in  $moore\_neighbourhood(p)$  do
41:     if  $v$  not in  $map\_open$  and  $v$  not in  $map\_close$  and
      $has\_open\_neighbour(v)$  then
42:        $queue\_m.append(v)$ 
43:        $map\_open.add(v)$ 
44:     end if
45:   end for
46:    $map\_close.add(p)$ 
47: end while
48: return  $frontiers$ 
```

---

Those are the frontiers detected with this new algorithm in a test and a real case, in the real case we only displayed the frontiers with more than 20 points in it.



The main difference with our naive approach is of course the efficiency of this last method, it can almost instantaneously find the frontiers in the real map.

### 3.1.2 Choosing the goal point

Now that we are able to find the frontiers we have to first choose which frontier we want to go to and then what point in this frontier we should choose. To do so we determined that we should always try to explore the closest frontier, that way the robot will not have to cross through the entire map again and again.

To determine the goal point to go to we decided to choose a point that would be around the middle of the frontier, to do so we have to find the centroid of the selected frontier.

The coordinates of the centroid of a frontier is calculated in that way, with  $x_i$  and  $y_i$  the points of the frontier:

$$x = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^n x_i}{n} \qquad y = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^n y_i}{n}$$

The process of finding the frontiers and a goal point is done every 20 seconds or every time the robot reaches the goal point, that way when the frontier moves the robot will follow it.

## 3.2 Reaching the goal

### 3.2.1 Computation of the force to apply

Now that we are able to define a goal point we still have to find a way to reach it while avoiding the obstacles.

At first we thought about building a path from the map and then implement an algorithm to avoid the obstacles while tracking the path. That solution would have worked well but we decided to use a potential field, in that way we have to compute the attractive and repulsive forces to apply to the robot to reach the goal while avoiding the obstacles.

To compute the attractive force we use this method:

1. The first step is to compute the length of the vector, we compute the distance in the grid between the robot and the goal and we apply a weight of 0.4.
2. Then we compute the angle of the vector, the formula is  $\text{atan2}(\Delta y, \Delta x)$ .
3. To finish we compute the coordinates of the vector using those formulas:  
 $x : \text{length} * \cos(\text{angle})$ ,  $y : \text{length} * \sin(\text{angle})$ .

To compute the repulsive force we use the following method:

1. We consider a circle area around the robot with a radius of 10.
2. In this circle we select the 10 closest obstacle, is considered an obstacle a cell with a value greater or equal to 0.75.
3. Then we compute the 10 corresponding vectors using the same method as for the attractive force.
4. After that we have to add the 10 of them into one vector, to do so we simply sum all the x and y together to obtain the final repulsive vector.

To obtain the general force to apply to the robot we add the x and y of both attractive and repulsive forces together.

In the following figure we can see the forces applied on the robot. The blue hexagon is the goal point, the green arrow is the attractive force, the red one is the repulsive force and the one in magenta is the general force. Only half of the points of the frontiers are displayed out to save some time, this is why they are not very clear.

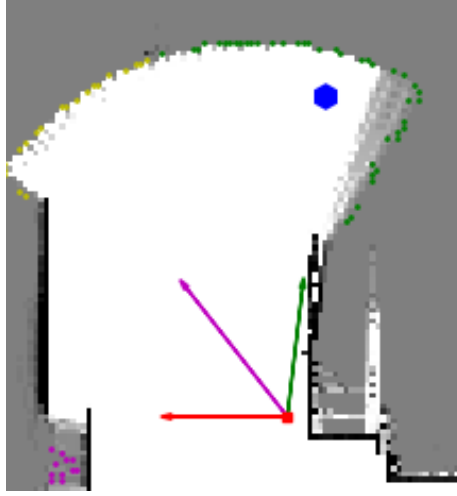


Figure 4: Forces applied to the robot

### 3.2.2 Convert the force into commands for the robot

Once the force to apply to the robot computed we have to make the robot orientates itself in the direction of the vector and adapt its speed to the situation.

To do this we created a function in Controller called *apply\_force*, this function uses part of the algorithm we previously developed for the 'follow the path' assignment of the 'Fundamentals of artificial intelligence' course.

The coordinates  $x$  and  $y$  of the force vector to apply are given in parameters of the function.

- We first compute the length of the vector using:

$$\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

- Then its angle using:

$$\text{atan2}(y, x)$$

- Then we compute  $\Theta$  in that way:

$$\sin(\text{force\_angle} - \text{robot\_angle})$$

- With  $\Theta$  we can compute the angular speed, with *max\_ang\_speed* being 3 and *weight* being 0.8, in that way:

$$\text{max\_ang\_speed} \cdot \Theta \cdot \text{weight}$$

- The angular speed computed is then confined between  $-\text{max\_ang\_speed}$  and  $\text{max\_ang\_speed}$ .



- Then we apply the following function to the angular speed to obtain an adapted linear speed:

$$\min(\max\_linear\_speed, -0.2 \cdot \min(3, \text{abs}(\text{ang\_speed})) + 1.3)$$

# Chapter 4

## Optimisation

To optimise the performances we choose to use multiprocessing.

### 4.1 Cartographer

We've put the cartographer in its own subprocess, it updates the map every 0.1 seconds. In that way the map is always efficiently updated.

The map is then 'sent' to the main program through a Queue (object of the multiprocessing python library). In that way the main program can recuperate the last version of the map at any time needed.

### 4.2 Show map

Since we usually print out many informations on our map: the frontiers, goal point and forces applied to the robot, the update of the graphical window takes some time. It came to a point where the update of the graphical window was the longest part in our program. We could not afford to lose that much time so we created a subprocess for the ShowMap.

The graphical window is updated every half a second.

### 4.3 Communication with MRDS

To communicate with MRDS we were using the Robot class as an interface, the only thing that it did was send the request. Eventually we ran into a case where more than one process tried to access to the robot position through the Robot object simultaneously. In that case we had an error message from the MRDS server and our program crashed.

To fix this situation we implemented a delay system in the Robot class. When we access to the Robot interface to request the position or the lasers if a request has already been made in the last 0.1 seconds it will return the result

of that last request. By doing that we are able to use the Robot interface with as many processes as we want.

# Conclusion

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