

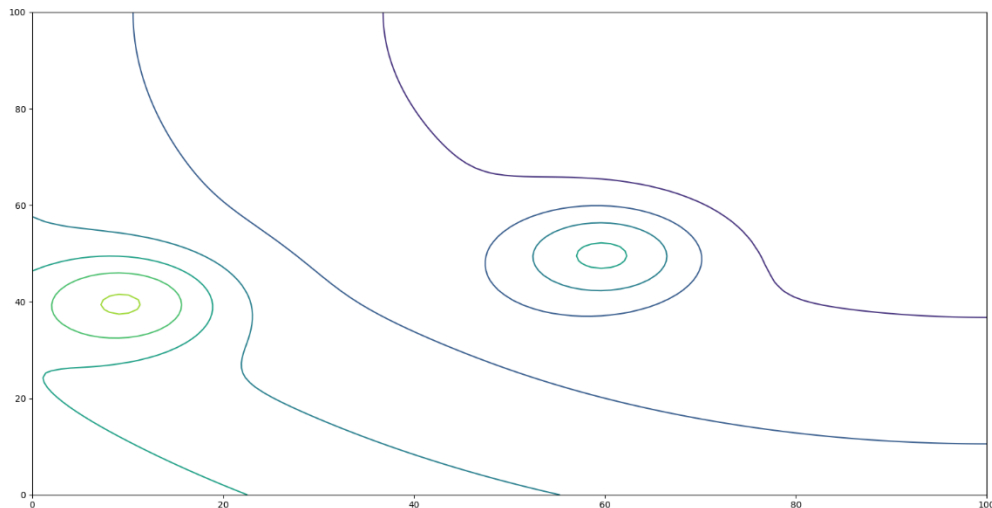
Hao Le
A15547504
ECE 172A Winter 2022 HW2

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1. Better Robot Traversal

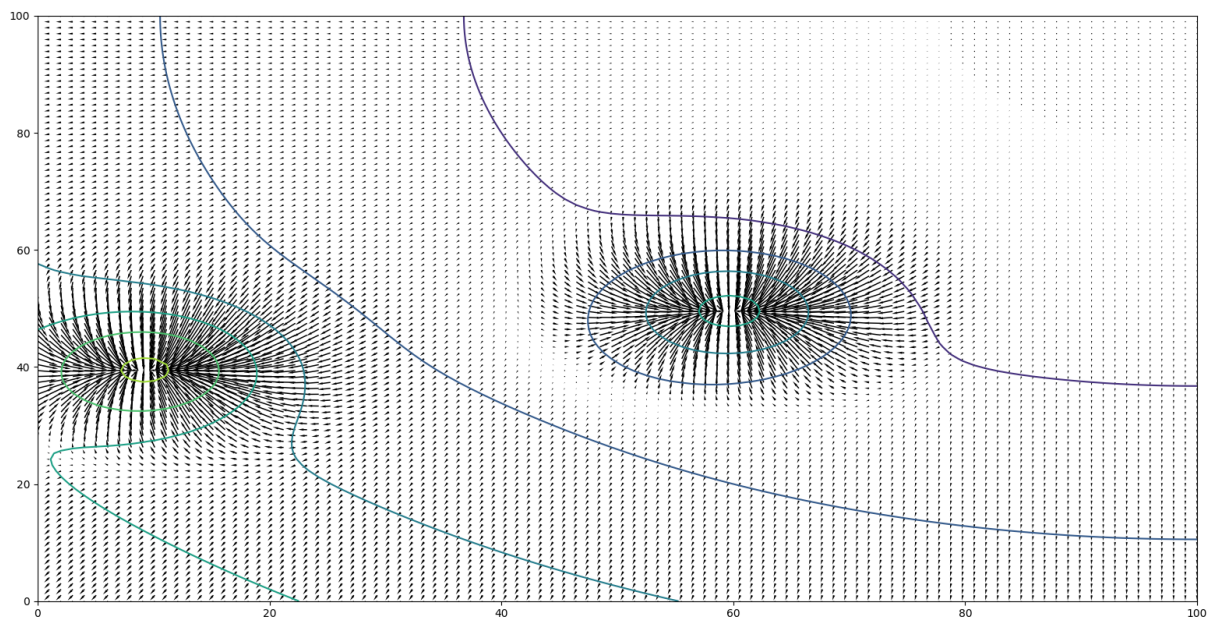
1.1

i.



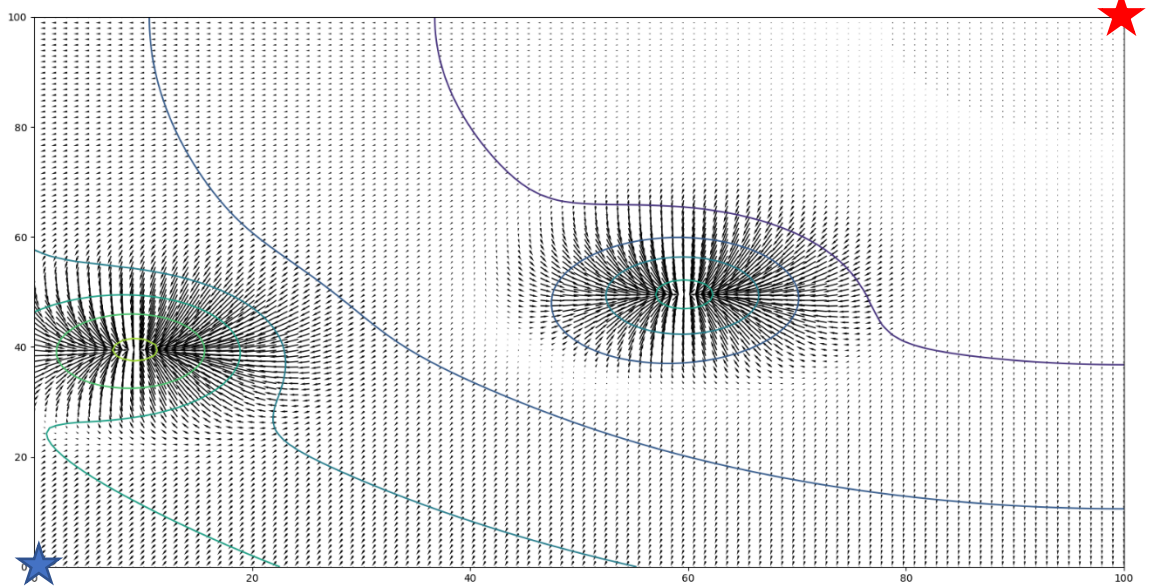
```
36  
37 fig2 = plt.figure()  
38 plt.contour(x,y,z)  
39  
40
```

ii.



```
dy, dx = np.gradient(z,1,1)
plt.quiver(x,y,dx,dy,width=0.001,headwidth=2) #comment this line out to toggle quiver arrows
```

iii.



There are two obstacles located at (60,50) and (10,40) determine by the μ variable.

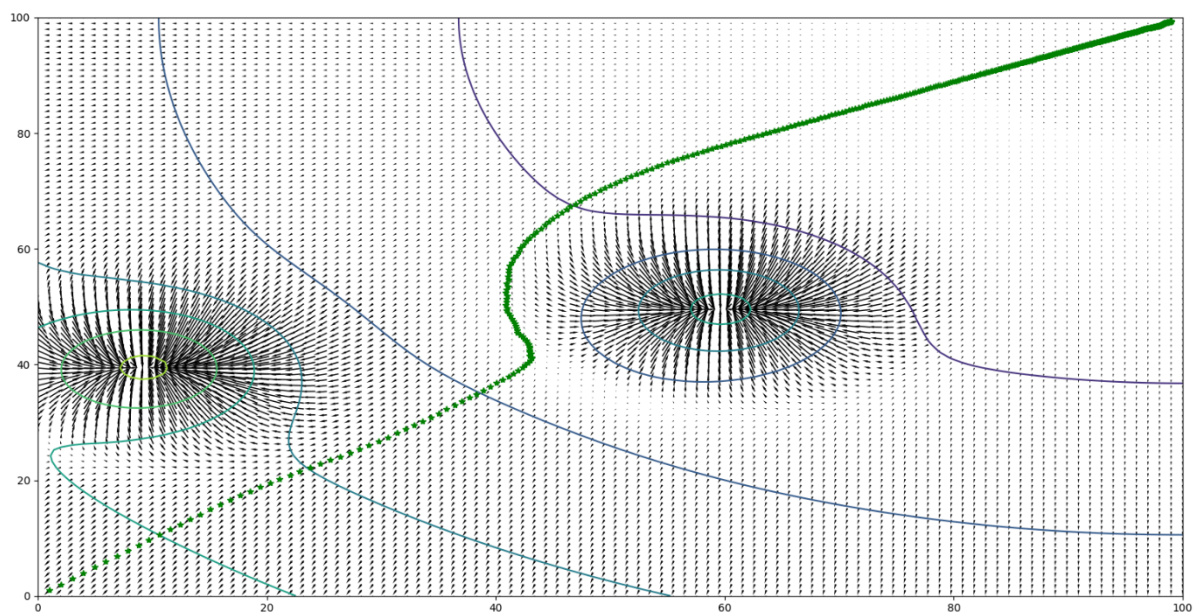
We see this on the potential field, where the quiver arrows converge and point to two single points. The potential field represent the gradient vectors at each position; gradients point towards the direction of greatest ascent. Since the obstacles are the high “peaks”, the arrows would point towards the directions to their tips, hence we see the convergence of arrows.

The gradient gets “smaller” in terms of the magnitude of the vector. In other words, there is no one particular direction that produces an ascent, so the landscape “flattens” out.

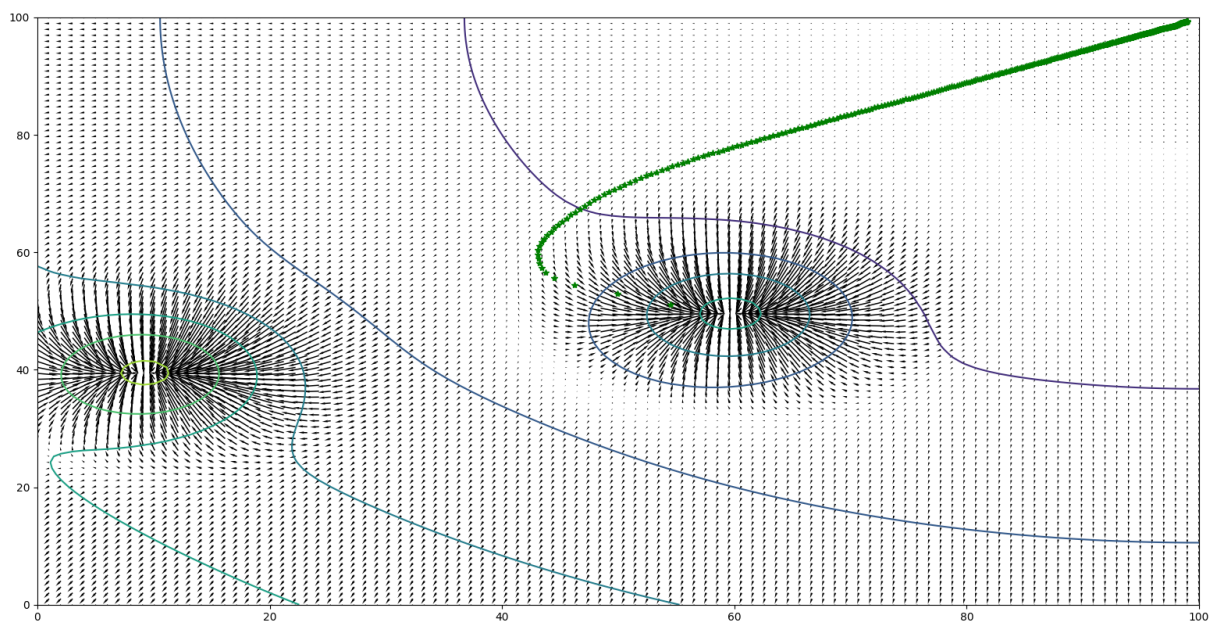
1.2

i.

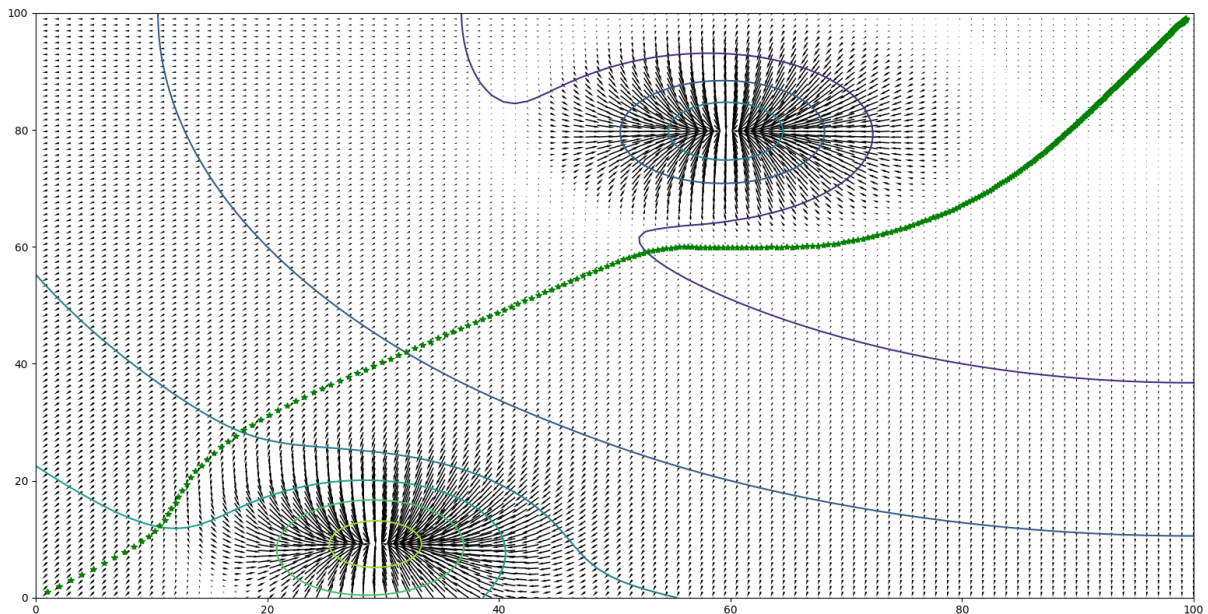
```
44  step_size = 100
45  current_loc = initial_loc.astype(float)
46  close_enough_metric = 0.0001
47
48  plan_path = True #change to True to plan path
49
50
51  if plan_path == True:
52      try:
53
54          while True:
55
56              dx_ = -dx[(int(current_loc[1])), (int(current_loc[0]))]
57              dy_ = -dy[(int(current_loc[1])), (int(current_loc[0]))]
58
59
60              current_loc[0] = current_loc[0] + step_size * dx_
61              current_loc[1] = current_loc[1] + step_size * dy_
62
63              plt.plot(current_loc[0], current_loc[1], marker="*",color="g")
64
65              if np.linalg.norm(np.array([dx_, dy_])) < close_enough_metric:
66                  break
67
68          except:
69
70              plt.show()
71
72
73  plt.show()
```



ii.



iii.



This method is better than a sense-act paradigm because it considers the position of obstacles as well as the uncertainties of their actual placement. This can be seen as Gaussian distributions of the two obstacles, where their means represent their expected positions. Unlike a reactive paradigm that must first collide with obstacles to change trajectory, this deliberative paradigm helps the robot plan its motion and potentially avoid damage caused by obstacle collision.

The gradient descent algorithm works by following the direction of greatest descent informed by the negation of the gradient vector. This will lead the robot to increment its position towards the nearest local minimum, analogous to a ball rolling into a pit.

in this case because there are no local minimums for the robot to traverse into and never ascend back out. Second, since the goal position is on the top right corner, this is also where the gradient has smallest magnitude i.e., the overall shape of the plot “funnels” into the corner, so the robot will always “roll” into that corner. Obstacles in this case are hills and need great ascent. Since the robot follows directions opposite to ascent, it will never go up these hills, or even try to go near them, much like how a ball will never go back up a hill – hence, the path will avoid these obstacles.

This system is intelligent because it uses information from its surrounds to inform and reason its path planning process, to ensure that the path is safe and not detrimental to its existence. If the state of the environment changes, it will act upon those changes via changing the planned path.

2. Swarm

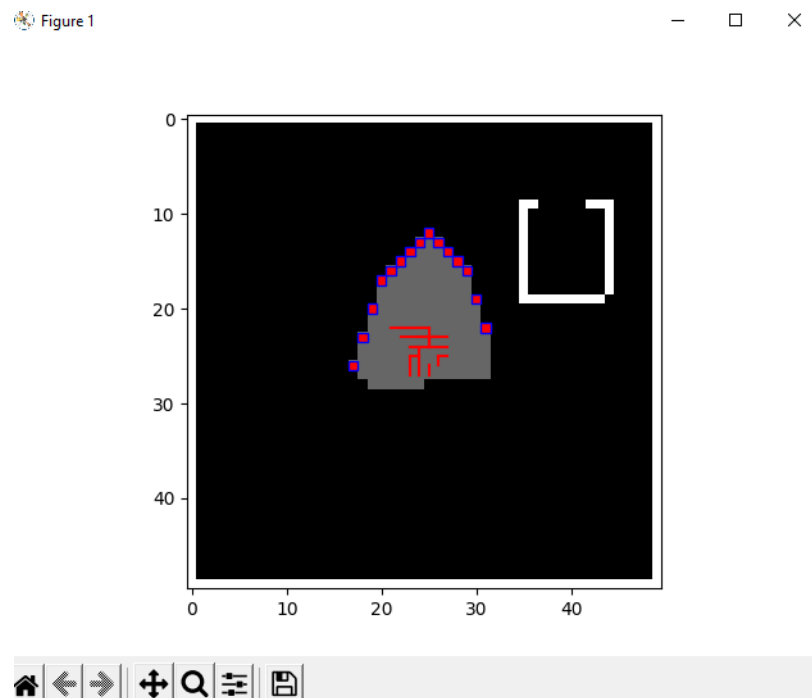
```
54 def get_unexplored_areas(explore_map, unmapped_value):
55
56     rows, cols = np.where(explore_map == 0)
57
58     if not np.any(rows): #if row is empty meaning no unexplored areas
59         return []
60
61     unexplored_areas = np.zeros((len(rows),2))
62
63     unexplored_areas[:,0] = rows
64     unexplored_areas[:,1] = cols
65
66     return unexplored_areas
67
68 def get_new_destination(current_position, unexplored_areas):
69
70     euclidianDistances = []
71
72     for i in range(len(unexplored_areas)):
73         euclidianDistance = np.sqrt((current_position[0] - unexplored_areas[i][0])**2 + (current_position[1] - unexplored_areas[i][1])**2)
74         euclidianDistances.append(euclidianDistance)
75
76     minimumIndex = np.argmin(euclidianDistances) #find the index of the smallest distance
77
78     return unexplored_areas[minimumIndex]
79
80
81 def update_explore_map(dest, route, explore_map, planned, unmapped):
82
83     for location in route:
84         if explore_map[location[0],location[1]] == unmapped:
85             explore_map[location[0],location[1]] = planned
86
87     return explore_map
88
89 def update_position(curPos, route, dest, explore_map, mapped):
90
91     curPos = route[1]
92
93     explore_map[curPos[0],curPos[1]] = mapped
94
95     if np.array_equal(dest,curPos):
96         dest = []
97
98     route = np.delete(route, 0, 0)
99
100     return curPos, route, dest, explore_map
101
```

This swarm algorithm uses the collective power of many agents to quickly map out an environment with walls. First, we instantiate an arbitrary amount of bots that have the capability to read the current state of the map: its current location, location of walls, and location of mapped and unmapped areas. Next, the algorithm for each iteration iterates through the list of instantiated robots i.e. robot 1 goes first, then robot 2 and so on.

For every iteration, every robot checks for the nearest unmapped spot on the map, provided that it does not have an existing destination already. The robot uses A* to plan an efficient route to the nearest unmapped spot. At this point, the robot will have a destination and a route. On the same iteration, it takes 1 step closer to the destination via the route, simultaneously updating the explore map to mark its previous position as mapped. The algorithm repeats this for all the other bots. Effectively, each bot takes its turn to advance one step to its current or a new unmapped destination – this ensures that each bot has a unique unmapped destination.

If there are no more unmapped areas on the map, the bot stops.

When the mapped spots + number of walls equals the area of the map, this means everything has been mapped, and the algorithm stops.



Number of bots : iterations for complete mapping

5 : 528

10: 277

15: 211

3. Robot Kinematics

3.1

```
10
11 def forwardKinematics(theta0, theta1, theta2, l0, l1, l2):
12
13     T_2E = np.array([l2, 0]) #translation to get EE frame to J2 frame
14     T_12 = np.array([l1, 0]) #translation to get J2 frame to J1 frame
15     T_01 = np.array([l0, 0]) #translation to get J1 frame to J0 frame
16
17     R_12 = createRotationMatrix(-theta2) #clockwise rotation about J2; J2 frame to J1 frame
18     R_01 = createRotationMatrix(theta1) #anticlockwise rotation about J1; J1 frame to J0 frame
19     R_G0 = createRotationMatrix(theta0) #anticlockwise rotation about J0; J0 frame to global frame
20
21     #get position of E in global frame
22
23     P_E_1 = np.matmul(R_12, T_2E) + T_12 #position in J1 frame
24     P_E_0 = np.matmul(R_01, P_E_1) + T_01 #position in J0 frame
25     P_E_G = np.matmul(R_G0, P_E_0) #position in global frame
26
27     #get position of J2 in global frame
28
29     P_J2_0 = np.matmul(R_01, T_12) + T_01 #position in J0 frame
30     P_J2_G = np.matmul(R_G0, P_J2_0) #position in global frame
31
32     #get position of J1 in global frame
33
34     P_J1_G = np.matmul(R_G0, T_01) #position in global frame
35
36     return [P_J1_G[0], P_J1_G[1], P_J2_G[0], P_J2_G[1], P_E_G[0], P_E_G[1]] #return global positions of joints and EE
37
38
39
40 def createRotationMatrix(theta): #rotation clockwise about origin, in radians
41     return np.array([[np.cos(theta), -np.sin(theta)], [np.sin(theta), np.cos(theta)]])
42
```

```
jointPositions = forwardKinematics(pi/3, pi/12, -pi/6, 3, 5, 7)
print(jointPositions)
drawRobot(jointPositions[0], jointPositions[1], jointPositions[2], jointPositions[3], jointPositions[4], jointPositions[5])

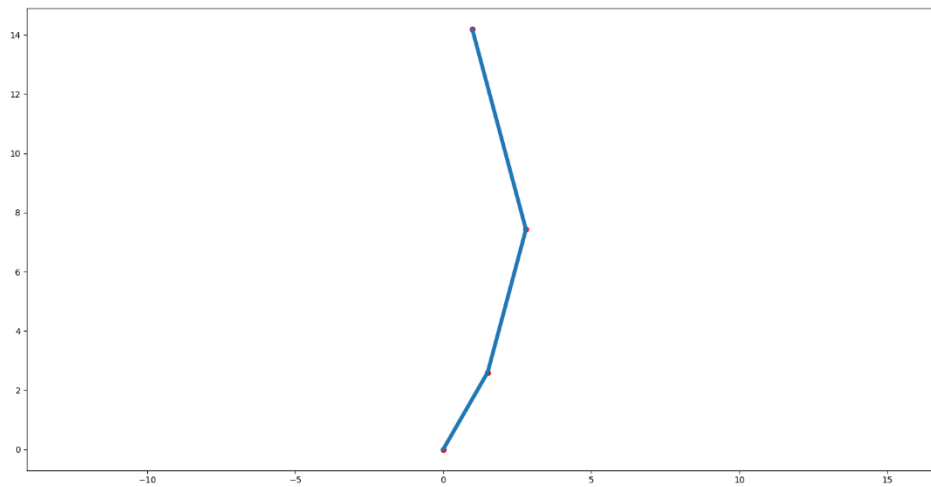
jointPositions = forwardKinematics(pi/4, pi/4, -pi/4, 3, 5, 2)
print(jointPositions)
drawRobot(jointPositions[0], jointPositions[1], jointPositions[2], jointPositions[3], jointPositions[4], jointPositions[5])
```

I used a matrix approach and found the individual transformations across each frame of reference. Then each joint position can be found by compositing the transforms of the frames that come before each joint.

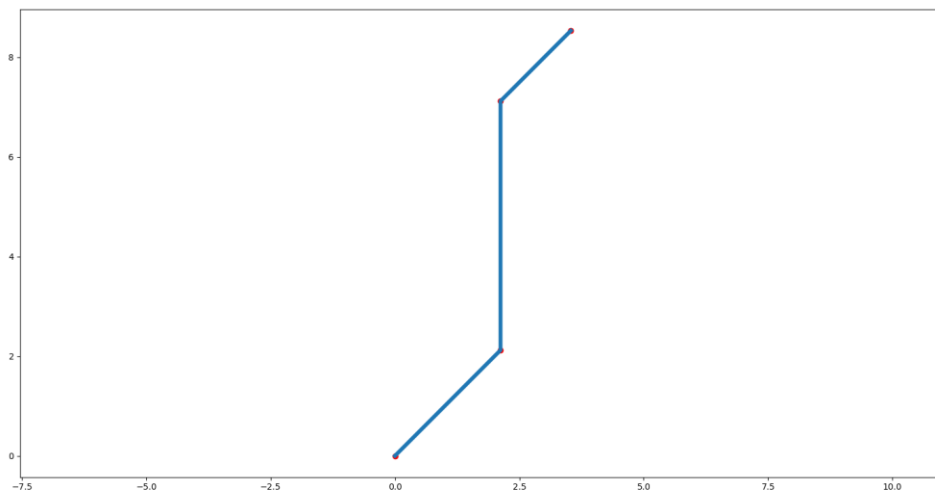
Main script is used to first calculate the 3 joint positions in the global frame, print out the positions, and visualize them. The structure of the log is as follows: [J1_x, J1_y, J2_x, J2_y, E_x, E_y]

```
jointPositions = forwardKinematics(pi/3, pi/12, -pi/6, 3, 5, 7)
print(jointPositions)
drawRobot(jointPositions[0], jointPositions[1], jointPositions[2], jointPositions[3], jointPositions[4], jointPositions[5])

jointPositions = forwardKinematics(pi/4, pi/4, -pi/4, 3, 5, 2)
print(jointPositions)
drawRobot(jointPositions[0], jointPositions[1], jointPositions[2], jointPositions[3], jointPositions[4], jointPositions[5])
```



```
[1.5000000000000004, 2.598076211353316, 2.7940952255126046, 7.4277053427986575, 0.9823619097949603, 14.189186126822136]
```



```
[2.121320343559643, 2.121320343559643, 2.1213203435596424, 7.121320343559644, 3.5355339059327373, 8.535533905932738]
```

3.2

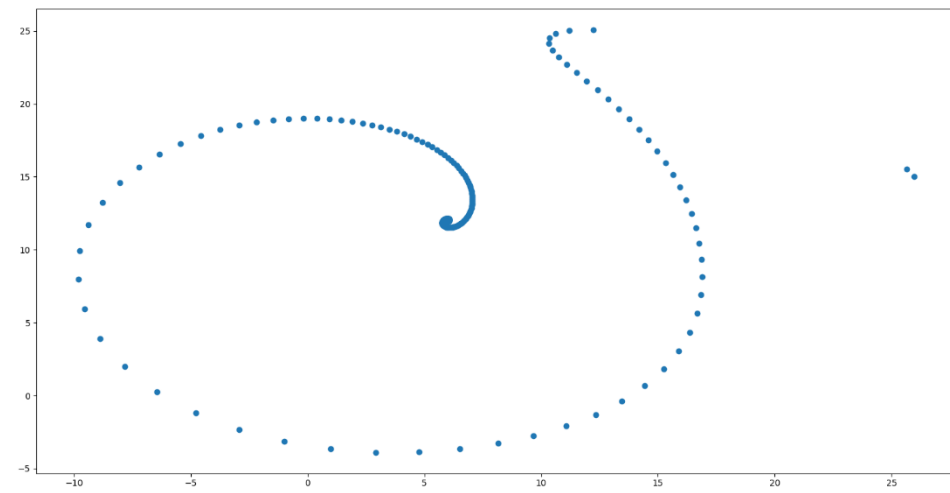
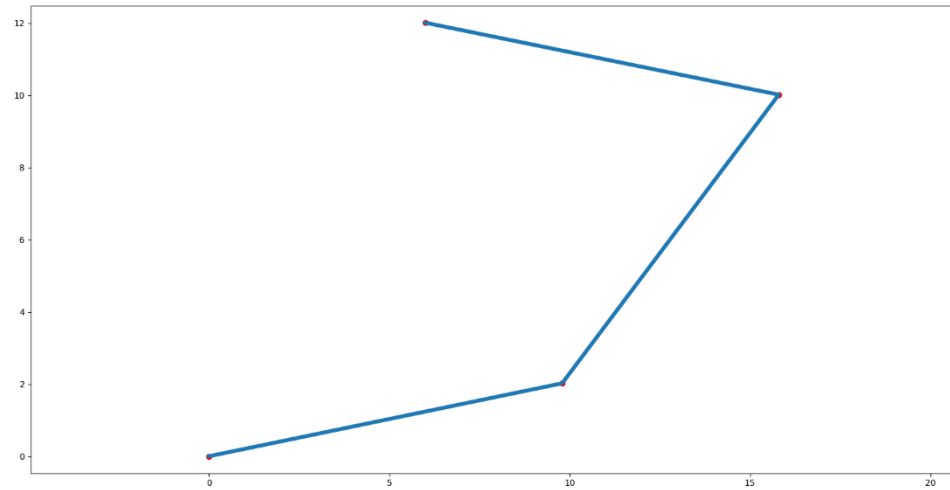
```
45 def inverseKinematics(l0,l1,l2,x_e_target,y_e_target,thetas):
46
47     jointPositions = forwardKinematics(thetas[0],thetas[1],thetas[2],l0,l1,l2)
48
49     closeEnoughDistance = 0.01
50
51     targetEEPosition = np.array([x_e_target,y_e_target])
52     currentEEPosition = np.array([jointPositions[4],jointPositions[5]])
53
54     stepSize = 0.1
55
56     e_x = []
57     e_y = [] #keep track of end effector position
58
59     while np.linalg.norm(targetEEPosition - currentEEPosition) > closeEnoughDistance: #if distance is smaller than "close enough" metric, stop
60
61         e_x.append(jointPositions[4])
62         e_y.append(jointPositions[5]) #record down starting EE pos as well as the subsequent iterations
63
64         EEPositionIncrement = (targetEEPosition - currentEEPosition) * stepSize #get delta e in the direction of target
65
66         jacobian = calculateJacobian(thetas[0],thetas[1],thetas[2],l0,l1,l2)
67         pinvJacobian = np.linalg.pinv(jacobian)
68
69         deltaJointAngles = np.matmul(pinvJacobian,EEPositionIncrement) #get delta thetas to move EE in that direction
70
71         thetas = thetas + deltaJointAngles #change thetas
72
73         jointPositions = forwardKinematics(thetas[0],thetas[1],thetas[2],l0,l1,l2)
74         currentEEPosition = np.array([jointPositions[4],jointPositions[5]]) #calculate new position of EE
75
76
77     jointPositions = forwardKinematics(thetas[0],thetas[1],thetas[2],l0,l1,l2) #get the final state of the robot with the calculated thetas
78
79     drawRobot(jointPositions[0], jointPositions[1], jointPositions[2], jointPositions[3], jointPositions[4], jointPositions[5])
80     plt.scatter(e_x, e_y)
81     plt.show()
82
83     return thetas
```

```
85 def calculateJacobian(theta0, theta1, theta2, l0, l1, l2): #analytically calculated by algebraically getting EE position in terms of thetas and l's. Then doing partial derivatives.
86
87     dx_theta0 = - l0 * np.sin(theta0) - l1 * np.sin(theta0 + theta1) - l2 * np.sin(theta0 + theta1 + theta2)
88     dx_theta1 = - l1 * np.sin(theta0 + theta1) - l2 * np.sin(theta0 + theta1 + theta2)
89     dx_theta2 = - l2 * np.sin(theta0 + theta1 + theta2)
90
91     dy_theta0 = l0 * np.cos(theta0) + l1 * np.cos(theta0 + theta1) + l2 * np.cos(theta0 + theta1 + theta2)
92     dy_theta1 = l1 * np.cos(theta0 + theta1) + l2 * np.cos(theta0 + theta1 + theta2)
93     dy_theta2 = l2 * np.cos(theta0 + theta1 + theta2)
94
95     jacobian = np.array([[dx_theta0,dx_theta1,dx_theta2],[dy_theta0,dy_theta1,dy_theta2]])
96
97     return jacobian
```

The main script for actual calculation and plotting:

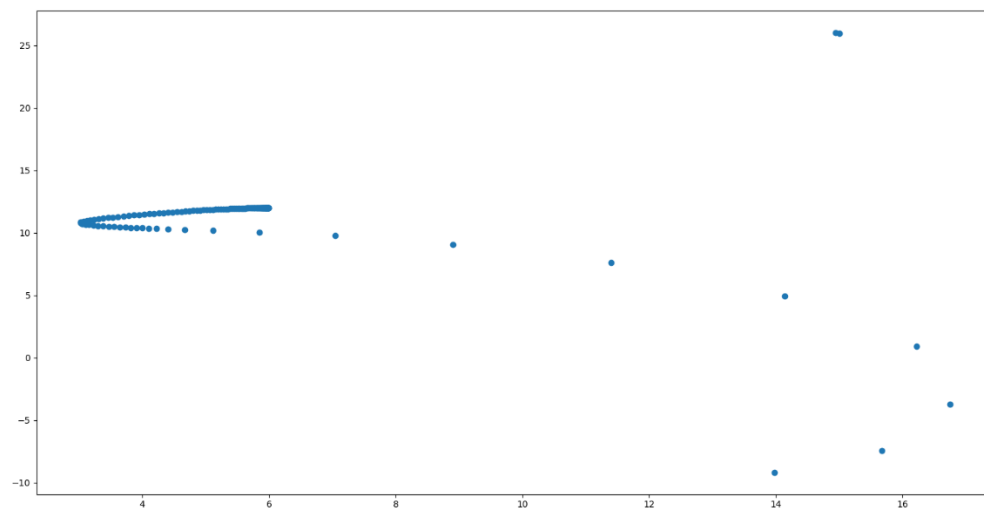
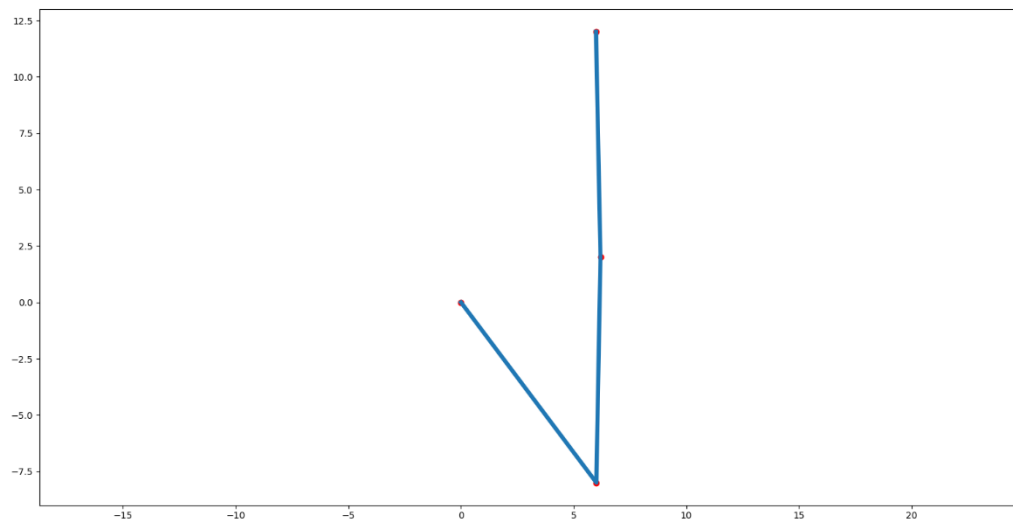
```
print(inverseKinematics(10,10,10,6,12,np.array([pi/6,0,0])))
print(inverseKinematics(10,10,10,6,12,np.array([pi/3,0,0])))
```

1st test case:



```
[-12.36287873  7.00635613 10.55206603]
```

2nd test case:



```
[-95.17433571  96.72690667  94.20974224]
```

Angles are logged in radians: [theta0,theta1,theta2]

4. Maze Pathfinding

1. Depth First Search

```
class Stack:
    def __init__(self):
        self.items = []
    def push(self, item):
        self.items.append(item) #add item to the end of list
    def pop(self):
        self.items.pop() #remove the last item in the list

class Queue:
    def __init__(self):
        self.items = []
    def enqueue(self, item):
        self.items.insert(0,item) #add item to the start of list
    def dequeue(self):
        self.items.pop() #remove the last item in the list
```

Stack and queue classes defined. Stack is used in DFS. Queue will be used for BFS later.

Stack is like a FIFO pile, where we can add things on top of the pile, and take them off.

```

30 def DFS(maze, startNode, goalNode):
31
32     stack = Stack()
33
34     exploredNodes = []
35
36     stack.push(startNode)
37     currentNode = None
38     iterations = 0
39
40     while len(stack.items) != 0 and currentNode != goalNode:
41
42         currentNode = stack.items[-1]
43
44         if not currentNode in exploredNodes:
45             exploredNodes.append(currentNode)
46
47             if maze[currentNode][0] == True and not (currentNode[0],currentNode[1]+1) in exploredNodes: #north
48                 newNode = (currentNode[0],currentNode[1]+1)
49                 stack.push(newNode)
50             elif maze[currentNode][1] == True and not (currentNode[0]+1,currentNode[1]) in exploredNodes: #east
51                 newNode = (currentNode[0]+1,currentNode[1])
52                 stack.push(newNode)
53             elif maze[currentNode][2] == True and not (currentNode[0],currentNode[1]-1) in exploredNodes: #south
54                 newNode = (currentNode[0],currentNode[1]-1)
55                 stack.push(newNode)
56             elif maze[currentNode][3] == True and not (currentNode[0]-1,currentNode[1]) in exploredNodes: #west
57                 newNode = (currentNode[0]-1,currentNode[1])
58                 stack.push(newNode)
59             else:
60                 stack.pop()
61
62         iterations = iterations + 1
63
64     if len(stack.items) == 0:
65         print("no path found")
66         return 1
67     else:
68         print("path found")
69         print("\n")
70         print(iterations)
71         print("iterations")
72         return stack.items, exploredNodes
73

```

DFS uses a stack to keep track of the latest parent node; since things that come in also come out first, it will traverse deeper and deeper down the child nodes until a dead end is reached. Then, removing the previous nodes off the stack, it will keep on doing so until it has reached a node with another possible path, repeating the process. This produces a greedy behavior. When it has reached the goal node, the items currently in the stack represent the actual shortest path, since there are no “branches”. The algorithm always takes one path, not leaving another for “later.”

2. Breadth First Search

```
76 def BFS(maze, startNode, goalNode):
77
78     queue = Queue()
79
80     exploredNodes = []
81
82     queue.enqueue(startNode)
83     currentNode = None
84     iterations = 0
85
86     adjacentNodes = {}
87
88     while len(queue.items) != 0 and currentNode != goalNode:
89
90         currentNode = queue.items[-1]
91
92         if not currentNode in exploredNodes:
93             exploredNodes.append(currentNode)
94
95             if maze[currentNode][0] == True and not (currentNode[0],currentNode[1]+1) in exploredNodes: #north
96                 newNode = (currentNode[0],currentNode[1]+1)
97                 queue.enqueue(newNode)
98                 adjacentNodes[newNode] = currentNode
99             if maze[currentNode][1] == True and not (currentNode[0]+1,currentNode[1]) in exploredNodes: #east
100                 newNode = (currentNode[0]+1,currentNode[1])
101                 queue.enqueue(newNode)
102                 adjacentNodes[newNode] = currentNode
103             if maze[currentNode][2] == True and not (currentNode[0],currentNode[1]-1) in exploredNodes: #south
104                 newNode = (currentNode[0],currentNode[1]-1)
105                 queue.enqueue(newNode)
106                 adjacentNodes[newNode] = currentNode
107             if maze[currentNode][3] == True and not (currentNode[0]-1,currentNode[1]) in exploredNodes: #west
108                 newNode = (currentNode[0]-1,currentNode[1])
109                 queue.enqueue(newNode)
110                 adjacentNodes[newNode] = currentNode
111
112         queue.dequeue()
113
114         iterations = iterations + 1
115
116     if len(queue.items) == 0:
117         print("no path found")
118         return 1
119
120     else:
121         foundPath = []
122         currentNode = goalNode
123
124         while currentNode != startNode:
125             currentNode = adjacentNodes[currentNode]
126             print(currentNode)
127             foundPath.append(currentNode)
128
129         print("path found")
130         print("\n")
131         print(iterations)
132         print("iterations")
133         return foundPath, exploredNodes
134
135
```

The BFS algorithm utilizes a first in last out queue instead of a stack which DFS uses. This allows a broader searching behavior since it will first explore all its options on the frontier node. In other words, upon encountering a new unvisited node, it will add to the queue all the possible next node options, with priority starting in the north direction, and ending in the west. However, these new options will eventually be explored, but this depends on how long the queue is; first in line can be an option for

another frontier node. Once a branch has reached a dead end, BFS does not backtrack to previous nodes, but instead continues regularly on the next node in line, adding its options to the back of the queue, and so on. Eventually, when the next node in line is the goal, the shortest path will have to be traced – unlike DFS, it is not simply the queue items.

We can trace back a path by keeping a dictionary of adjacent nodes. On every iteration, when a new unexplored node is found, we add it as a key, and the corresponding value is the current node. Thus, it is possible that a single node can have at most 4 adjacent nodes i.e. at most 4 keys in the dictionary can have the same value. We do this until the goal has reached.

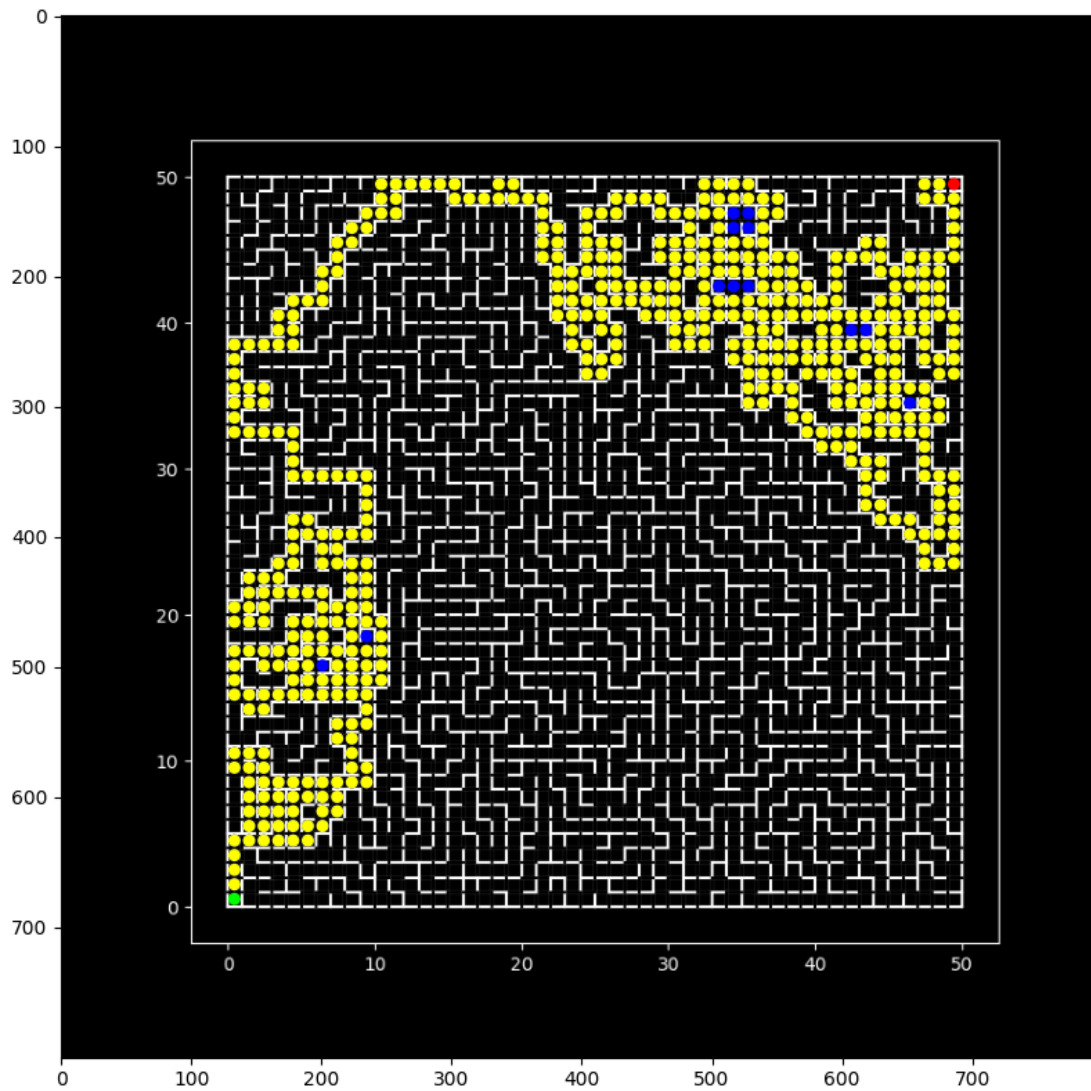
To start the trace back process, start by getting the value of the key as the node. This should point to the next node. Then use that next node as the current node and add this current node to the shortest path list and look up the value of the key as the current node. Repeat this until the value is the starting node. The shortest path list should now be valid.

The main script to calculate the shortest paths and plot them:

```
168
169 maze = pickle.load(open("172maze2021.p", "rb"))
170
171 start = (0,0)
172 goal = (49,49)
173
174 pathNodes, exploredNodes = DFS(maze, start, goal)
175 draw_path(pathNodes, exploredNodes)
176
177 pathNodes, exploredNodes = BFS(maze, start, goal)
178 draw_path(pathNodes, exploredNodes)
```

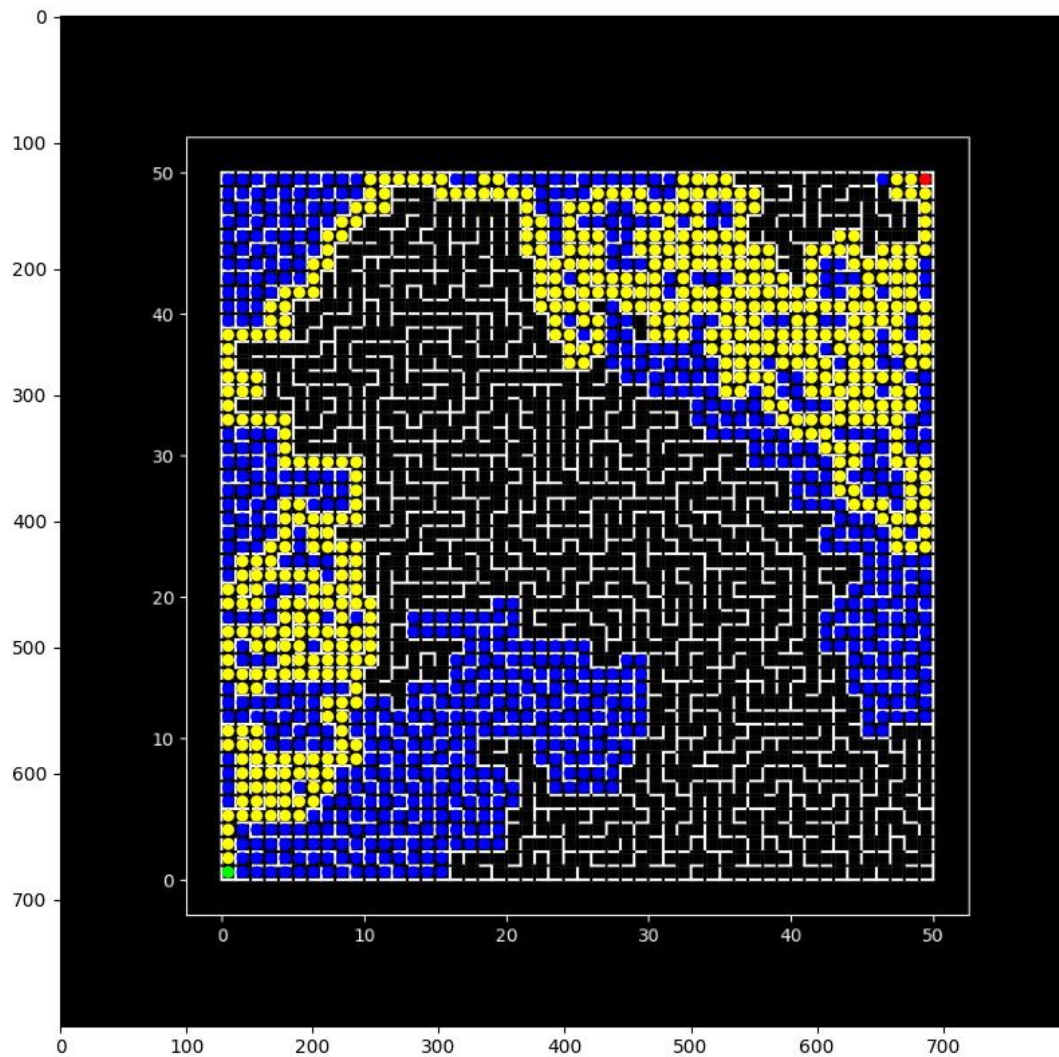
Yellow represents the shortest path, and blue represents explored areas. Iteration count is logged.

DFS:



537
iterations

BFS:



1263
iterations

DFS clearly does better than BFS on the maze because the former found the shortest path in fewer iterations; BFS spent more iterations exploring areas, as shown by the prominence of blue areas.