

Automation of Intelligence Preparation of the Battlefield

- Final Report -



**Hishan Adikari
Sathyanga Agalakumbura
Jayamal Jayamaha**

Department of Computer Engineering
University of Peradeniya

Final Year Project (courses CO421 & CO425) report submitted as a
requirement of the degree of
B.Sc.Eng. in Computer Engineering

July 2020

Supervisors: Dr. Isuru Nawinne (Department of Computer Engineering, University of Peradeniya), Dr. Janaka Alawatugoda (Department of Computer Engineering, University of Peradeniya)

We would like to dedicate this thesis to who have done research on domain Intelligence
Preparation of Battlefield and the the supervisors of our project

Declaration

We hereby declare that except where specific reference is made to the work of others, the contents of this dissertation are original and have not been submitted in whole or in part for consideration for any other degree or qualification in this, or any other university. This dissertation is our own work and contains nothing which is the outcome of work done in collaboration with others, except as specified in the text and Acknowledgments.

Hishan Adikari
Sathyanga Agalakumbura
Jayamal Jayamaha
July 2020

Acknowledgements

And we would like to acknowledge Dr. Isuru Nawinne and Dr. Janaka Alawatugoda for their assistance and guidance with this research. I would like to thank Mr Sampath Deegalla and Dr Damayanthi Herath for coordinating the Final Year Project.

Abstract

In military operations, armed forces have to get a better idea of the area in which they have to operate including terrain features, threats, and avenues of approach. So they gather intelligence on the location, enemy, weather, vegetation, infrastructure, and many such factors before making decisions. This process is called 'Intelligence Preparation of the Battlefield' (IPB) where analyzing the situation and making decisions based on predictions is the main target. Usually, this process happens manually by officers using hard copy maps and it has several inconveniences described in detail in this report.

In our research we developed a tool for generating terrain features on a given map, saving those maps in a database, adding more features as overlays, and adding properties for them. Also, we implemented a set of algorithms and approaches for automating a set of IPB processes and we compared the approaches to each other as well as compared results with outputs from subject matter experts and current systems. In this report, we present our methodology, design, approaches, algorithms, comparisons, and results in automating the intelligence preparation of the battlefield.

Table of contents

List of figures	viii
List of tables	x
Nomenclature	xi
1 Introduction	1
1.1 Background	1
1.2 The problem	2
1.3 The proposed solution	2
2 Related work	3
2.1 IPB in other countries	3
2.2 Use of Geographical Information System (GIS)	3
2.3 Terrain Analysis	4
2.4 IPB Algorithms	4
3 Design and Implementation	6
3.1 Work Breakdown	6
3.2 Implementation	6
3.2.1 Web-based platform to display overlays on a map.	6
3.2.2 Infrastructure to efficiently store data for overlays.	7
3.2.3 Integrating the data storing mechanism with graphical user interface.	8
3.2.4 A grid based combined obstacle overlay by collecting the vector overlays to a grid.	11
3.2.5 Generating the potential mobility corridors in the terrain.	17
3.2.6 Risk evaluation of corridors to select safest avenues of approach .	30

4 Results and Analysis	38
4.1 Comparison of approaches	38
4.1.1 Generalized Voronoi Diagram Method	39
4.1.2 k-shortest paths algorithm	40
4.1.3 Dijkstra's based path removing algorithm	41
4.2 Comparison Results	42
4.3 Comparison with available systems	43
4.3.1 Google map directions	43
4.3.2 Comparison with result from a related works	44
5 Conclusions and Future Works	46
References	48

List of figures

3.1	Creating the battlefield	9
3.2	Generated overlays added on the map	9
3.3	Adding data to an geographic feature	10
3.4	Save the data insertion	10
3.5	System Architectural Diagram	11
3.6	DEM raster image of University of Peradeniya Area, Sri Lanka	12
3.7	DEM raster image of University of Peradeniya Area after re-sampling to 10 times smaller cells	13
3.8	Slope raster image of University of Peradeniya	14
3.9	Building grid, water grid, vegetation grid and road grid	15
3.10	An example voronoi diagram	18
3.11	Generalized Voronoi Diagram for University of Peradeniya	20
3.12	set of paths selected using GVD	20
3.13	10 least cost paths	22
3.14	Path crossing occasions	23
3.15	Issue of having close and parallel paths (Left) and parts that need that issue to be corrected marked (Right)	24
3.16	Rasterized image of paths grid	24
3.17	Paths after correction	27
3.18	Path limitation due to choke points	28
3.19	Computer generated paths after removing choke point effect	31
3.20	Threat variation from an enemy building	32
3.21	Flow of the code	32
3.22	When all buildings are single floor(LEFT), when top enemy building was made two story (MIDDLE) , when a close building of it also made two story (RIGHT)	35
3.23	Variation of threat with elevation	36

3.24 Variation of threat with vegetation	36
3.25 Mobility corridors in Faculty of Engineering map	37
4.1 Sample battlefields for time comparison	38
4.2 Plot of time taken for voronoi diagram vs number of cells	39
4.3 Plot of time taken for k-shortest paths algorithm vs number of cells	40
4.4 Plot of time taken for Dijkstra's based path removing algorithm vs number of cells	41
4.5 Variation of time taken for three approaches	42
4.6 Comparison with Google direction, Our System generated paths (LEFT) Google Directions for vehicles(MIDDLE) and Google directions for walking(RIGHT)	43
4.7 Avenues of approaches by researcher's algorithms (LEFT) and subject matter expert(RIGHT), (C. Grindle, M. Lewis, R. Clinton, J. Giampapa, and K. Owens 2004, Fig. 5 and 6, p. 4)	44
4.8 Avenues of approaches by our IPB tool	45

List of tables

4.1	Time taken for Generalized Voronoi Diagram Method	39
4.2	Time taken for k-shortest paths algorithm Method	40
4.3	Time taken for Dijkstra's based path removing algorithm Method	41
4.4	Qualitative comparison between approaches	43

Nomenclature

Acronyms / Abbreviations

COAs	Courses of Action
COO	Combined Obstacle Overlay
DEM	Digital elevation model
GIS	Geographic Information System
GVD	Generalized Voronoi Diagram
IPB	Intelligence Preparation of the Battlefield
JS	Java Script
JSON	Java Script Object Notation
NASA	National Aeronautics and Space Administration
OSM	Open Street Map
REST	Representational State Transfer
SME	Subject Matter experts
SRTM	Shuttle Radar Topography Mission

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Background

IPB is a process that starts in advance of operations and continues during operations planning and execution. It provides guidelines for the gathering, analysis, and organization of intelligence. The purpose of this intelligence is to inform a commander's decision process during the preparation for, and execution of a mission. Therefore IPB is a Command and staff tool which allows systematic and continuous analysis of the enemy and the battlefield environment. It presents the results of the process in a graphical format. It is an integrated method of analysing Enemy, Ground and Friendly Forces factors in the Estimate. Basically there are four steps in IPB process. They are,

1. Define the battlefield environment
2. Describe the battlefield's effects
3. Evaluate the threat
4. Determine threat COAs

The resulting product of IPB is identification of various areas of the battlefield that affect Courses of Action (COAs). The four distinctive courses of action are,

1. engagement areas
2. battle positions
3. infiltration lanes
4. avenue of approach

Any force that has the control of the key terrain has the military advantage. Key terrain areas cannot be defined by geographical features alone. The evaluation of terrain features must be fused with information about weather, enemy asset types, friendly and enemy range of fire, enemy doctrine and type of operation.

1.2 The problem

The problem with current process is that IPB is done manually by intelligence officers using hard copy maps on which they annotate various significant areas, such as key terrain or defensible terrain. This manual process suffers from a number of inefficiencies as described below.

1. No variable zooming in and out to obtain desired level of detail
2. Annotating the maps is time consuming.
3. Notations on maps get cluttered with the risk of being misread.
4. Information could be disregarded or not used effectively in the process of the IPB

1.3 The proposed solution

To address these problems the best solution is an automated system which can present geographical, climate and infrastructure data on top of a base map, analyze data, present graphical representations and make users interact with the map using a flexible user interface.

A detailed database with low level terrain information like buildings, vegetation, elevation slopes and topology and computational algorithms to transform these low level terrain information to higher level information such as maneuverability of a force, threats for maneuverability from enemies are some components that should be included in the automated system.

Since the IPB process is an iterative process that done throughout an operation, the computational algorithms must be efficient and should work with real time data. A user friendly user interface must be there to add information they have and get and see stored information on the map.

So decision support tools that automate part of the process are highly needed. In this paper, we present a set of algorithms, tools and approaches for automating Intelligence Preparation of the Battlefield process for each step in the IPB process.

Chapter 2

Related work

2.1 IPB in other countries

Many countries have developed an automated IPB systems for their armies. As an example, army of the Czech Republic has an automated IPB system as a part of knowledge development in their conditions [1]. New Zealand has automated IPB system for contemporary operating environment.

Researchers in [2] and [3] have used the Compact Terrain Database (CTDB) format used by the OneSAF Testbed Baseline simulation software as the terrain representation and used grid of elevation values as well as an associated soil type for each grid cell to continue the development of automation algorithm for IPB process.

Researchers in [4] have shown that a GIS can be used to produce representations for qualitative spatial reasoning and the geometric processing facilities of the GIS provide the capabilities in a metric diagram. They have founded that qualitative spatial reasoning can evaluate trafficability of terrain.

2.2 Use of Geographical Information System (GIS)

Research [5] has also proposed a GIS model to conduct the IPB process using ArcGIS software.

According to the [6], it describes the usage of GIS for geo-reconnaissance in army. And also GIS can give specific information about buildings, devices and objects on the battlefield using their geo location and field data. And also, it provides proper security mechanisms by using planning strategies, more further management strategies. And

getting information from the intelligence services for attacking and planning routes of movement is done basically with the information gained by GIS.

2.3 Terrain Analysis

Terrain analysis is a requisite part of an IPB process in a military operation. From this analysis, it is able to build extensive databases for each and every potential area of operations. This is the foundation for the intelligence, tactical operations and decision making. Terrain features can continuously change according to the earth's surface and therefore terrain databases must also be continuously updated and revised. Authors in [7] clearly say that terrain analysis is a must in decision making process. And according to this, manual terrain analysis procedures use basic doctrine as a primary source of current available information for planning, conducting and supervising the terrain analysis procedure.

Authors in [8] have explored how to fuse intelligence data with terrain data and use for IPB. According to [8] any force that has the control of the key terrain has the military advantage. Key terrain examples include road intersections, a bridge over a river or terrain. Key terrain areas cannot be defined by geographical features alone. The evaluation of terrain features must be fused with information about weather, enemy asset types, friendly and enemy range of fire, enemy doctrine and type of operation. It describes how the IPB process happens in battlefield using examples.

[9] discuss about the influence of slope in terrain on walking activity. They have analysed terrain features like slope on the human maneuver.

2.4 IPB Algorithms

Authors in [3] have created a combined obstacle overlay using terrain data and have used generalized voronoi diagrams to generate avenues of approaches and analyzed the circuit diagram using electrical circuit model to explain mobility in paths. But the example battlefield they have used is very small and hence the voronoi circuit is simple.

[4] discuss how to generate trafficability using qualitative analysis of terrain. So here in our research we used qualitative as well as quantitative analysis to get the trafficability.

Authors in [10] have developed algorithms to find shortest route to attack and retreat as well as to find the range of influence of the enemy and friendly units. In our research

we developed the range of influence algorithm more combining the terrain features as well.

In [11], they use ant colony optimization (ANTS) to determine possible avenues of approach for the enemy, given a situation picture. ANTS is about finding good paths through graphs. Artificial Ants stand for multi-agent methods inspired by the behavior of real ants.

Also a final year research group from Faculty of Engineering, University of Peradeniya has done research about using GIS to get and draw intelligence data on terrain maps and use A* algorithm to find a shortest path between two locations excluding drawn obstacles.

Chapter 3

Design and Implementation

3.1 Work Breakdown

The research was basically splitted in to two major sections such that each section contain three milestones. The two sections was,

1. Visual Support for Automating the Intelligence Preparation for Battlefield (IPB) Process
2. Implement Automation of Intelligence Preparation for Battlefield

So the six milestones for the project was as follows,

1. Web-based platform to display overlays on a map.
2. Infrastructure to efficiently store data for overlays.
3. Integrating the data storing mechanism with graphical user interface.
4. A grid based combined obstacle overlay by collecting the vector overlays to a grid.
5. Generating the potential mobility corridors in the terrain.
6. Risk evaluation of corridors to select safest avenues of approach.

3.2 Implementation

3.2.1 Web-based platform to display overlays on a map.

As the IPB need a visual tool that allows military staff to add battlefield data in to the system and also visualize them as overlays, we needed to firstly develop a web based

platform to add overlays and visualize them. So we firstly researched about a framework that we can use to do the map based functions. Simply from front-end side the application should work like a GIS software. Following technologies were chosen by us to be used from the web platform.

Leafletjs – Leaflet is the leading open-source JavaScript library for mobile-friendly interactive maps.

Open street Maps – OpenStreetMap is a free editable map of the whole world that is being built by volunteers largely from scratch and released with an open-content license.

3.2.2 Infrastructure to efficiently store data for overlays.

We needed to find a data storing mechanism and also a data format to store the overlay data. As the data in overlay are spatial data with attributes, We researched about the available methods to store such data.

So the available options to store those data were using a vector format or a raster format. So as our web application was JavaScript based, we choose GeoJSON which is a format for encoding a variety of geographic data structures.

To store and provide the required overlay information relevant to battlefields, there should be a back-end application. As our future algorithms and models are based on python, we used Python Flask as the web framework for our back-end and the we decided to use REST architecture to build the back-end web service.

Following were the attributes we defined for our overlays

1. Building

- (a) No of occupants
- (b) Status
- (c) Material
- (d) Building Type
- (e) No of stories

2. Vegetation

- (a) Vegetation Type (grassland, shrubland, woodland, medium density forest, high density forest, unknown)

3. Water

- (a) Water body type (water, river, reservoir, dock, wetland, unknown)
 - (b) Mark known points of shallow or deep
4. Roads
 - (a) Road type (tertiary, track, unclassified, secondary, trunk, primary, motorway link, trunk link, primary link, road, secondary link, tertiary link, motorway)
 5. Elevation
 - (a) Elevation value

3.2.3 Integrating the data storing mechanism with graphical user interface.

Finally we had to integrate the back-end we developed using the data storing mechanism and data retrieving mechanisms with the front-end developed with map overlays

So in our first section of the project, we implemented the web application tool to perform following major tasks.

- Create and save multiple battlefields(maps).
- Automatically generate the buildings, water, roads, elevation, vegetation overlays when a new battlefield is created.
- View a battlefield on user interface graphically with a map (Satellite or Topographical)
- View the overlays generated for the battlefield graphically on the map separately.
- Add new buildings, water bodies, vegetation areas, roads on the battlefield using a drawing tool
- Add values for the defined attributes of the newly drawn shape.
- Edit values of attributes of automatically generated geographical features.
- Remove geographical features of overlays.
- Save changes to be able to access later.
- All the information are stored in the back-end.

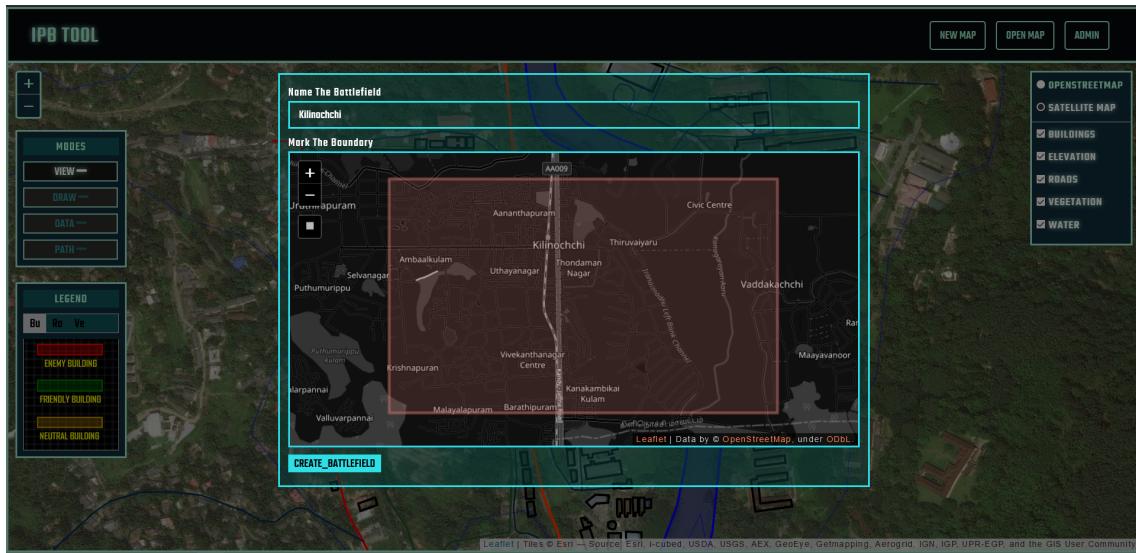


Fig. 3.1 Creating the battlefield

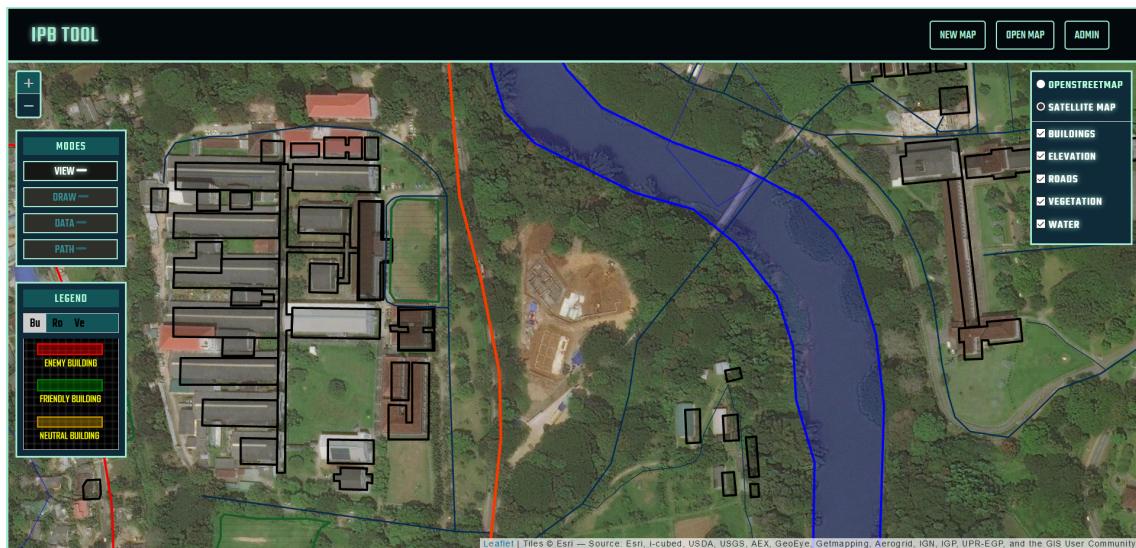


Fig. 3.2 Generated overlays added on the map

[Figure 3.1](#) shows the how to select the battlefield using a map interface in the tool.

The architecture implemented for the system was basically a 3-Tier Architecture. Presentation layer being our web tool using LeafletJS, Application layer being the python web application using Flask and use REST web services to communicate with Presentation layer. Data layer is the file system which stores GeoJSON files in a hierarchical structure. [Figure 3.5](#) is the system architectural diagram

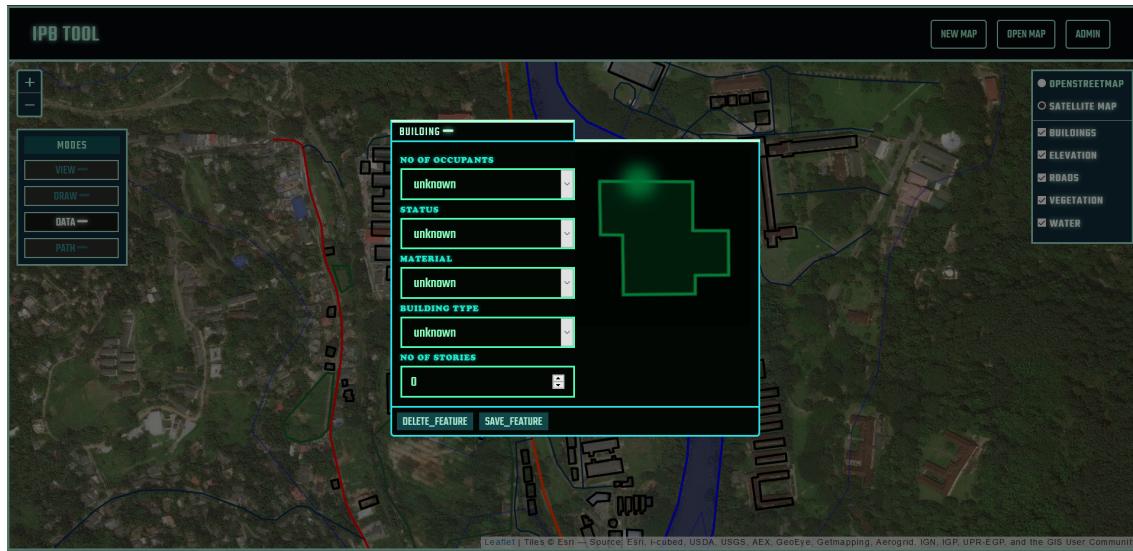


Fig. 3.3 Adding data to an geographic feature

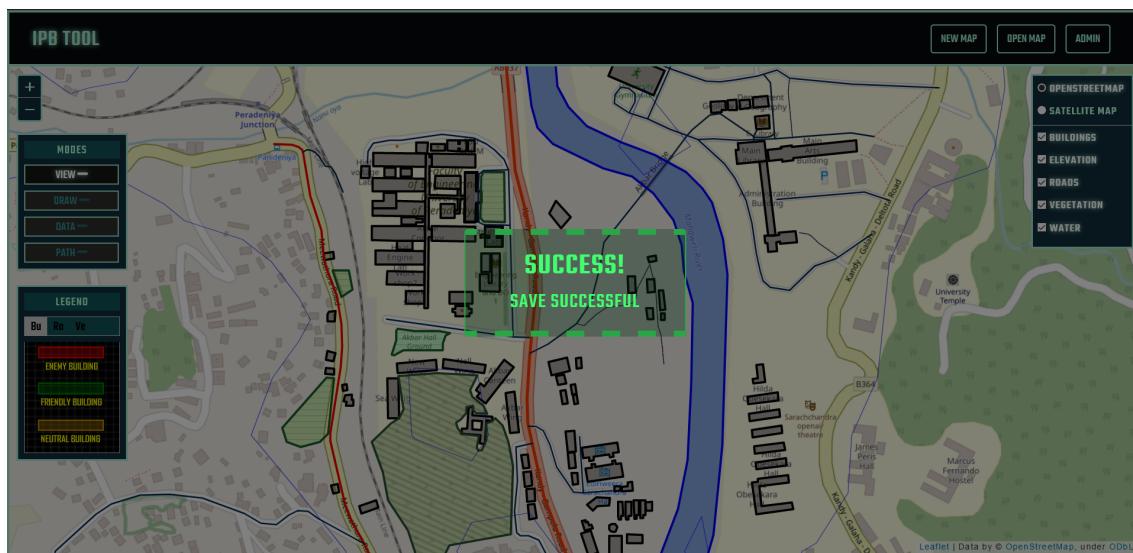


Fig. 3.4 Save the data insertion

The auto generation of overlays happen in IPB Service Layer, where the available geographical data for Sri Lanka stored in the server are processed in order to produce the overlays of the given boundaries.

We have obtained relevant digital geographical data for Sri Lanka and pre-processed them to suit the overlays we are considering.

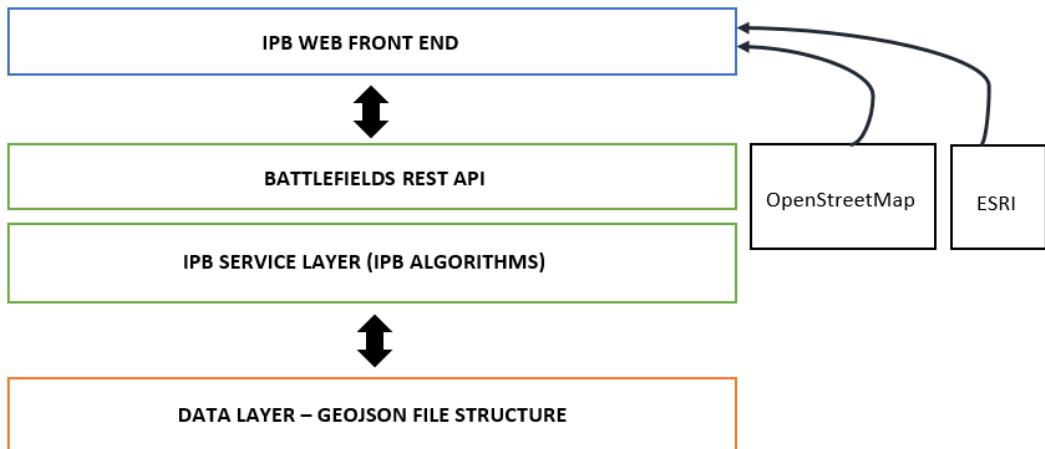


Fig. 3.5 System Architectural Diagram

The Elevation data for Sri Lanka have been obtained from highest-resolution topographic data generated from NASA's Shuttle Radar Topography Mission (SRTM). We generated the island wide 25m contour lines using that DEM data and that is used for creating elevation overlay. Also we stored the raster DEM file in server for some other functions including trafficability calculation.

OpenStreetMap data for Sri Lanka were obtained from <https://download.geofabrik.de/asia/sri-lanka.html> and processed to obtain overlay data for Sri Lanka.

- OSM Land Use data was used to obtain vegetation overlay by filtering vegetation and mapping their properties to our defined attributes.
- OSM Building data was processed to get building overlay such that their properties mapped into our defined building attributes.
- OSM water data was converted into water overlay
- OSM road data was converted into road overlay.

3.2.4 A grid based combined obstacle overlay by collecting the vector overlays to a grid.

As we have built the overlays using a vector format with properties, we needed to convert those data overlays to grids of their properties as grid based analysis is used for the

processing. We started from the elevation raster file of Sri Lanka obtained from SRTM dataset. In our program to get the combined obstacle overlay first step was to get the elevation grid. So our program was added the functionality to clip the Sri Lanka elevation raster file to the size of the battlefield firstly.

The NASA's Space Shuttle Radar Topography Mission (SRTM) DEM data's resolution is about 30 meters. It has pixels (cells) of grid approximately 30m containing elevation data as shown in [Figure 3.6](#)

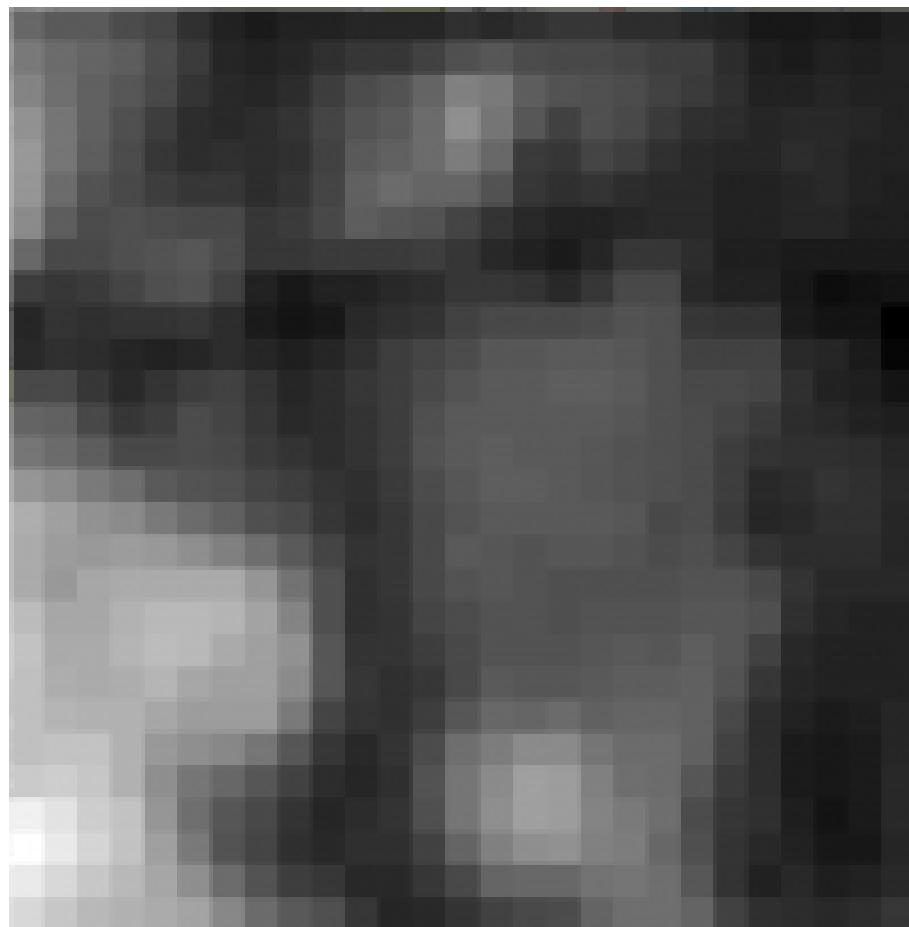


Fig. 3.6 DEM raster image of University of Peradeniya Area, Sri Lanka

We needed to map these elevation data to a grid of cells of size 10 times smaller than SRTM data resolution for better accuracy as 30m is not a good resolution for finding mobility. So elevation data graph was resampled using bi-linear interpolation in order to reduce the resolution of the overlay grid size to about 3 meters. The elevation data raster overlay after re-sampling is shown in [Figure 3.7](#).



Fig. 3.7 DEM raster image of University of Peradeniya Area after re-sampling to 10 times smaller cells

So the other overlay grids was also to be built to the same shape of the elevation grid obtained, such that they can be put one on other.

So next from the elevation grid, an additional grid of slope was derived. The slope grid is produced such that slope at grid cell (x,y) is assigned the mean of the slope between (x,y) and each of the surrounding grid cells. [Figure 3.8](#) shows the generated slope overlay for above elevation example.

Rasterization techniques were used to get the rater images of the building, water, road and vegetation overlays preserving their properties and those raster images of the overlays were converted to a numpy array for our processing. [Figure 3.9](#) show the original map with the building grid, water grid, vegetation grid and road grid obtained for University of Peradeniya using our program.

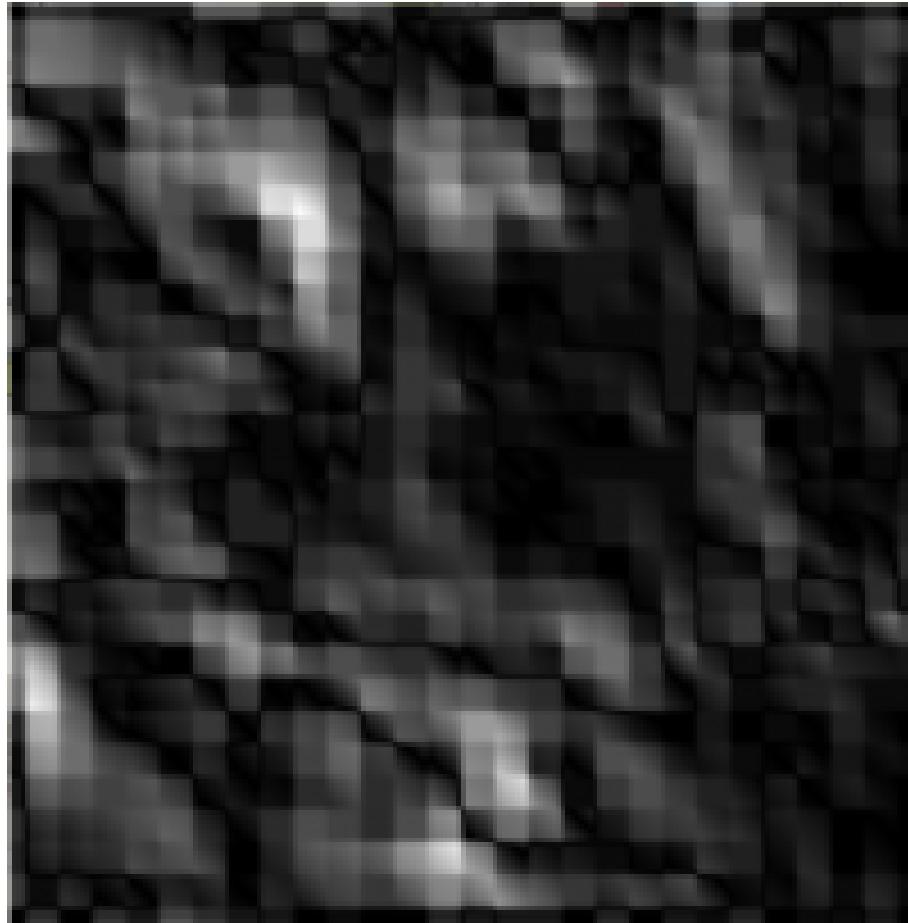


Fig. 3.8 Slope raster image of University of Peradeniya

Our target in this milestone was to obtain combined obstacle overlay (coo) by combining all these overlays and to construct an overlay called trafficability grid considering all those overlays (elevation, slope, building, vegetation, water, roads)

Trafficability grid is a grid which has cells representing squares on land, where each grid cell represents the trafficability of the cell. In another way each cell gives a value defining how much it is difficult to troop maneuver within that cell.

We considered the electric flow model as a foundation of our algorithm to get trafficability grid. In electric current point of view, the electric current or the flow of electrons is determined by the resistance of the medium. The resistance is determined by the resistivity of the materials used in the medium. If the resistance per unit length is k , the resistance of l length medium becomes $k \times l$.

So for each property that we consider that would effect trafficability from the overlays, we defined a value denoting resistance per distance for troop maneuver. So the total

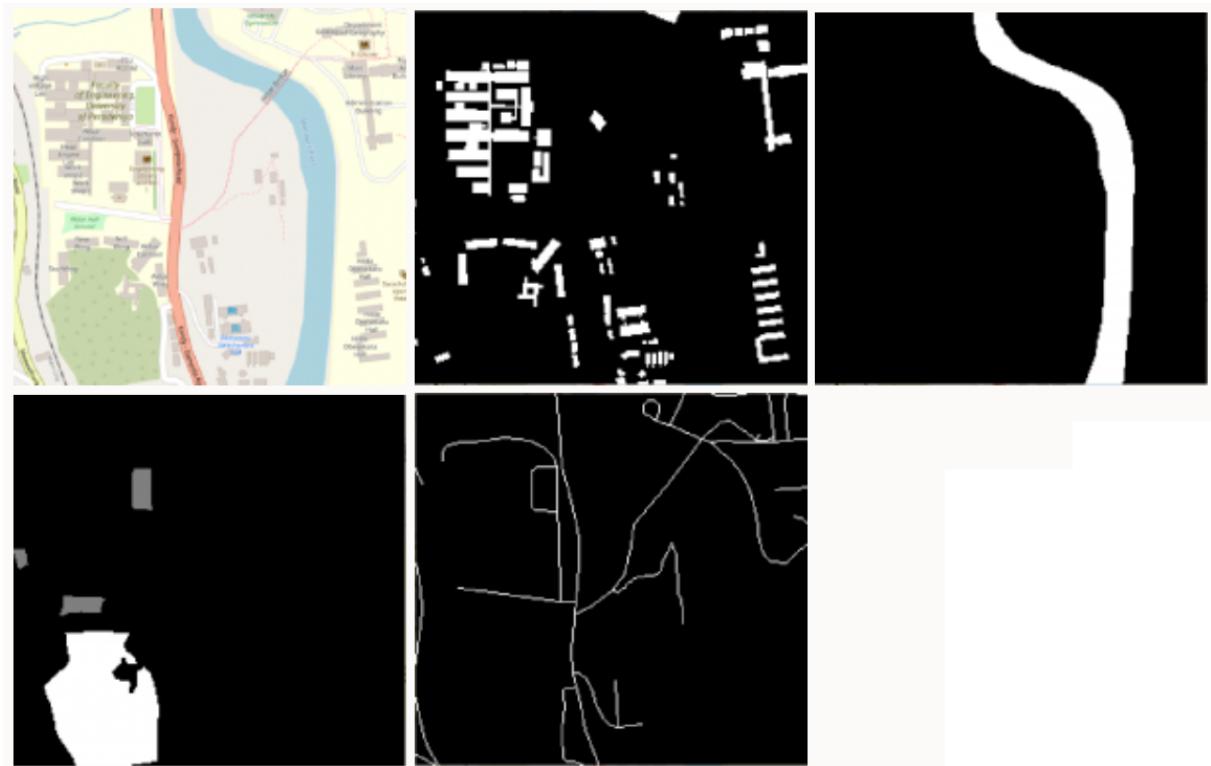


Fig. 3.9 Building grid, water grid, vegetation grid and road grid

resistance per distance for a given grid cell is the sum of all resistances per length of properties that belong to that cell.

So the pseudo code for our algorithm used in obtaining the trafficability using the resistance model is given below.

```
function trafficability (coo):
    create empty grid trafficability
    elevation_min = minimum (coo.elevation)
    for each cell in coo:
        slope = cell.getSlope()
        isBuilding = cell.isBuildingHere()
        isWater = cell.isWaterHere()
        isRoad = cell.isRoadHere()
        vegetationLevel= cell.vegetation()
        relative_elevation = cell.getElevation() - elevation_min
        isBridge = isWater and isRoad
```

```

    // resistivity of cell
    cel_res = relative_elevation

    if slope > max_slope_threshold:
        cel_res = cel_res + resistivity_heavy_slope

    if isRoad:
        cel_res = cel_res + resistivity_road
    else if isBridge:
        cel_res = elevation + resistivity_bridge
    else if isBuilding:
        cel_res = cel_res + resistivity_building
    else if isWater:
        cel_res = cel_res + resistivity_water
    else if vegetationLevel == grassland
        cel_res = cel_res + resistivity_vegetation_grassland
    else if vegetationLevel == shrubland
        cel_res = cel_res + resistivity_vegetation_shrubland
    else if vegetationLevel == woodland
        cel_res = cel_res + resistivity_vegetation_woodland
    else if vegetationLevel == medium_density_forest
        cel_res = cel_res + resistivity_vegetation_medium_density_forest
    else if vegetationLevel == high_density_forest
        cel_res = cel_res + resistivity_vegetation_high_density_forest
    else if vegetationLevel == unknown
        cel_res = cel_res + resistivity_vegetation_unknown
    else:
        cel_res = cel_res + resistivity_vegetation_empty
    update corresponding cell in trafficability grid with cel_res
return trafficability

```

So for the operation of this algorithm, we defined few attributes that describe the resistivity per length for different terrain features as below.

- max slope threshold = 0.4
- resistivity vegetation grassland = 30
- resistivity vegetation shrubland = 100

- resistivity vegetation woodland = 200
- resistivity vegetation medium density forest = 400
- resistivity vegetation high density forest = 600
- resistivity vegetation unknown = 200
- resistivity vegetation empty = 65
- resistivity building = 1000
- resistivity road = 1
- resistivity bridge = 1
- resistivity water = 10000
- resistivity heavy slope = 800

These attributes were given assumed values based on the mobility in each situation.

3.2.5 Generating the potential mobility corridors in the terrain.

So next we moved to generating potential mobility corridors that troops can move from a given starting point to an destination. The trafficability grid that was generated in last milestone, was used in determining the mobility corridors, or the avenues of approach. Trafficability grid represent a relative cost or a resistance of moving per a unit length, for each cell in grid. Here unit refer to width of a cell in the grid.

To generate the potential mobility corridors, we experimented three approaches. Those were,

1. Generalized Voronoi Diagram Method
2. k-shortest paths algorithm
3. Dijkstra's based path removing algorithm

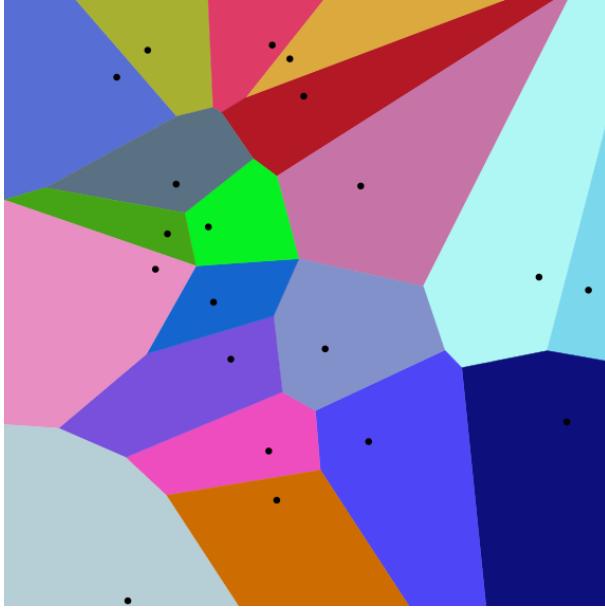


Fig. 3.10 An example voronoi diagram

Generalized Voronoi Diagram Method

The voronoi diagram method was to get mobility corridors from a voronoi diagram drawn for a GO-NO GO terrain map generated from trafficability grid. See [Figure 3.10](#)

Let $P = \{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\}$ be a set of n distinct points or sites in the plane. The Voronoi diagram of P is the subdivision of the plane into n cells, one for each site in P , with the property that a point q lies in the cell corresponding to a site p_i if and only if $\text{dist}(q, p_i) < \text{dist}(q, p_j)$ for each $p_j \in P$ with $j \neq i$. If the sites are replaced with polygons, the above definition holds true with a more complex distance function that represents the minimum distance between a point and a polygon in the plane. Such a diagram for polygons instead of points is called the Generalized Voronoi Diagram (GVD). This help to find avenues of approach, defensible areas, and other important tactical features of terrain.

Though the optimized algorithm for voronoi diagram is Fortune's algorithm with time complexity $O(n \log n)$, as we need to get the Generalized Voronoi Diagram for polygons, we used the basic algorithm with $O(n^2)$ for that. Following is the pseudo-code for the generation of generalized voronoi diagram from GO NO-GO terrain grid.

```
function voronoi(go_no_go_grid):
    create new grid border_grid
```

```

for each no_go cell in go_no_go grid:
    if any neighbor cell is a go cell:
        mark cell as a border in border_grid

create an array of array of cells (say cell_families)
    //To store connected cells separately
add connected cell groups to cell_families
    //Using a connected cell algorithm

depth_map = grid of size go_no_go_grid
color_map = grid of size go_no_go_grid
put infinity to all cells in depth_map
put zero to all cells in color_map

family_id = 0

for each family in cell_families:
    increment family_id by 1
    create a go_no_go grid sized grid (distance_map)
    get min geometric distance of each cell from cells of family
    Add min geometric distance to distance_map
    where distance_map value < depth_map value
        update the color_map, with family_id
        update the depth_map , with distance_map value

create new grid voronoi_grid

for each cell in color_map:
    if any neighbor cell is not equal to cell value:
        mark cell as a voronoi grid in voronoi_grid

return voronoi_grid

```

[Figure 3.11](#) is the voronoi diagram resulted for our sample battlefield. It shows the GVD drawn to the battlefield without restricted terrain(left) and with restricted terrain(right)



Fig. 3.11 Generalized Voronoi Diagram for University of Peradeniya

So this diagram is a network of paths, which gives many paths that avoids restricted NO-GO areas. Each edge of the voronoi graph corresponds to a path between two restricted NO-GO features. So basically voroni diagram gives an abstract set of paths that one can go avoiding only NO-GO areas. So we can select set of routes that join two positions from the network as [Figure 3.12](#).



Fig. 3.12 set of paths selected using GVD

But the problem in this method is that only the restricted terrain is considered for path generation. the other costs of mobility like cost from elevation, vegetation, roads, slope is not considered as the trafficability grid is mapped to a binary grid of GO, NO-Go and used here. So the accuracy is low as many data are not used.

Considering the time complexity of the algorithm, the algorithm we used for generating this generalized voronoi algorithm has time complexity $O(n^2)$, assuming the NO-GO feature density is linearly proportional to number of cells(n) of a battlefield grid.

k-shortest paths algorithm

The k shortest path routing problem is a generalization of the shortest path routing problem in a given network. It asks not only about a shortest path but also about next k-1 shortest paths which may be longer than the shortest path. Our approach of finding k shortest paths in trafficability grid was actually finding the lowest cost paths, as the grid contain the cost values. We approached the k shortest paths problem by extending Dijkstra algorithm. We have to give start and end locations to find paths here first.

Following is the pseudocode for the generation of paths using k-shortest paths algorithm from trafficability terrain grid.

```
function kshortest(trafficability_grid , start_cell , end_cell):

    count = grid of zeros of size trafficability grid
    temp_paths = queue to store temporary paths
    final_paths = queue to store final paths

    add start cell to temp_paths with cost 0
    while temp_paths is not empty and count[end_cell] < k:
        current_shortest = get shortest from temp_paths
        remove current_shortest from temp_paths
        current_end = last cell of current_shortest
        increment count value of current_end by 1

        if current_end == end_cell:
            add current_shortest to final_paths
        if count value of current_end <= k:
            for all neighbor cells of current_end:
                new_path = path joining neighbor cell to current_shortest
                update cost of new_path
```

```

    temp_paths.append(new_path)

    return final_paths

```

So we generated 10 least cost paths taking k as 10, for 6 sample battlefields. [Figure 3.13](#) is an image of output paths obtained for a sample battlefield.

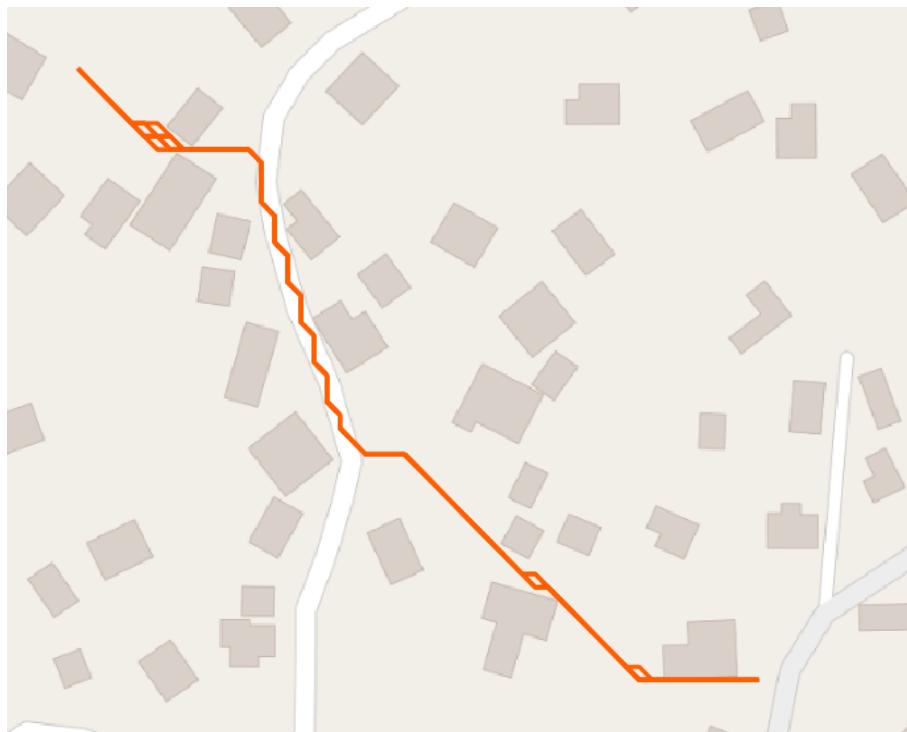


Fig. 3.13 10 least cost paths

The problem in this result is that though there are several paths given as output in the result, they are actually represent a single path, just few small changes at few points are there. So those few changes make them the next least cost path. but there are not more different than the earlier path. But what we need is a set of paths that are different actually and go through a different area. So it is clear that k -shortest path algorithm doesn't give the best fit answer and we need not the next least cost paths, but the paths that are really different from others.

Dijkstra's based path removing algorithm

Our third approach was a dijkstra's algorithm based approach that include path segment removing and path correcting functions. Dijkstra's algorithm is a least cost or least

distance finding algorithm between nodes in a graph, conceived by computer scientist Edsger W. Dijkstra in 1956.

Basically for the trafficability grid, when performed Dijkstra's algorithm giving two points as start and end, outputs a path with the minimum cost, that one can go. But it just give one path and we need a set of different paths. After obtaining a shortest path, if we remove that path completely defining it as restricted, dijkstra's algorithm will next find another path that is completely independent from earlier path. They will not have common edges. But they can cross each other in places where both routes are in diagonal directions as in [Figure 3.14](#).

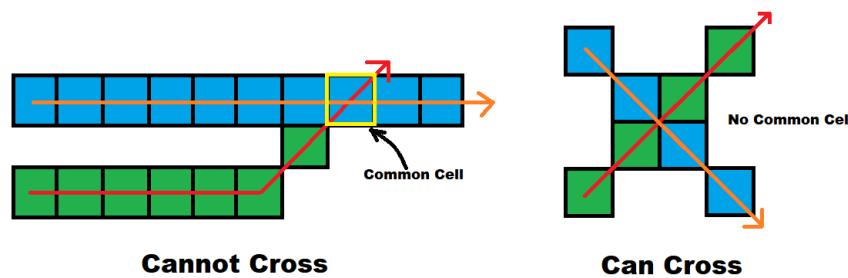


Fig. 3.14 Path crossing occasions

Then the set of paths give much different avenues of approaches as we need, but in cases where the route lie on common areas that both can use same path, that doesn't give the correct path and have multiple parallel paths. That happen as the paths coming next after the first path cannot use the same edges used by earlier paths. More importantly when the first path use a already available road in it, next path that need to use the road to some extent cannot use it and it will go in other areas close and parallel to road. See the [Figure 3.15](#) that show the close and parallel path issue in this approach.

So a correction had be done to the close and parallel paths issue in common sections in routes. In the above image those places are circled with a red marker. So we developed a correction algorithm to correct that issue.

When the paths generated were added to a grid, where cells belonging to paths have the cost defined in trafficability grid and other non path areas have a very high cost, the rasterized grid looks like [Figure 3.16](#).

So in that grid view, the close and parallel, unwanted paths can be seen merged together as they are closer cells. Therefore in our correction algorithm, we made this grid and used dijkstra's algorithm again to this new grid to get least cost paths out of this faulty path set. Also this correction algorithm has a path section removing mechanism

3.2 Implementation

24

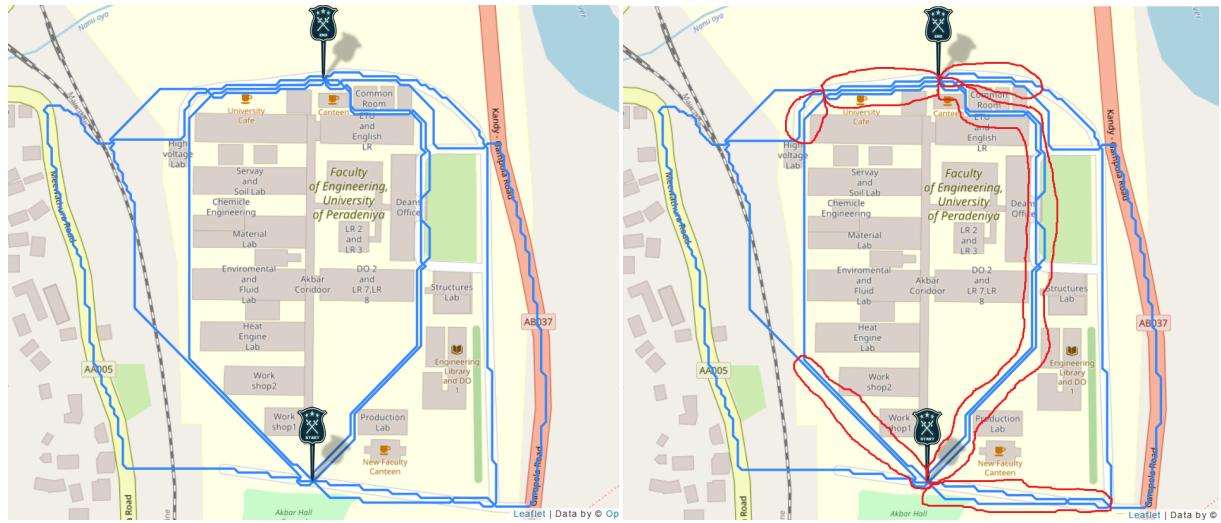


Fig. 3.15 Issue of having close and parallel paths (Left) and parts that need that issue to be corrected marked (Right)

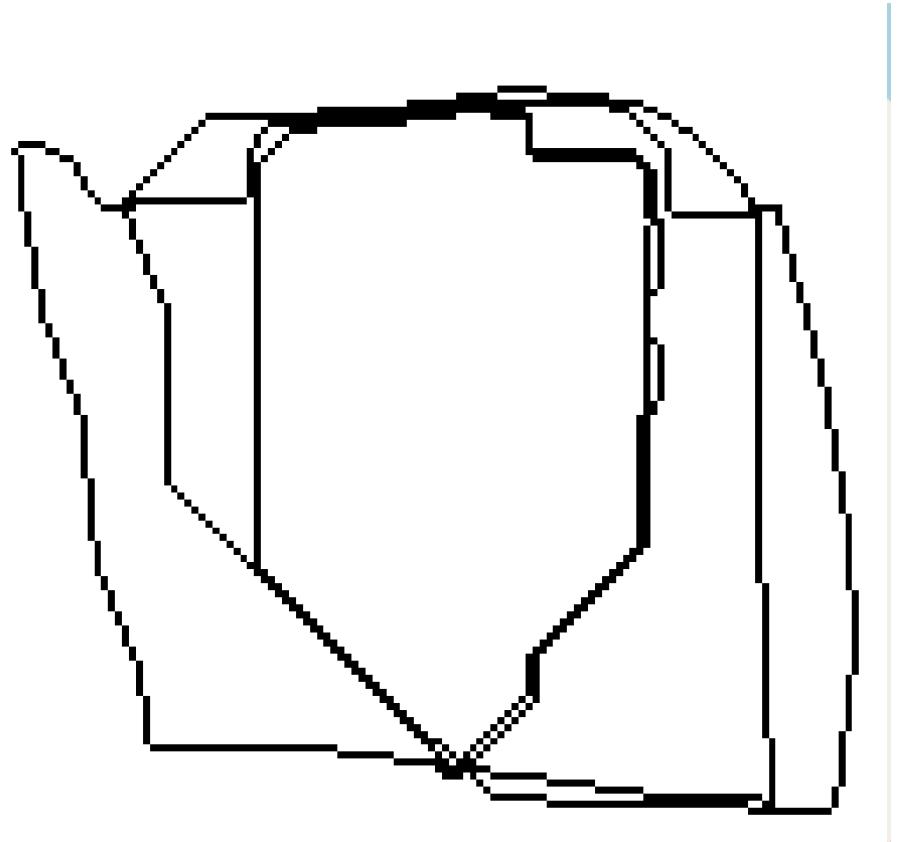


Fig. 3.16 Rasterized image of paths grid

as well as a mechanism to identify which path section has to be removed before applying dijkstra's algorithm again to avoid resulting same path.

In paths thickness is obtained for each cells using the number of surrounding path cells. When removing sections from the least cost path generated from new grid, first the segments with different thicknesses are split and we give priority to segments where, the path is thin (lowest width) and long (length with same thickness). Out of same width segments one with maximum length is chosen. Further the paths get split based on crossings as well, because in a crossing the number of surrounding path cells increase, hence taken as an increase of thickness.

So following are the pseudo-codes for getting independent paths, path correction algorithm and obtaining sections to remove from paths respectively.

pseudo-code for getting independent paths

Note: $\text{max_factor} = 5$ means, only paths of cost more than 5 times of initial path will be resulted. Path correction function `correct_paths` is explained in next section.

```
function independent_paths(trafficability_grid)
    max_factor = 5
    create paths array to store paths
    lc_path = get least cost path from trafficability_grid
    add lc_path to paths
    limit = max_factor * cost of lc_path
    while true:
        except start and end cell:
            mark cell of lc path as restricted
        lc_path = get least cost path from trafficability_grid
        if cost of lc_path > limit:
            break while loop
        add path to path
    return correct_paths(paths, trafficability_grid)
```

pseudo-code for path correction algorithm

Note: function `find_section_to_remove` is explained in next section.

```
function correct_paths(paths, trafficability_grid)
    k = a very large value
    create array new_paths to store corrected paths
    create new_grid of shape trafficability_grid
```

```

change all cell values of new_grid to k
for each path in paths
    for all cells of the path:
        update new_grid with value from trafficability_grid
for each path in paths
    lc_path = get least cost path from new_grid
    add lc_path to new_paths
    section_to_remove = find_section_to_remove(lc_path, new_grid)
    mark cells of section_to_remove with k in new_grid
return new_paths

```

Obtaining Sections to remove from paths respectively

Note: $threshold = 6$ means initially cells with 6 or more neighboring non-path cells are considered as they are possible thinnest paths

```

find_section_to_remove(path, new_grid)
k = very large value used in new_grid
initially consider whole path as section to remove
create array sections to store split sections
threshold = 6
while sections is empty and threshold >= 0:
    inside_section = false
    length_of_section = 0
    start_cell_of_section = path[0]
    for cell in path:
        empty_count = number of neighboring cell with k
        if not inside_section and empty_count >= threshold:
            inside_section = True
            start_cell_of_section = cell
            length = 0
        if inside_section and empty_count >= threshold:
            length = length + 1
        if inside_section and empty_count < threshold:
            inside_section = False
            in sections array:
                store start_cell_of_section as start
                store cell as end

```

```

    store length
max_section = maximum length section from sections
threshold = threshold - 2
return max_section

```

So after applying the correction the paths for above example looked like [Figure 3.17](#). Paths are shown in orange color.

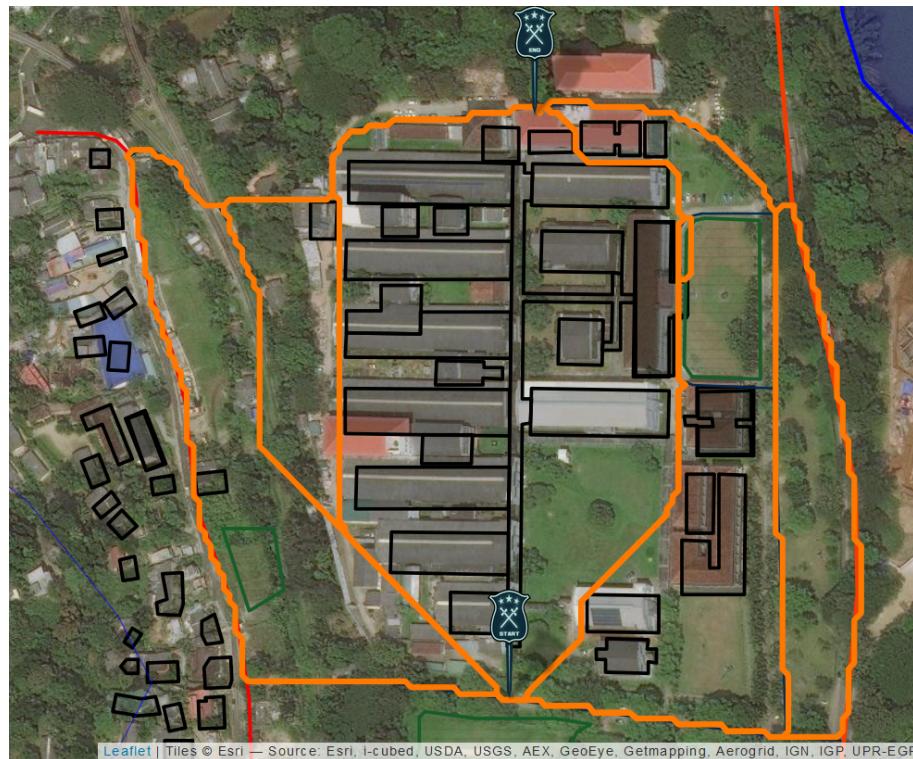


Fig. 3.17 Paths after correction

So this approach could be identified as a successful one, as the more unique and different avenues of approaches could be given as output. The routes that were given as output were basically similar paths that a person who is familiar with this area would choose.

Limitation at choke points

In this approach, a problem that we identified was, there is only a single path would be given as output through a choke point. Choke points are the places where troops have to maneuver through a very narrow area, where both the left and right sides are

restricted areas. As example bridges, mountain passes, narrow areas between buildings etc.

When generating paths, at initial state, when a path is there through a such choke point, though there can be another path which is not exactly similar to this path and has another approach but need to pass this choke point, it will not be given as output. The reason is to happen such a thing there should be close and parallel path segments for those two where there is should be common path. But that cannot happen as parallel and close paths cannot pass restricted part at choke point and the only pass through choke point has been occupied by first path. So to resolve this issue, if there is a choke point in the path generated, before generating the next independent path the pass through choke point must be unoccupied.

Figure 3.18 is an image where paths are generated between two locations in University of Peradeniya and the limitation of paths can be seen as there are two choke points here (Akbar bridge and Peradeniya bridge) and hence the potential avenues marked in light green color are not given in output. Paths in blue color are the computer generated paths.

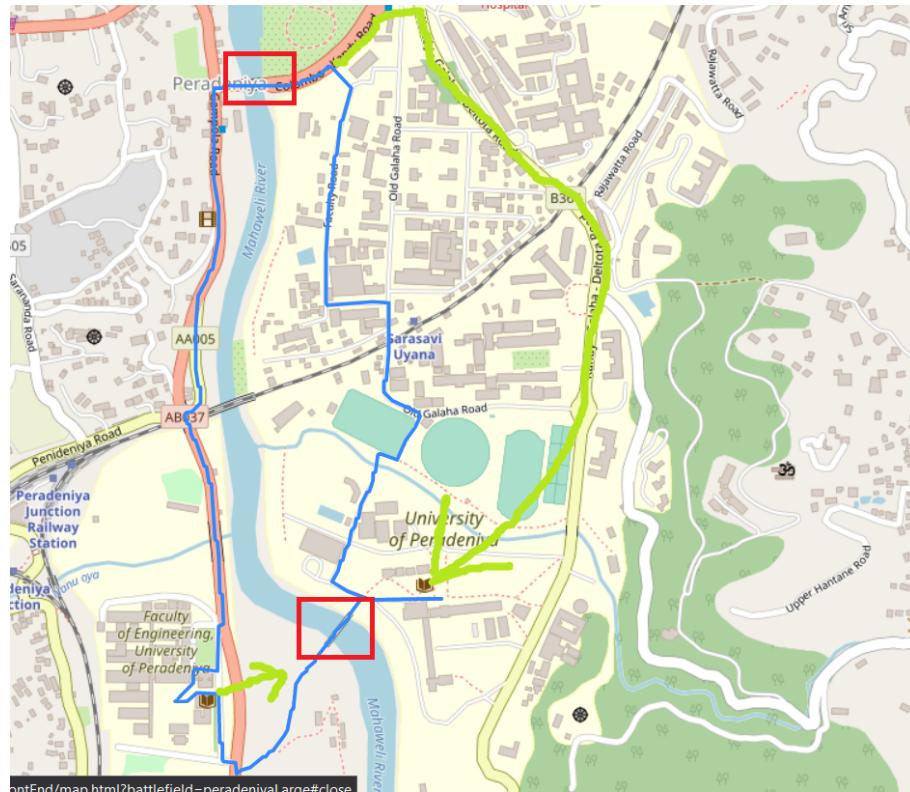


Fig. 3.18 Path limitation due to choke points

As described in above to resolve this issue, an modification was done to the 'Getting Independent Paths' algorithm. The identified choke points were made unoccupied after obtaining a path and before generating next independent path. For that instead of making the whole generated path restricted, the cells excluding choke points in the path were made restricted. So to find all choke points and remove path without choke points, an algorithm was developed and it's pseudo-code is as below.

```
function non_choke_points(restricted_grid , path):
    front_cell = None
    back_cell = None
    create array non_chokes_point_set
    for each cell in path:
        back_cell = front_cell
        front_cell = cell
        if back_cell is not None and front_cell is not None:
            v_d = front_cell[0] - back_cell[0]
            h_d = front_cell[1] - back_cell[1]
            directions = None
            is_diagonal = False
            if (abs(h_d) - abs(v_d)) == 1:
                directions = (1, 0, -1, 0)
            else if (abs(h_d) - abs(v_d)) == -1:
                directions = (0, 1, 0, -1)
            else if (h_d * v_d) == 1:
                directions = (1, -1, -1, 1)
                is_diagonal = True
            else if (h_d * v_d) == -1:
                directions = (1, 1, -1, -1)
                is_diagonal = True
            is_choke = scan() // start scanning two sides
            if not is_choke:
                non_chokes_point_set.append(back_cell)
    return non_chokes_point_set
```

Note: choke_threshold = minimum distance to an obstacle for a cell to be a choke point

```
function scan(restricted_grid , cell , directions , is_diagonal):
    restricted_1_found = False
```

```

restricted_2_found = False
distance_traveled = 0
distance_step = 1
if is_diagonal:
    distance_step = square root of 2
while distance_traveled <= choke_threshold:
    distance_traveled = distance_traveled + distance_step
    current_cell1 = (cell[0] + directions[0], cell[1] + directions[1])
    current_cell2 = (cell[0] + directions[2], cell[1] + directions[3])
    if not restricted_1_found and restricted_grid[current_cell1] == 1:
        restricted_1_found = True
    if not restricted_2_found and restricted_grid[current_cell2] == 1:
        restricted_2_found = True
    if restricted_1_found and restricted_2_found:
        return True
return False

```

The scan function scan each cell in path in left and right directions up to the distance defined as choke_threshold to find a obstacle, it there are obstacles in both directions withing that limit, that cell is a choke point. We defined choke threshold as 4 units, that will approximately equal to 12 meters.

So see the below [Figure 3.19](#) of computer generated output of above scenario after applying the fix to the 'Getting Independent Paths' algorithm.

So now the result seems very similar to a human generated output.

3.2.6 Risk evaluation of corridors to select safest avenues of approach

As we get set of distinct easiest avenues that can be used for troop maneuver, there might be some risks in using the paths due to enemy locations. So in this milestone we developed an algorithm to define the range of threats for the enemy locations annotated by user and then use that range of threats to find threat for routes generated.

The general approach to get a range of threat was, the threat decreasing a uniform amount when going away from the enemy location or building. So as we can define buildings as enemy ones in our tool, the value must start decreasing from the wall of the building to outside. As our representation of terrain was using a grid of cells, we defined two 2d arrays of the shape of terrain grid called Enemy threat grid and Threat

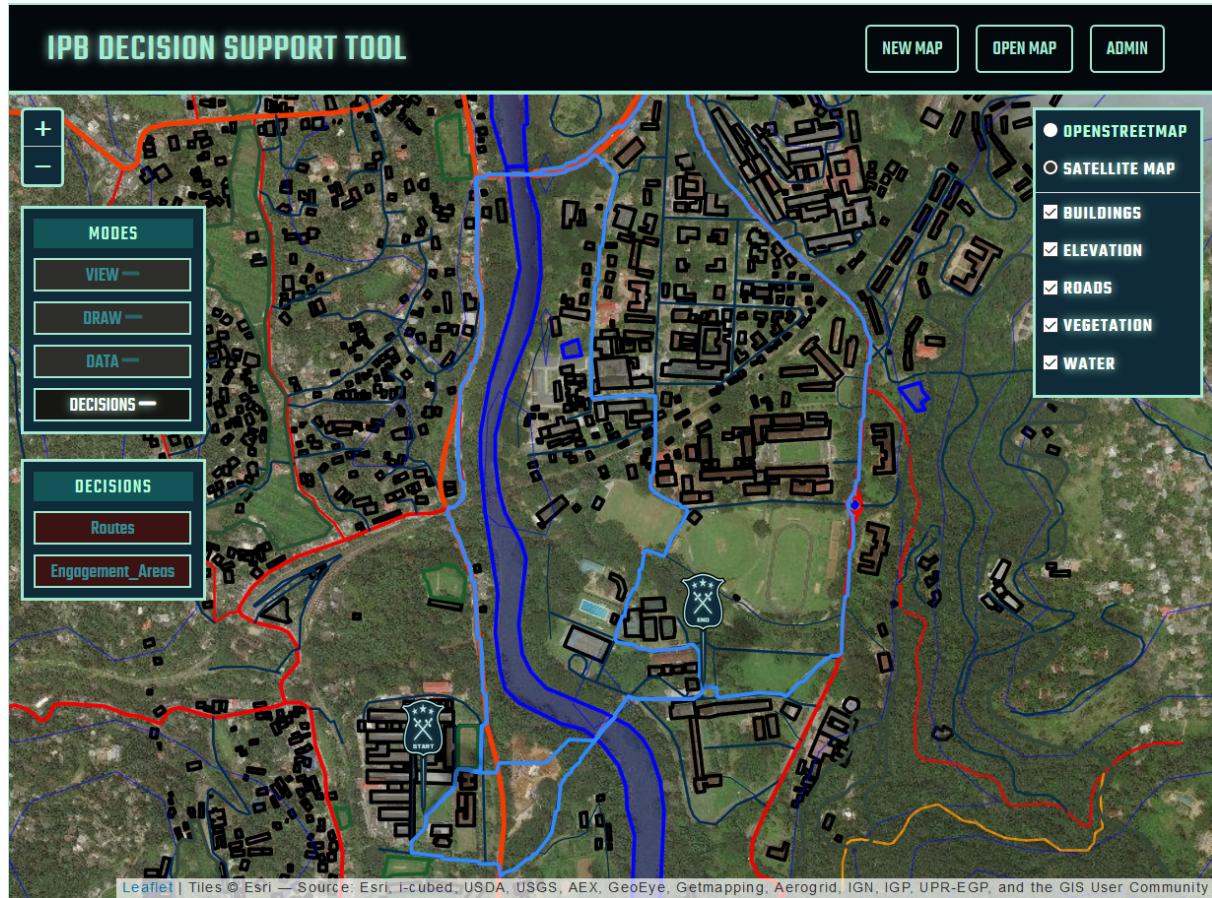


Fig. 3.19 Computer generated paths after removing choke point effect

decrement grid. In here Threat decrement grid has a value for each cell defining how much threat will loss in this cell. The amount is the loss of threat per grid cell unit. Using that we created the enemy threat grid that will finally have a value of threat for each cell in the terrain. The value is between 0 and 10.

In here, what would decrease threat was only distance from the enemy building. So the threat decrement grid has uniform values. So the threat range that is resulted is a circular area around the building where threat last only to a maximum fixed distance from borders of the building. When a same cell in threat array get values from two threat locations, the maximum out of the threats at the cell due to all threat locations is kept.

So the rasterized image of threat variation from an enemy building is as Figure 3.20 when only distance is considered.

Figure 3.21 is the flow of the code we developed to get threat grid.

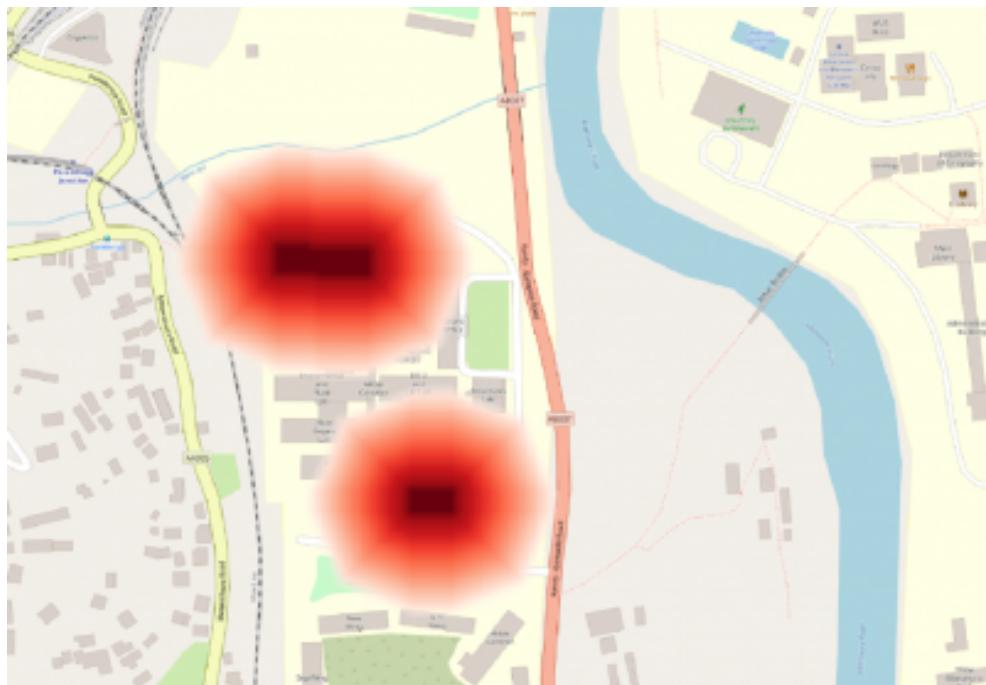


Fig. 3.20 Threat variation from an enemy building



Fig. 3.21 Flow of the code

So the pseudo-code of the algorithm used to get the threat grid from a building when given the border_cell_list, which is the list of cells in the buildings border of it is given below,

```

function threat_grid(border_cell_list , threat_decrement_array)
    define starting threat for this building as T
    create new grid threat_range
    for each cell in border_cell_list:
        visited = new grid to store whether the cell visited or not
        q = new queue to store scanned cells with threat
        add cell to the q with threat T
        mark threat of cell in threat_range as T
    while q is not empty:
        current_cell = get cell with maximum threat cell from q
        remove current_cell from q
        mark current_cell as visited in visited
        let d is current_cell_threat_decrement
        d = threat_decrement_array_cell[current_cell]
        threat = threat_range[current_cell]
        for each unvisited neighbor cell of current_cell:
            let n is neighbor_cell_decrement
            n = threat_decrement_array_cell[neighbor]
            if neighbor is in diagonal direction:
                threat_decrement = square_root(2) * (d + n) /2
            else
                threat_decrement = d + n) /2
            neighbor_cell_threat = threat - threat_decrement
            if neighbor_cell_threat > threat_range[neighbor]:
                update threat_range with neighbor_cell_threat
                add neighbor to q
    return threat_range

```

Then we studied how the terrain features would effect the threat and how to introduce those effects to our automated tool. From the features we have for terrain grid we identified following features would effect threat range of an enemy building.

- Enemy building height
- Height of surrounding buildings
- Level of vegetation
- High elevation than enemy building height in surround area

- Low elevation than enemy building ground.

So to add enemy building height to the code functionality we defined the starting threat T of the algorithm according to the enemy building height. As the threats will be mapped to range between 10 and 0 at the end, increasing starting threat at enemy building is not an issue.

The best way to add the effect of surrounding features to the threat grid, we automatically change the Threat_decrement_array according to the features. As example, in the cells where there is a building, the threat decrement will be higher than normal cell.

So we defined following attributes that affect threat decrement array and assinged some sample values for them and fine tuned the variables until a good result come.

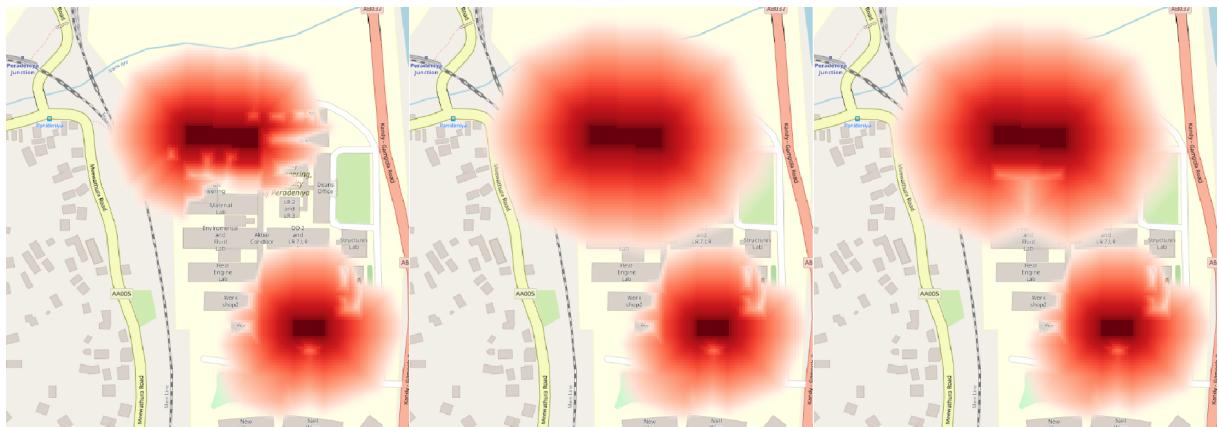
In a normal flat terrain with no features like building or vegetation given, threat from 1 storied enemy building decrease uniformly up to 100m from border of the building.

So the average width of a cell in our grid $\approx 3\text{m}$, So the range is about 33 units.

- threat_decrement_building_max, this is the threat decrement at places where a building blocks visibility, normally it is a building with same number of stories or more than the enemy building.
- threat_decrement_grassland, this is the threat decrement at places where there is a grassland
- threat_decrement_shrubland, this is the threat decrement at places where there is a shrubland
- threat_decrement_medium_forest, this is the threat decrement at places where there is a medium_forest
- threat_decrement_high_forest, this is the threat decrement at places where there is a high_forest
- threat_decrement_elevation_increment, this is the value which the available threat decrement increase when the elevation is higher than the estimated building height
- threat_decrement_elevation_decrement , this is the value which the available threat decrement decrease when the elevation is lower than the enemy ground level.
- building_floor_height_average, this is the multiplying factor to get estimated building height from the number of stories of it.

- range_increment_per_floor, normally range of the single storied building is 33 units, but it increase when the number of stories of enemy building increase. This is the value in which the range increase per single storey.

following Figures in [Figure 3.22](#) are images of the threat array generated in enemy buildings by changing the terrain features.



[Fig. 3.22](#) When all buildings are single floor(LEFT), when top enemy building was made two story (MIDDLE) , when a close building of it also made two story (RIGHT)

When all buildings are two story, the threat range of enemy building is blocked by surrounding buildings as in first image. So when the enemy building is made a two stroy one, it's range of threat doesn't blocked by single floored buildings around. that is why the range has not changed in middle image. So when a nearby surround building also made two story as in right image, the range of enemy building will get effected from that.

[Figure 3.23](#) shows the variation of threat with elevation right side of the building, the elevation is high, it is higher than the height of the building, so the threat from building has been limited to right side. Also to left of the building, you can see there is an increase of threat. that is because the ground level to that side is lower than building ground level as well as the vegetation is grassland, that cause more spread of threat towards that side.

Basically vegetation level effect threat range, in [Figure 3.24](#) to left side of the building, there is a heavy density forest, so the threat have been limited towards that side.

Finally obtaining the threat grid for the whole battlefield, we decided threats for the routes generated between given coordinates. So the paths were colored in IPB tool using the threats obtained for each routes as below. In the threat representation of the map, the colors change from green to red to represent threat from 0 to 10 respectively.

[Figure 3.25](#) is an image from IPB tool when potential mobility corridors were generated and paths are colored according to threat level due to the enemy locations marked in red.

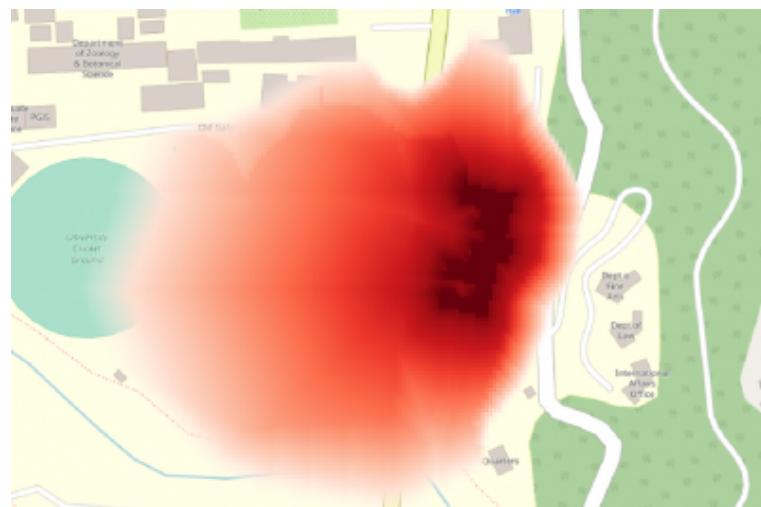


Fig. 3.23 Variation of threat with elevation

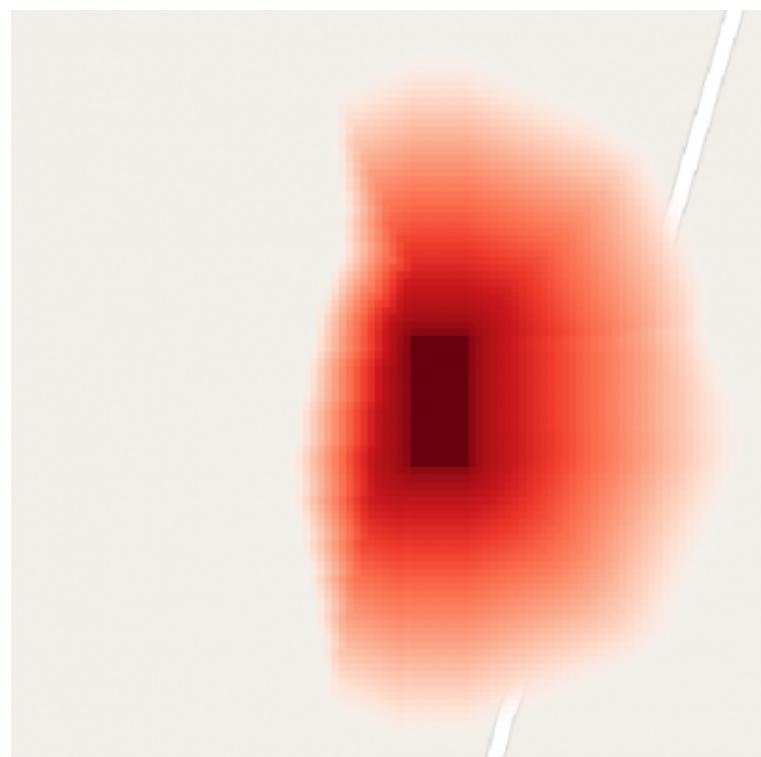


Fig. 3.24 Variation of threat with vegetation

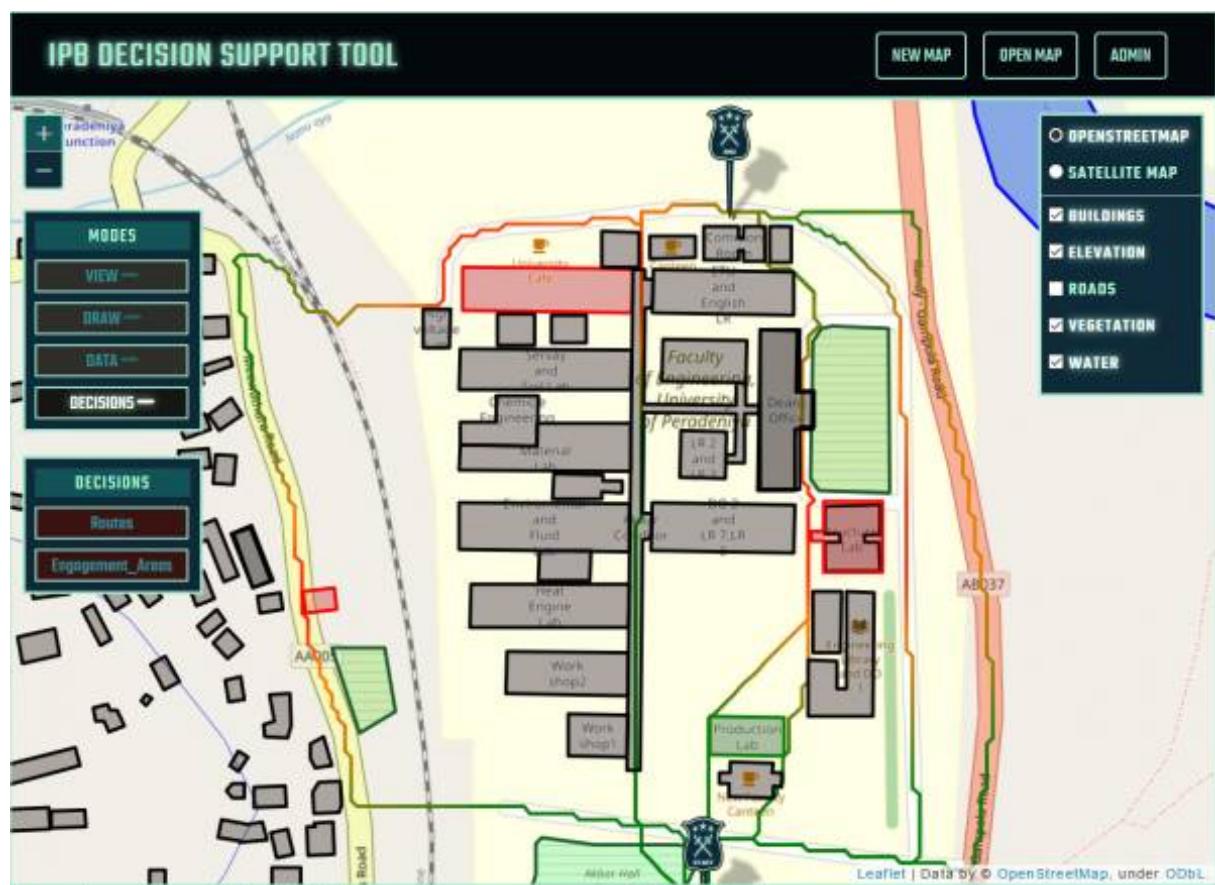


Fig. 3.25 Mobility corridors in Faculty of Engineering map

Chapter 4

Results and Analysis

4.1 Comparison of approaches

We created 6 sample battlefields with different sizes in the same location, where it can be assumed as a uniform restricted terrain is there. Then we used the algorithm to compare time take for each.

Figure 4.1 shows the 6 sample battlefields created.

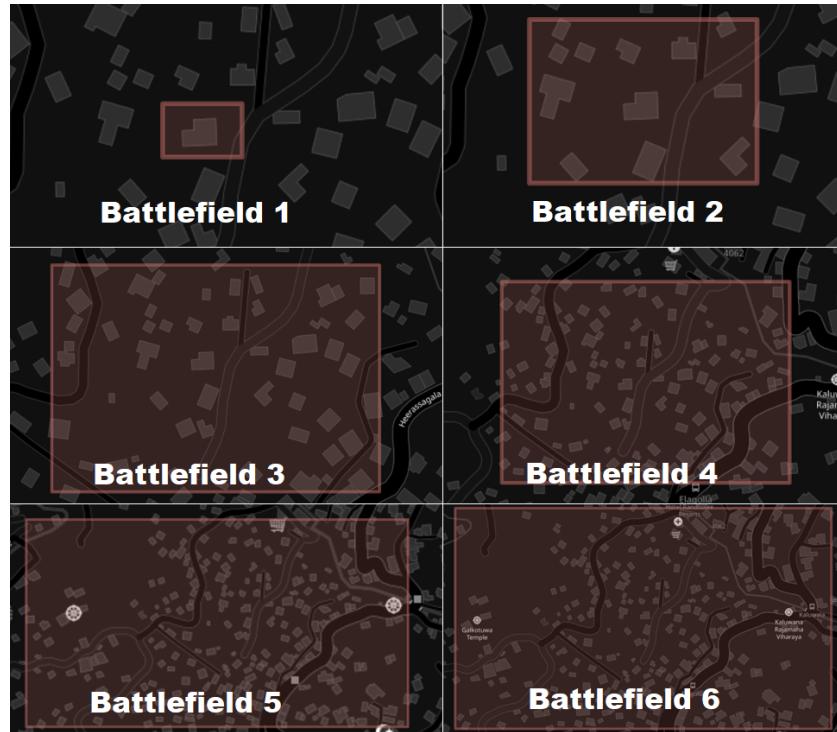


Fig. 4.1 Sample battlefields for time comparison

Times for each approach of paths generation was measured and plotted for each battlefield as below.

4.1.1 Generalized Voronoi Diagram Method

[Table 4.1](#) shows the times for the algorithm of generation of paths for each battlefield using generalized voronoi diagram method and [Figure 4.2](#) shows the graphical representation of the time variation with number of cells in the battlefield.

Table 4.1 Time taken for Generalized Voronoi Diagram Method

Battlefield	No. of cells	Area (square meters)	time for algorithm (ms)
1	100	1014	0.998
2	1200	8910	30.926
3	1800	28600	134.635
4	7000	65100	874.651
5	20900	193800	5266.941
6	25200	234000	10767.204

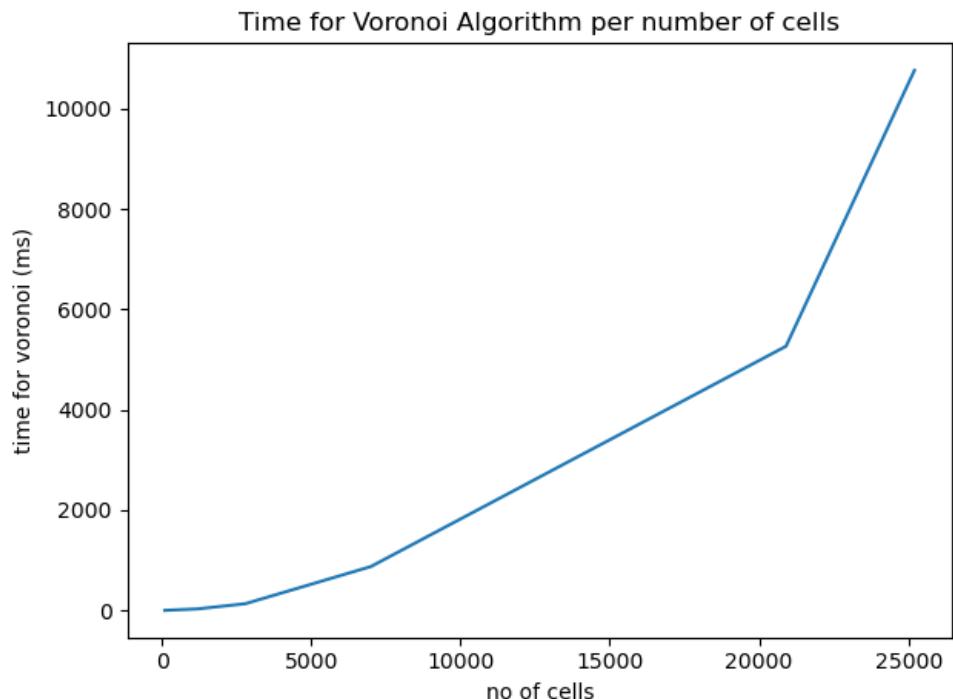


Fig. 4.2 Plot of time taken for voronoi diagram vs number of cells

4.1.2 k-shortest paths algorithm

[Table 4.2](#) shows the times for the algorithm of generation of paths for each battlefield using k-shortest paths algorithm method and [Figure 4.3](#) shows the graphical representation of the time variation with number of cells in the battlefield.

Table 4.2 Time taken for k-shortest paths algorithm Method

Battlefield	No. of cells	Area (square meters)	time for algorithm (ms)
1	100	1014	781.912
2	1200	8910	29459.84
3	1800	28600	90515.703
4	7000	65100	378904.164
5	20900	193800	1548674.855
6	25200	234000	5015944.969

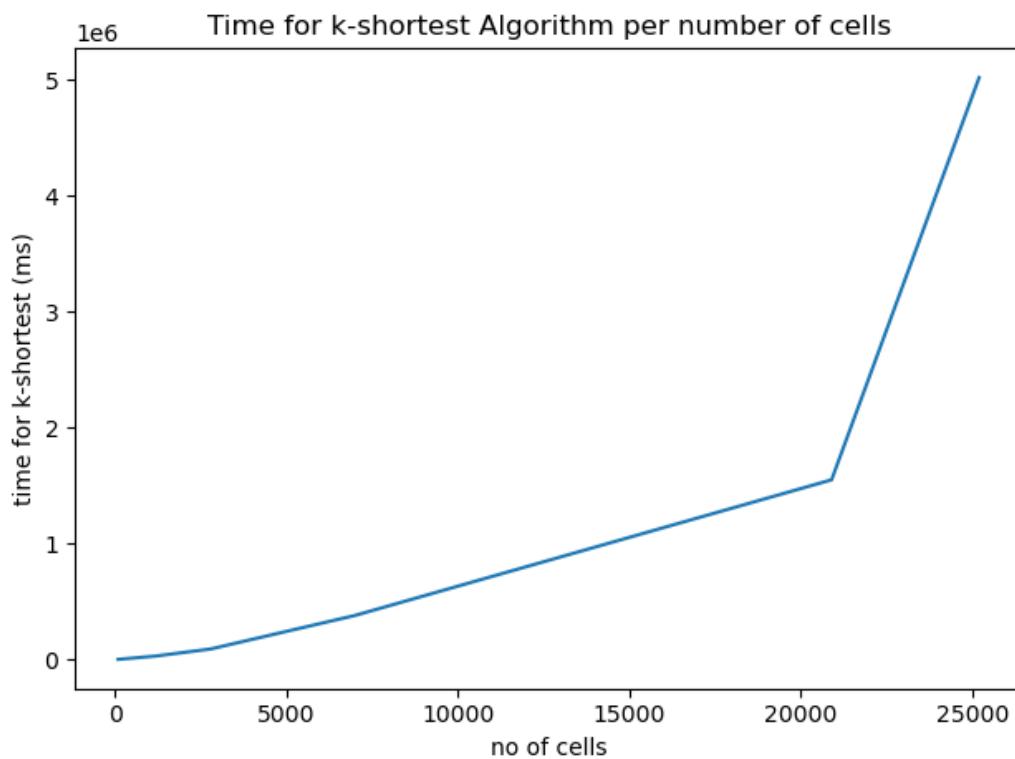


Fig. 4.3 Plot of time taken for k-shortest paths algorithm vs number of cells

4.1.3 Dijkstra's based path removing algorithm

[Table 4.3](#) shows the times for the algorithm of generation of paths for each battlefield using Dijkstra's based path removing algorithm method and [Figure 4.4](#) shows the graphical representation of the time variation with number of cells in the battlefield.

Table 4.3 Time taken for Dijkstra's based path removing algorithm Method

Battlefield	No. of cells	Area (square meters)	time for algorithm (ms)
1	100	1014	13.963
2	1200	8910	32.913
3	1800	28600	38.897
4	7000	65100	41.888
5	20900	193800	121.674
6	25200	234000	191.484

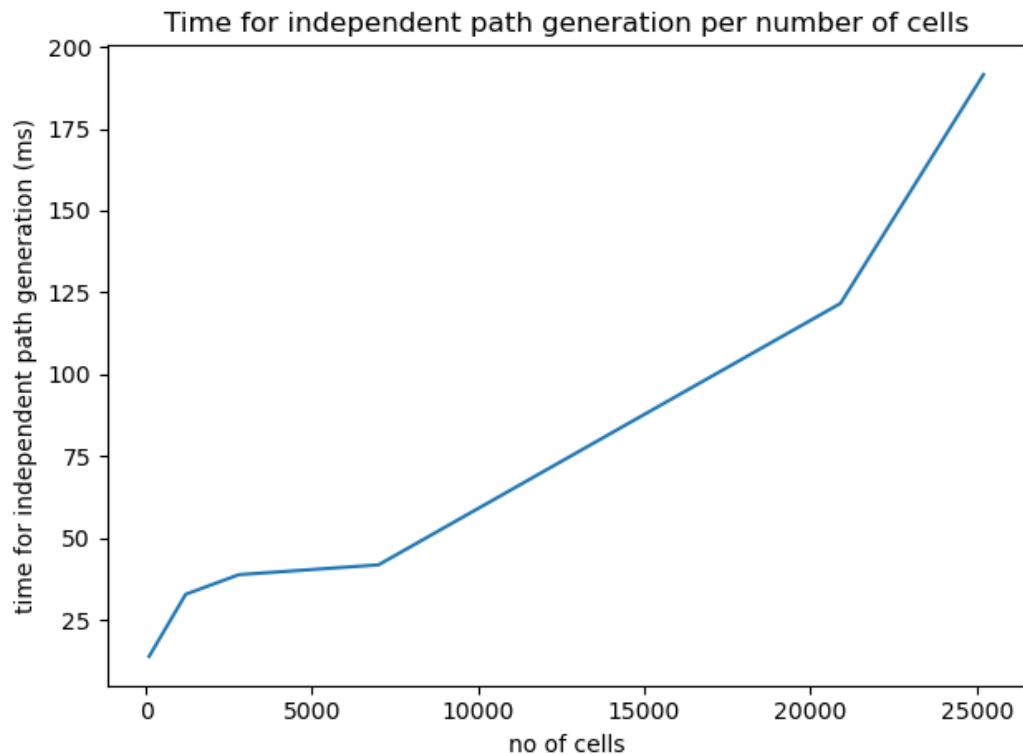


Fig. 4.4 Plot of time taken for Dijkstra's based path removing algorithm vs number of cells

4.2 Comparison Results

Chart in [Figure 4.5](#) compares variation of time taken for three approaches with number of cells.

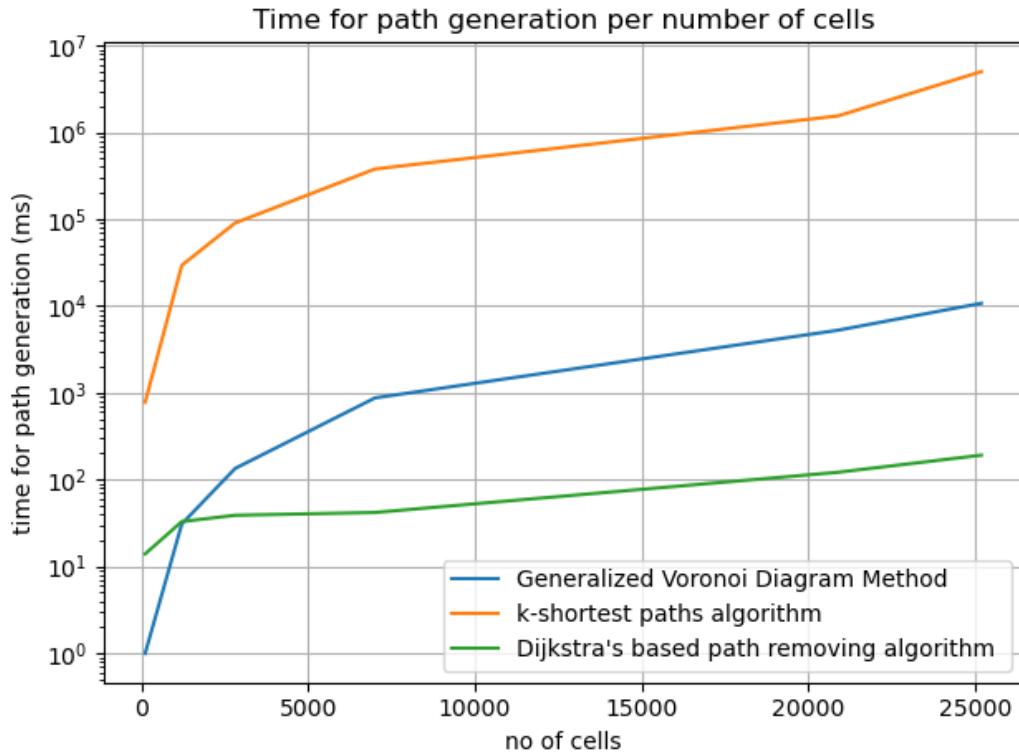


Fig. 4.5 Variation of time taken for three approaches

The chart [Figure 4.5](#) suggests that compared to time consumption, Dijkstra's based path removing algorithm is much time efficient than other two approaches. k-shortest path approach is not good as it's time consumption is much high as well as increase exponentially with number of cells.

Following [Table 4.4](#) is a qualitative comparison between outputs of the three approaches.

Considering these factors, it was decided to use Dijkstra's based path removing algorithm in our tool.

Table 4.4 Qualitative comparison between approaches

Generalized Voronoi Diagram Method	k-shortest paths algorithm	Dijkstra's based path removing algorithm
Only GO,NO-GO terrain is used	Trafficability grid is used with all features	Trafficability grid is used with all features
Paths does not depend on cost of traveling	Paths depend on cost of traveling	Paths depend on cost of traveling
Different possible paths are resulted, but some mismatch is with paths	paths are not spread, mostly same path with small differences is resulted	Much spread can be seen in paths, actually different possible paths are resulted
Time taken for algorithm is low (not the lowest)	Heavy time consuption	Very low time taken (it is the lowest out of three approaches)

4.3 Comparison with available systems

4.3.1 Google map directions

Basically the platform normally used to find paths to travel from one place to another place is Google Map directions. Figure 4.6 shows the comparison of the avenues of approaches generated between two positions separated by a river and the Google direction result for those two positions.

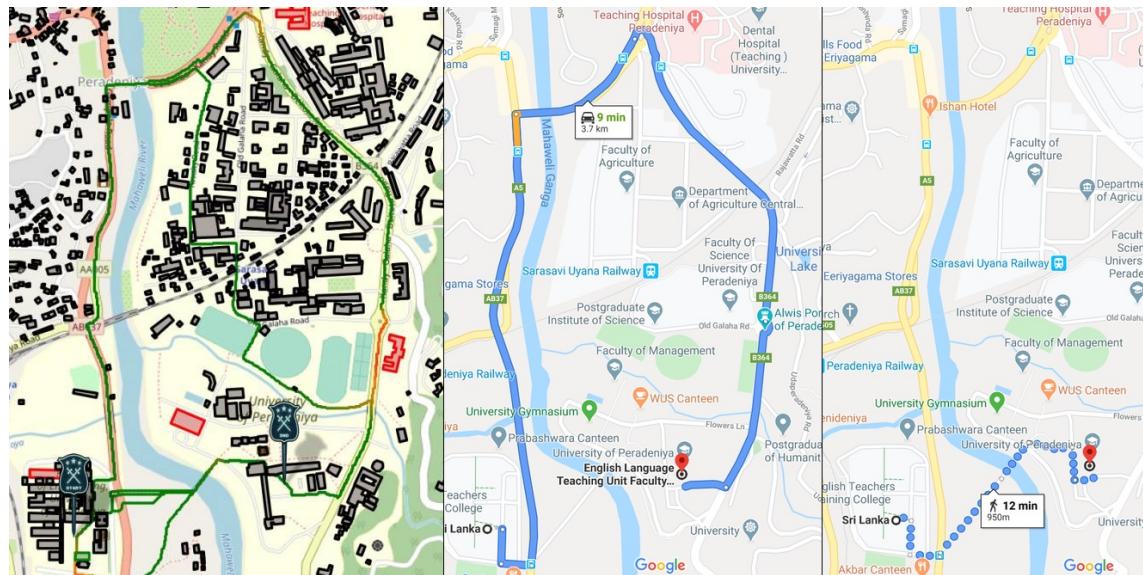


Fig. 4.6 Comparison with Google direction, Our System generated paths (LEFT) Google Directions for vehicles(MIDDLE) and Google directions for walking(RIGHT)

Basically direction API consider only available routes to generate the paths. Some times they give multiple paths possible but not to much deep level. So it doesn't consider the terrain features or any additional information we give on terrain in generation paths. Also it does not suggest paths to maneuver through non road areas. So in case of avenues of approaches our implementation is much successful towards obtaining avenues of approaches for troop maneuver.

4.3.2 Comparison with result from a related works

In [3] the researchers have developed algorithms to generate avenues of approaches for a small map using a trafficability array and generalized voronoi diagram. Also they have evaluated the avenues of approaches of that map by an subject matter experts (SME). So we recreated the map they have used in the research drawing similar terrain data. Then obtained avenues of approaches for the two locations they have used and then compared it with the result generated by their system and manual result by SME.

[Figure 4.7](#) shows the avenues of approaches for that map given by algorithms used by the researchers and the SME.

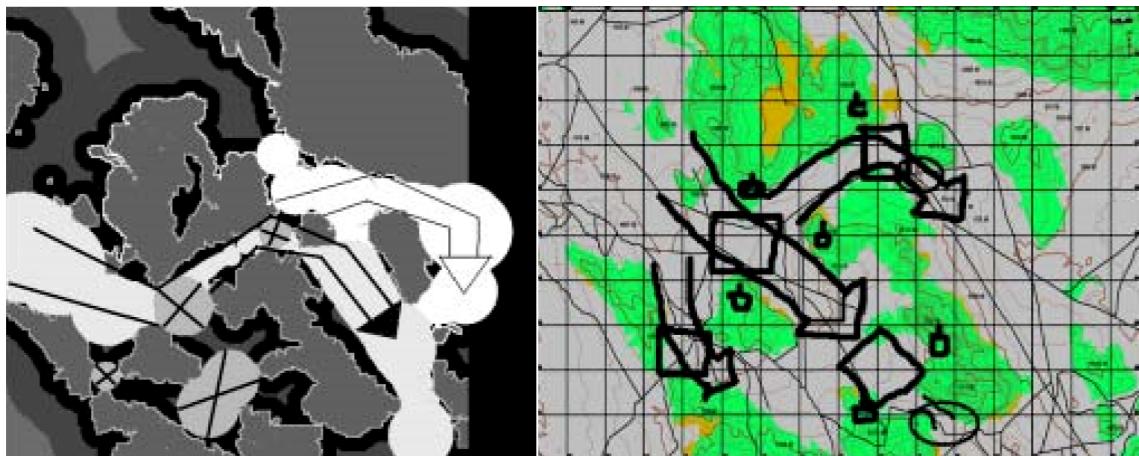


Fig. 4.7 Avenues of approaches by researcher's algorithms (LEFT) and subject matter expert(RIGHT), (C. Grindle, M. Lewis, R. Clinton, J. Giampapa, and K. Owens 2004, Fig. 5 and 6, p. 4)

Then [Figure 4.8](#) shows the our IPB tool generated avenues of approaches for the same map created by us on our tool.

So the avenues of approaches generated by our tool seems much similar to the avenues drawn by subject matter experts in the given research. There are basic three avenues suggested by the SME as well as our system. In the referenced research's output, only

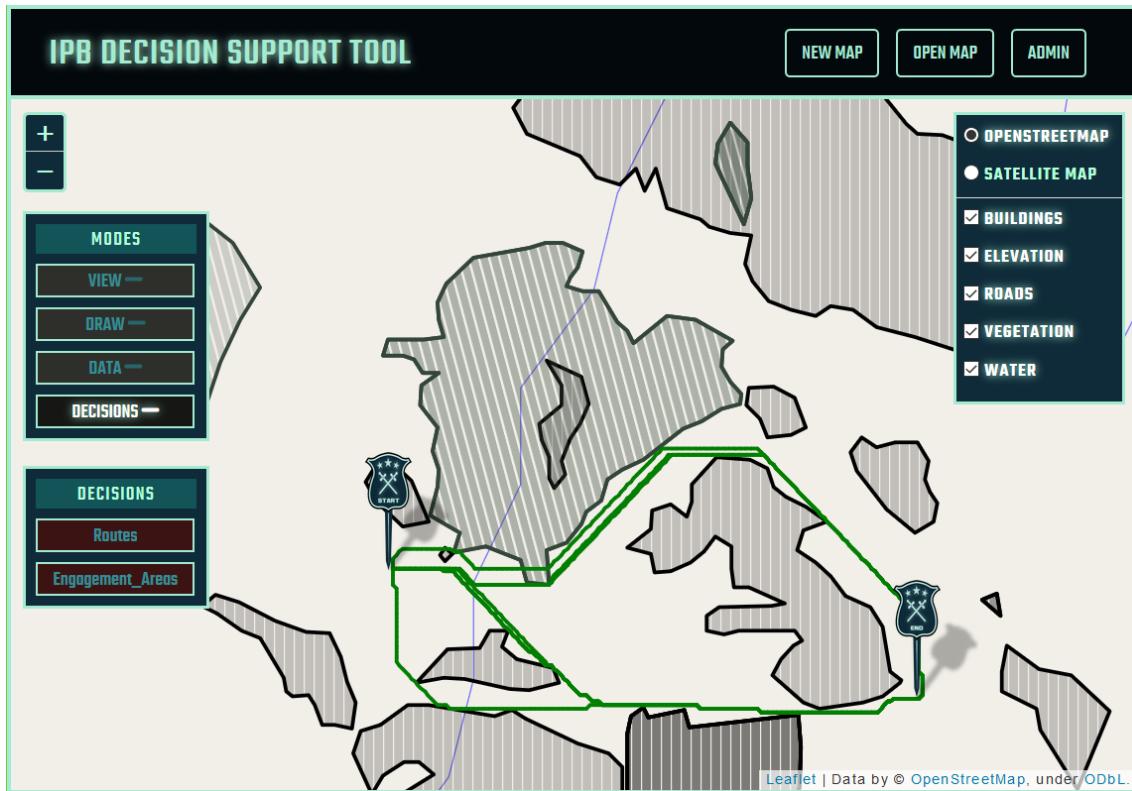


Fig. 4.8 Avenues of approaches by our IPB tool

two avenues are suggested. Also our result contain risk estimation values for the avenues as well if enemy locations were annotated.

Also the algorithm used by the referenced research is based on a voronoi diagram method. So that approach is giving a complex scenario when comes to larger maps as well as much time as concluded in [Figure 4.5](#). So for larger maps with more details like buildings, water bodies the voronoi diagram become complex and give very high number of paths. So removing unwanted paths is difficult. So for each larger and smaller maps with any amount of features the approach taken by our algorithms is good.

Chapter 5

Conclusions and Future Works

Building a tool for battlefield area evaluation, storing and visualizing information, and supporting decision making for troop maneuver planning is the primary objective of this project. In the IPB process also the objective is to build the combined obstacle overlay to use for troop locating and maneuver planning. Avenues of approach, Engagement areas, Defensible terrain are some final high level information obtained through the combined obstacle overlay. In this research we could develop algorithms and the tool to generate and display avenues of approach successfully.

we looked at the low level environmental factors such as ground, and environment data. We developed a database of predefined terrain features data like building, elevation, vegetation, water and roads for any location. In this project we just included data for only Sri Lanka. So any default terrain data for a battlefield are automatically obtained by the tool. Then we build a mechanism to display in on the map as overlays. Also implemented method to put user defined features to overlays. We could developed a backend to store, edit and give the battlefield data separately. Using a REST API, we connected the backend with frontend IPB tool to enable operations on overlays.

We obtained trafficability grid using a grid based model for processing overlay data. In the decision support development part we explored three different approaches to use trafficability grid to generate avenues of approach, which was a main requirement in IPB process. Finally we compared and further developed the best and more practical approach from those three. we finally developed the algorithms for the avenues of approach generation. Then We developed algorithms to find threat level for paths due to enemy. Finally we compared our output avenues with available paths generating platforms like Google maps and the avenues suggested by subject matter experts in related researches.

As planned in milestones we implemented only avenues of approaches finding using trafficability grid. So there are few other high-level terrain information such as key terrain, defensible terrain and engagement areas. So as a future work those goals must be accomplished.

Also there are few other terrain information that need to be fused with terrain data like weather and soil type. So we couldn't combine those data due to lack of those data. If those data also got fused, the we could obtain more accurate results. So that need to be done as a future target.

Also when considering the threat from enemy we developed the algorithm to change the enemy range of threat according to elevation, vegetation, surrounding buildings and height of enemy building. So in future works, enemy must be more customized like several types of enemy like snipers, normal ones, scouts so on. Then that type also will effect the enemy range.

Also currently we are obtaining the threat from enemy to the avenues. so in future version when there is a considerable high threat from a enemy location to a path, that path should be minimized to avoid that threat making a new path.

References

- [1] P.Skalický and T.Palasiewicz, “Intelligence preparation of the battlefield as a part of knowledge development,” 2017.
- [2] R. Clinton, S. Owens, J. Giampapa, K. Sycara, C. Grindle, and M. Lewis, “Terrain-based information fusion and inference,” *Proc. Seventh Int. Conf. Inf. Fusion, FUSION 2004*, vol. 1, pp. 338–345, 2004.
- [3] C. Grindle, M. Lewis, R. Clinton, J. Giampapa, and K. Owens, Sean Sycara, “Automating Terrain Analysis: Algorithms for Intelligence Preparation of the Battlefield,” *Proceedings of the Human Factors and Ergonomics Society Annual Meeting*, vol. 48, no. 3, pp. 533–537, 2004.
- [4] C. J. James Donlon and K. D. Forbus, “Using a Geographic Information System for Qualitative Spatial Reasoning about Trafficability,” *Proc. QR99*, pp. 1–11, 1999.
- [5] K. K. Rowel and H. Ranasinghe, “Impact of gis modelling in military operational planning.”
- [6] E. D. Porter, “An overview of the army gis research program,” 1987.
- [7] W. Headquarters, Department of the Army, “Terrain analysis,” *Encyclopedia of Geographic Information Science*, 1990.
- [8] M. C. A. Agee, “INTELLIGENCE PREPARATION OF THE BATTLEFIELD (IPB),” *Society*, vol. 1387, no. 22, pp. 1383–1387, 1987.
- [9] U. W. Mark Meeder, Tobias Aebi, “The influence of slope on walking activity and the pedestrian modal share,” *20th EURO Working Group on Transportation Meeting*, 2017.
- [10] D. E. Sidran, “TIGER: AN UNSUPERVISED MACHINE LEARNING TACTICAL INFERENCE GENERATOR,” 2009.

-
- [11] P. Svenson and H. Sidenbladh, “Determining possible avenues of approach using ANT,” 2003.