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1 Introduction

1.1 Introduction

These days, mobile robots have taken place in many fields like industry automation, planetary exploration, entertainment, and construction ..., for their ability to work in extreme environments with high precision and without fatigue[1]. Even so, a robot occasionally needs the support of other robots because it is impossible or difficult for them to perform some tasks on their own. For that, a new field has emerged to deal with these problems, swarm robotics.

Swarm robotics is relatively a new research topic that has gained more attraction in the last few years. It is about studying how a large number of simple robots (a swarm) can collaborate and work together to achieve predefined objectives and tasks that are often difficult or impossible to do for a single robot.[2].

One of the main challenges that swarm robotics researchs face, is pattern formation. Where the agents (robots) try to form different geometric shapes like squares, triangles and circles in order to perform a specific task.

We can solve this problem using two different approaches. The first one is a Centralized method where there exist a central unit which controls the swarm and give global state access. However, implementing this approach can be costly and less robust to failures. The second approach is a decentralized one, where each robot have uses local communication and have access only to his local state.[3]

Our primary objective in this thesis is to implement an RL algorithm in a system made up of a group of robots in order to form some specific geometric patterns using a decentralized method. Each robot will only have access to its local state and will interact and communicate with its neighbors in order to form the desired shapes.

2 Swarm Robotics

2.1 Swarm Intelligence and Social animal inspiration

Social animal and insects behavior in groups like the bees dancing, wasp's nest-building, ant's collaboration, bird flocking and fish schooling has caught the attention of researchers for their ability to archive complex tasks and working in coordination, which demonstrate some form of swarm intelligence that researchers have taken inspiration from to design and implement swarm robotics systems.[4]

They also report that social insects were able to accomplish their goals like searching for food, alerting the presence of an enemy, or collaborate to lift heavy objects, without having access to the global state or having a leader to guide them. They were only able to accomplish this by utilizing local interactions and communication, which spread to other members and prompted group-wide cooperation.[4]

2.2 Swarm robotics and multi robot systems

The early 1980s are when multi robots systems first gained popularity. As the name suggests, multi robot systems introduce the idea of teamwork in order to complete tasks that are challenging or impossible to complete alone by the robots. Seven topics of study have been identified in this field which includes:

- Biological Inspirations;
- Communication
- Localization, mapping, and exploration;
- Object transport and manipulation;
- Motion coordination;
- Reconfigurable robots.

Swarm robotics is a subfield of multi-robot systems that differs from other multi-robot systems in some ways.[5]

2.3 Swarm robotics

Swarm robotics has no one definition because it is a rapidly developing area and new research is constantly being done in it. But we can take this definition from a cited paper. "swarm robotics is the study of how large number of relatively simple physically embodied agents can be designed such that a desired collective behavior

emerges from the local interactions among agents and between the agents and the environment.” [6].

The main characters of swarm robotis are:

- The robots in the swarm must be autonomous.
- The number of robots in the swarm is large.
- Homogeneity is required in robots. A small number is acceptable if not.
- Robots must be incompetent with regard to the primary task they must complete, otherwise, they will fail or perform poorly.
- Robots are limited to local communication and sensing. It makes sure that coordination is spread, making scalability one of the system’s characteristics.[4]

2.4 Swarm robotics properties

Swarm robotics have some properties that describe the system’s current condition. Bellow are some of these properties:

Robustness: the ability of the swarm to still function even with the loss of some members of the group or the faillure of some parts of the system.

Scalability: The ability of the system to perform well on smaller or larger group sizes without impacting the performance of the swarm.

Flexibility It is the capability of the swarm to adapt and manage the new changes that occur in the environment

Autonomus: Implys that there is no central authority controlling the behavior of the swarm and each individual is independent of the others.

Local communication The communication among swarm members is local since they don’t have access to the swarm’s overall state. [7][8]

2.5 Domain of application

In this section, we will list some of the significant fields domains where swarm robotics fits in, and can impact in solving the domain problem.

2.5.1 Tasks that cover a region

: Because of the widespread sensing capabilities that the swarm has, swarm robotics is most suited for tackling problems that cover an area of the space, such monitoring the environment of a lake or surveillance of a specific area.[6][8]

2.5.2 Search and rescue missions

In different types of accident or disasters that happen like earthquakes where the human intervention is difficult, swarm robots can be deployed for these type of missions. examples of such robots are: polyobot, swarm bot and M-TRAN.

2.5.3 Cleaning of oil speals

A swarm of robots can reduce the cost and time in such incidents. an exemple of robots that were deployed to such tasks is: Seaswarm, which was developed by the senseable group at MIT.

2.5.4 Exploration

To investigate Mars, swarm robots like Marsbees have been created. the same holds true for the CoCoRo swarm, which was employed for in-depth underwater investigation.

2.5.5 Agriculture

As they can be used to improve the agriculture and monitor the status of crops.

2.6 Swarm robotics basic tasks and problems

SR problems can be broken down into fundamental tasks that the swarm frequently carries out in an effort to accomplish its objective. these tasks are: aggregation, dispersion, pattern formation, coordinated movement, hole avoidance and foraging[3][4].

2.6.1 Aggregation

Aggregation of the robots is performed in order to accomplish some form or to exchange information. This problem can be easy in a centralized system, but difficult in a decentralized one.

2.6.2 Dispersion

For exploration purposes, sometimes, the swarm must cover a wide range of area without losing the connection between the members, in order to expand the group sensing capabilities.

2.6.3 Pattern formation

Sometimes, the swarm must form some specific patterns like circles, squares or lines in order to lift some objects or traverse some ways corridors.

2.6.4 Coordinated movement

It is making an effort to coordinate the group movements by maintaining the established pattern between the robots.

2.6.5 Hole avoidance

As suggested by the name, the group makes an effort to avoid stepping into holes.

2.6.6 Foraging

The swarm aims to locate objects, pick them up, and position them where needed.

3 Deep reinforcement learning

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter we will provide an overview about the field of reinforcement learning, including its applications, various techniques, and how it relates to swarm robots. Before that, we will briefly discuss machine learning since it is the foundation of RL before we move on.

3.2 Machine learning

Machine learning is a sub field of artificial intelligence, which focuses on developing algorithms and models that make prediction and take decisions without being explicitly programmed to do so based on the input data they receive. Generally speaking, there are three types of machine learning algorithms, supervised algorithms which obtain labeled data and attempt to categorize or anticipate the unknown one. Un-supervised learning algorithms, where the data is unlabeled and it is the job of the ml algorithms to extract hidden patterns in it. And finally, reinforcement learning algorithms where the algorithm learns to make decisions based on trial and error and rewards, by interacting with an environment.

3.3 Reinforcement learning

Reinforcement learning algorithms are based on a agent that interact and observe an environment in order to take actions that maximize the reward for a given task.

The goal of the agent is to learn an optimal policy (Π) which maps state to actions in order to get the best possible action to take in a given situation. This can be achieved by maximizing the expected reward that the agent receive from the environment on each step he takes.[9]

Formally, RL can be described as a Markov Decision Process (MPD) where the future state depends only on the current one. An MPD consists of:

- A set of states S
- A set of actions A
- A transition dynamics $\rho(S_{t+1}|a, S)$. which give the probability of being in state S_{t+1} based on the current state S and the performed action A .
- A reward function $R(S_t, A_t, S_{t+1})$ which outputs a scalar reward $r_t \in R$.
- A discount factor $\gamma \in [0, 1]$ which emphasis either immediate or future rewards.

From the above definition, the policy function Π will map a given state to a probability distribution over actions: $\Pi : S \longrightarrow \rho(A = a|S)$. The goal of the agent is to find the optimal policy Π which maximizes the expected return :

$$\Pi^* = \operatorname{argmax}_{\Pi} E[R|\pi]$$

If the MPD is episodic, then the agent will accumulate a set of rewards at the end of each episode which is called a return:

$$R = \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \gamma^t r_{t+1}$$

Setting $\gamma < 1$ will ensure the convergence of the return in case of non episodic MPDS.[9].

3.4 Q learning

Q-learning is a type of model free reinforcement learning algorithm based on the dynamic programming technique, where the agent tries to maximize its rewards by finding the optimal policy Π in an iterative manner. In order to achieve this, the agent uses a type of equation called value function that gives it the value or the reward of being in a state s and taking action according to its policy Π .

$$V^{\Pi}(S) = E[r(s, a) + \gamma V^{\Pi}(s')]$$

In order to find the optimal value function, hence finding the optimal policy, the equation must satisfy the Bellman optimality condition which states that:

$$V^*(S) = \max_a E[r(s, a) + \gamma V^*(s')]$$

The same goes for the action-value function which gives the return if the agent chooses the action a and follows the optimal policy thereafter.

$$Q^*(S, a) = E[r(s, a) + \max_a \gamma Q^*(s', a)]$$

[10].

3.5 Deep Q learning

The problem with traditional Q-learning or RL algorithms in general, is the inability to work in a high dimensional input states where discretization and hand-crafted features extraction is performed in order to it to work. For this, deep learning was combined with traditional Q-learning in order to overcome these challenges.[11]

Deep Q learning was firstly introduced in an article by the deepmind group, where it was tested in atari games in which the agent was given raw input images of the emulator and it was the goal of the agents to win the games by using the Q learning algorithm.

Besides using the bellmen equation to converge and calculate the loss, an experience replay memory was used to store the the experiences of the agents during the game and then sampled randomly to be fed to the neural network to learn and in order to break the correlation that appears when feeding them sequential data.[11]

Algorithm 1 Deep Q-learning with Experience Replay

```

Initialize replay memory D to capacity N
Initialize action-value function Q with random weights
for episode = 1, M do
    Initialise sequence  $s_1 = \{x_1\}$  and preprocessed sequenced  $\phi_1 = \phi(s_1)$ 
    for  $t = 1, T$  do
        With probability  $\epsilon$  select a random action  $a_t$ 
        otherwise select  $a_t = \max_a Q^*(\phi(s_t, a; \theta))$ 
        Execute action  $a_t$  in emulator and observe reward  $r_t$  and image  $x_{t+1}$ 
        Set  $s_{t+1} = s_t, a_t, x_{t+1}$  and preprocess  $\phi_{t+1} = \phi(s_{t+1})$ 
        Store transition  $(\phi_t, a_t, r_t, \phi_{t+1})$  in  $D$ 
        Sample random minibatch of transitions  $(\phi_t, a_t, r_t, \phi_{t+1})$  in  $D$ 
        set
            
$$y_j = \begin{cases} r_j, & \text{for terminal } \phi_{j+1}. \\ r_j + \gamma \max_a Q(\phi_{j+1}, a'; \theta), & \text{for non-terminal } Q(\phi_{j+1}). \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

        Perform a gradient descent step on  $(y_j - Q(\phi_j, a_j; \theta))$ 
    end for
end for

```

3.6 Deep Deterministic policy gradient

One of the major problems of DQN is that he works only in discrete action spaces. For this, tasks that require continuous control, such as the linear and rotational movements of robots, require discretization. In most cases, this can result in a large action space, which slows convergence and causes instability.. [12]

For this, there is another type of DRL algorithms named Deep Deterministic policy gradient, which is a policy based method actor critic algorithm, that takes the benefits of both methods (policy based method and value based method, and uses the actor critic to reduce the bias (underfitting) that occurs ...

DDPG is composed of two neural networks: the actor and the critic. The job of the actor is to select an action based on the input state. And it is the critic who will determine if that action was suitable or not by observing the rewards returned when taking that specific action in a specific state.

The critic network is learned using Bellman equation same as Q-learning.

The DDPG algorithm also uses a replay buffer to store agent experiences in order to sample from them later when training the networks.

Like in Q-learning and to enable better exploration for the agent, a noise is sampled from a process η then added to the output of the actor network. It is common to use the Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process to generate temporally correlated values.[12]

Algorithm 2 Deep Deterministic Policy Gradient (DDPG)

- 1: Initialize actor network $\mu(s|\theta^\mu)$ and critic network $Q(s, a|\theta^Q)$ with weights θ^μ and θ^Q
 - 2: Initialize target networks $\mu'(s|\theta^{\mu'}) \leftarrow \mu(s|\theta^\mu)$ and $Q'(s, a|\theta^{Q'}) \leftarrow Q(s, a|\theta^Q)$ with weights $\theta^{\mu'} \leftarrow \theta^\mu$ and $\theta^{Q'} \leftarrow \theta^Q$
 - 3: Initialize replay buffer R
 - 4: **for** episode = 1 to M **do**
 - 5: Initialize a random process for action exploration
 - 6: Receive initial observation state s_1
 - 7: **for** $t = 1$ to T **do**
 - 8: Select action $a_t = \mu(s_t|\theta^\mu) + \mathcal{N}t$ according to current policy and exploration noise $\mathcal{N}t$
 - 9: Execute action a_t and observe reward r_t and new state $st + 1$
 - 10: Store transition $(s_t, a_t, r_t, st + 1)$ in R
 - 11: Sample a random minibatch of N transitions (s_i, a_i, r_i, s_{i+1}) from R
 - 12: Set $y_i = r_i + \gamma Q'(s_{i+1}, \mu'(s_{i+1}|\theta^{\mu'})|\theta^{Q'})$
 - 13: Update critic by minimizing the loss: $\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i (y_i - Q(s_i, a_i|\theta^Q))^2$
 - 14: Update actor policy using the sampled policy gradient: $\nabla_{\theta^\mu} J \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_i \nabla_a Q(s, a|\theta^Q)|_{s=s_i, a=\mu(s_i)} \nabla \theta^\mu \mu(s|\theta^\mu)|_{s_i}$
 - 15: Update target networks: $\theta^{\mu'} \leftarrow \tau \theta^\mu + (1-\tau) \theta^{\mu'}$ and $\theta^{Q'} \leftarrow \tau \theta^Q + (1-\tau) \theta^{Q'}$
 - 16: **end for**
 - 17: **end for**
-

3.7 Related Work

In this section, we present some of the work that have applied RL algorithms in training agents and robotics systems.

The most used algorithm is Deep Q learning, where [11] have applied it in learning playing atari games by using a convolutional neural network by providing raw image pixels as input, where they demonstrated that the agents achieved great performance even surpassing human level.

In continuous action spaces, [12] have used the ddpq algorithm, which is an extension of the DQN and the DPG algorithms. They have used an actor critic model free policy based algorithm which operates in continuous action space by applying it in several simulated physics tasks, and also shows great results achieved by the agents.

In the field of multi agents, [13] where they used a decentralized approach to train multi agent to form some patterns using the DQN network with a central replay buffer that contains agents' experiences in order for them to learn cooperatively.

For robotics, [14] have used the Proximal policy optimization algorithm (PPO) which is a policy based one, to control in a decentralized manner a group of robots to reach their target by avoiding collision between them. Also in [15] have used the ddpq algorithm to train multiple robots to encircle some target in a static position or

in mouvement where the agents (robots) learn to coopretivly achevce their task by using also a central replay memory.

Finnnaly, in [16],[17] and [18] have applied the ddpq and dqn algorithms for path playing and postion control of robots in order to achive the target goals.

4 Problem formulation And Solution Conception

4.1 Introduction

In this section, we'll go into detail about the objective that needs to be accomplished by our robots, the difficulties they must overcome, and then our suggested solution.

4.2 Goal definition

: Our objective in this thesis is to make multi robots form geometric patterns like lines, circles, squares, and triangles while avoiding collisions and moving toward their destination in a quick and efficient manner.

4.3 Problem Formulation

4.3.1 Environement

We will describe our multi robot environemnt as an MDP where S are the set of states that each robot will reactive. A are the set of actions that it can take (left,right,towards ...). and R are the set of Rewards that each robot will get during each episode. The goal of each robot is to maximize his return by reaching the goal target and avoiding collisons with the wall and other robots. . We will use the DDPG alrorphism to controll the robots in a contius manner

For the environemnt, we will Consider a scenario in which there are n ($n > 2$) robots moving in a 2D environment. Assuming that every robot is aware of a central point that they must form shapes around or along it.



Figure 1: formation

We'll utilize the polar coordinates (R, Φ) , where R and Φ are the radius and angle from the central point, respectively. After assigning each robot a goal position, we will convert it to homogeneous coordinates so it may be reached by them. The desired shapes will be formed by defining the distance and the angle from the center of the formation and by using each robot id to generate unique goal for it.

4.3.2 Shape generation

In order to form the different shapes, each robot will have an $id = (1...n)$ where n is the number of robots, and he will get assigned a goal based on it using the radius and the distance from the central point. So if the target shape is a triangle the target goals will be as follow:

$$d_i = R \text{ and } \Phi_i = \Phi$$

where d_i and Φ_i are the distance and the angle from the central point respectively.

So if they want to form triangles, squares, or circles this will be their positions:

$$d_i = R$$

$$\Phi_i = 2\pi/id$$

For lines

$$d_i = R * id \quad \Phi_i = 0$$

and we can keep modifying the distance and angle for each robot to get any shape.

And to simplify the job for the robot, we will transform the coordinates from polar to homogenous in order to calculate the distance between the robot and their target goal.

4.4 State Representation

4.4.1 Introduction

The state and reward function must be well designed in order to generate the desired shape because how they are represented will directly impact our robot's performance towards achieving their goals and the architecture of the neural network.

4.4.2 State Representation

State are the inputs to our neural network. They are the inputs for our neural network and based on them, we can calculate the rewards that the robot will get when acting in the environment.

In our implementation we have defined four kind of state information, the distance to goal, angle to goal, the minimum detected object distance and its angle for collision avoidance.

- **The distance to goal:** The first component in our state representation is the distance to goal, which will be calculated using the euclidean distance between the robot and the goal .

$$D(P, G) = \sqrt{(Py - Gy)^2 + (Px - Gx)^2}$$

Where P and G are the current homogeneous coordinates of the robot and the target goal respectively.

- **The angle to goal:** The second component is the angle to goal. And to find it we need to calculate the difference between the robot yaw, which is it's orientation around it's vertical axis, and the angle between the goal and the robot positions.

$$\theta(P, G) = yaw - arctan(P/G)$$

- **The minimum detected distance:** In order to detect other robots and avoid collision, we use an LDS (we will talk about it later when we describe the robot equipment) which gives us an array of 24 elements where each value is the minimum distance detected and each index is the angle of detection.
- **The angle of detection:** It is is the angle of the detected object relative to the robot lds.

This is a common state representation used to control a moving robot towards the goal target,as they have provide a very clear guidance for it. [18] [17]

In the next part, we will talk how we calculate the rewards of each robot to guide it in a efficent manner towards it goal based on the state input .

4.5 Reward Function Design

The reward function design is a critical part of any RL system. A well designed reward function will give the robot more feedback when acting in the environment thus making the task more straight forward.

The reward function was designed to engourge and reward the robot more, when he aproches the goal target, and penilize him when he collide with the wall or other robots.

The design of the function is based on the state. We have used the distance , the angle and the LDS to form the final function.

We have divided the function into three parts: The first part contains with the distance reward. We will give the robot more reward when he aproches the target goal and less when he doesn't. Formally it can be described:

$$R_D = -(D_{goal} - D_{init}) + \alpha \quad (1)$$

Where D_{goal} is the changing distance between the robot and the target goal, D_{init} is the initial distance between the robot and the target goal. and α is a parameter to adjust.

The second part is to the angle of the robot to the goal. formally:

$$R_\theta = -(\theta_{goal}) + \beta \quad (2)$$

where θ_{goal} ranges between $-\pi$ and π . we added the β which add some reward when the angle aproches zero.

And For avoiding collion between the robots and the wall, we have set two values. The first one is set when the robot aproches the object which can lead to a collision. And the second one is when is actualy collide with it.

$$R_c = \begin{cases} -10, & \text{if } mdd < 0.5m. \\ -500, & \text{if } mdd < 0.13m \text{ (a crash) }. \\ 0 & \text{else.} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

where mdd stands for the minimum detected distance. Finally, we can add 1, 2 and 3 to form the finale reward function:

$$R = R_D + R_\theta + R_c \quad (4)$$

4.6 Formation Control Algorithm

Algorithm 3 Shape Formation Algorithm

```
1: Initialize  $n = N$  number of robots.
2: Initialize  $c = 0$  goal counter.
3: Assign each robot an id starting from  $id = 1 \dots N$ 
4: Set the central robot with  $id = 1$ .
5: The central robot will choose a random position and stay on it.
6: The central broadcast a message containing his position with the desired shape
   by using the distance  $d$  and angle  $\theta$  from his position.
7: while  $c \neq N$  do
8:   for robot in robots do
9:     Receive the message with the target goal.
10:    Reach the target goal.
11:    Inform the central robot with his current positions every  $tseconds$ .
12:    if target position reached then
13:      Stop the robot and inform the central robot.
14:       $c++$ 
15:    end if
16:  end for
17: end while
```

4.6.1 Explanation

The first robot will choose a random position and place himself in it. Then he broadcast a msg containing his position and the target positions to other robots in order to form the shape by using the distance and the angle.

Once the message received by other robots, each one of them will try to reach the target goal autonomously by avoiding collision with other robots. And once they reach their goal they will inform the central robot with their task completion.

Finally, and if all robots are in place, the central robot will check the state of the formation and declare the task as complete if all the shape is formed correctly.

4.7 Formation and Deep Reinforcement Learning

4.7.1 Introduction

Until now, we haven't talk about the role of DRL in this mission.

Each robot will have its own neural network which will guide him towards the goal positions by avoiding obstacles with other robots.

As mentioned earlier, we have used the DDPG algorithm where each robot will have two neural networks, the critic and the actor.

The actor model will get as input the mentioned state and outputs two actions: the angle and the velocity.

The robot will learn to move towards the goal by adjusting the angle and will use the velocity to learn how to move faster in certain conditions and when not. For example the velocity will help him in collision avoidance. If he doesn't detect any robots in front of him he moves faster, else he slows down.

For the critic, he gets as input both the state and the actions, and outputs the q-value which will be used by the actor to choose the suitable actions to take.

4.7.2 The learning flow

It starts by the robot being in a given state, he then takes an action, receive a reward and transition to a new state.

This informations will be stored in a replay buffer, and once it reach a certain number of experiences the training starts.

If all robots reach their goal, the simulation is reset and a another formation shape is generated in order to prevent overfitting a certain type of shapes.

And if they collide the simulation is reset allso and the robots tries again to form the desired shape.

This learning flow will continue until the models converge and the robots form the shapes many times respectively.

4.8 Neural network design

Designing the architecture of the neural networks and choosing the right parameters to fit is a crucial part to converge and obtain better performance.

There is a high number of parameters to choose from, hidden layers, number of units, activation functions, weight initlization, regularization ... and each one of them has it's role, and there is no clear rule for the right one to choose, so trial and experimenting is the way to go.

In this section, we will discuss what parameters we choosed and explain the reason behind them.

For the actor network, we set for hidden layers where each layer has 400, 300, 128 and 64 units respectively. Each layer is using the relu activation function and was initialized with Xavier Glorot's exepect for the output layers. The output layers have two units, one for the angular velocity and one for the linear velocity. They was initalized with the tanh activation function which give an output bounded beteween -1 and 1. We choose the angular velocity of the robot to be between $-\Pi$ and Π so

we multiplied the result of the output layer to get the desired range. Same goes for the linear velocity we have mapped the range from -1 and 1 to 0.2 to 0.5.

And to enable better exploration, we have added the OuNoise to the output of the actor network when taking actions which will sample a range of values from a uniform distribution.

We have also used batch normalization layers [19] which is a technique for normalizing the output for each layer that has an effect of stabilizing the training process and making it converge faster especially if the initial distribution of the input data is varying. It also acts as a regularizer so no need for dropout layers.

As for the critic, he gets as input both the state and actions and outputs the q-value. Firstly, we pass the states and actions into separate layers with number of units of 512 and 256 respectively. Then, we concatenate them into one layer and add two other hidden layers with 256 number of units with a dropout of 0.2.

For loss calculation, we will be using target networks like described in the algorithms and updating them using soft update with parameters tau of 0.01

The critic loss, will be between the predicted value of the critic network and y:

$$closs = loss(critic(state, actions), reward + \gamma * targetcritic(nextstates, nextactions) * (1 - done)). \quad (5)$$

where the loss function is the mean squared error.

For the actor, it will be the mean predicted value of the critic network multiplied by - as he is trying to maximize the q-value.

$$aloss = -mean(critic(states, actions)) \quad (6)$$

We have used the Adam optimizer for both networks with learning rates of 0.01 and 0.001 for the critic and actor respectively. We set the batch size to 128 and the minimum size of the replay buffer before training start to 2500 samples.

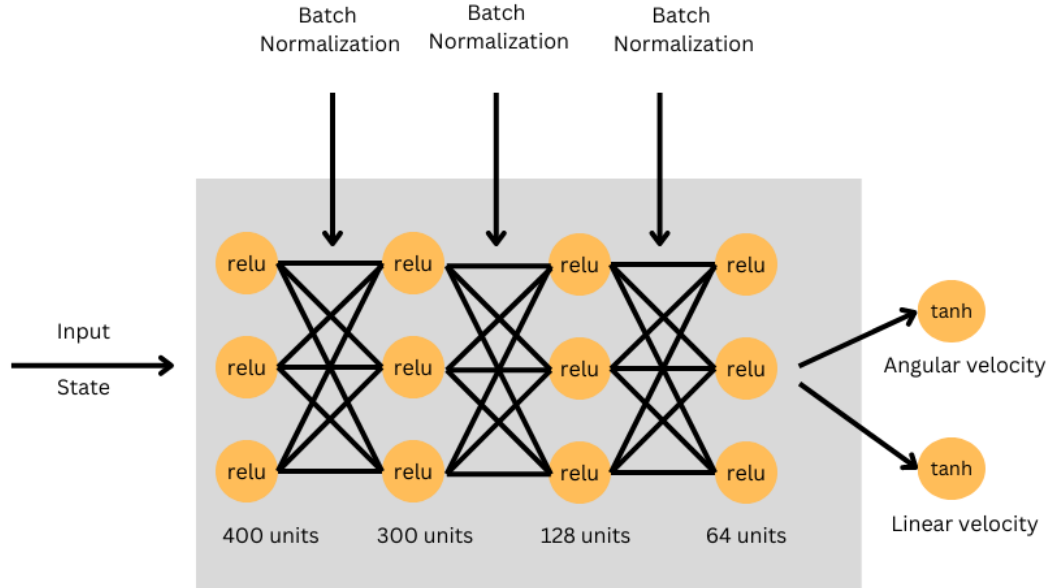


Figure 2: actor network

4.9 Roboting Operating system

We will use the roboting operating system (ROS), a collection of open source software and tools, to control the robots. ROS will simplify our work by giving us the necessary tools for controlling the robots, determining their positions and angles, gathering sensor data and preparing it for manipulation, and also giving the robots a way to communicate with one another.

4.9.1 Ros Basics

There are five concepts that ROS is built on that will allow us to implement our solution in simple and modular way.

- **Nodes:** ros is made up of noes where each node is responsible for a single giving task like moving the robot, getting sensor data, doing some processing ... nodes can communicate between the using topics and services.
- **Topics:** topics are a way for nodes to communicate between them. Each node can either subscribe to a topic thus reactiving informations from other nodes, or publish to some topic to send information to other nodes.

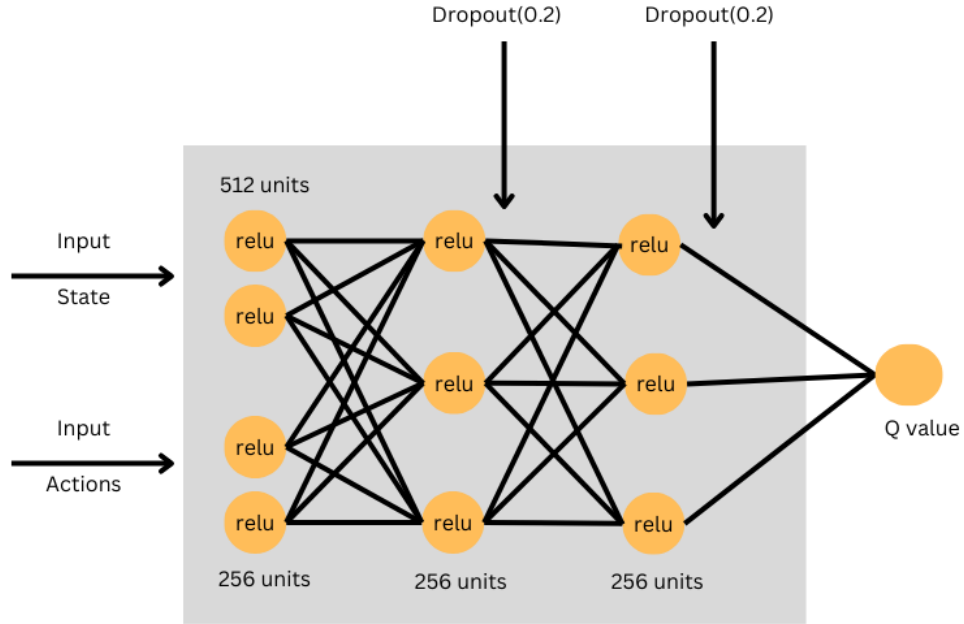


Figure 3: critic network

For example: a node can subscribe to a topic that publish the position of the robot from another node which is responsible for providing this information.

- **Services:** They are the same as topics but they differ in that data is received when requested by a client in contrast to topics where there are a stream of data updated continuously.

For example: We can have a service that generate goals or reset the simulation.

4.10 TurtleBot

We will be using the turtlebot robot which is developed by open robotics. They same organization behind ros and the gazebo simulator.

This robot is used for educational, research and prototyping purposes, where multiple version have been developed. In this thesis, we will be using the turtlebot3-burger version.[20]

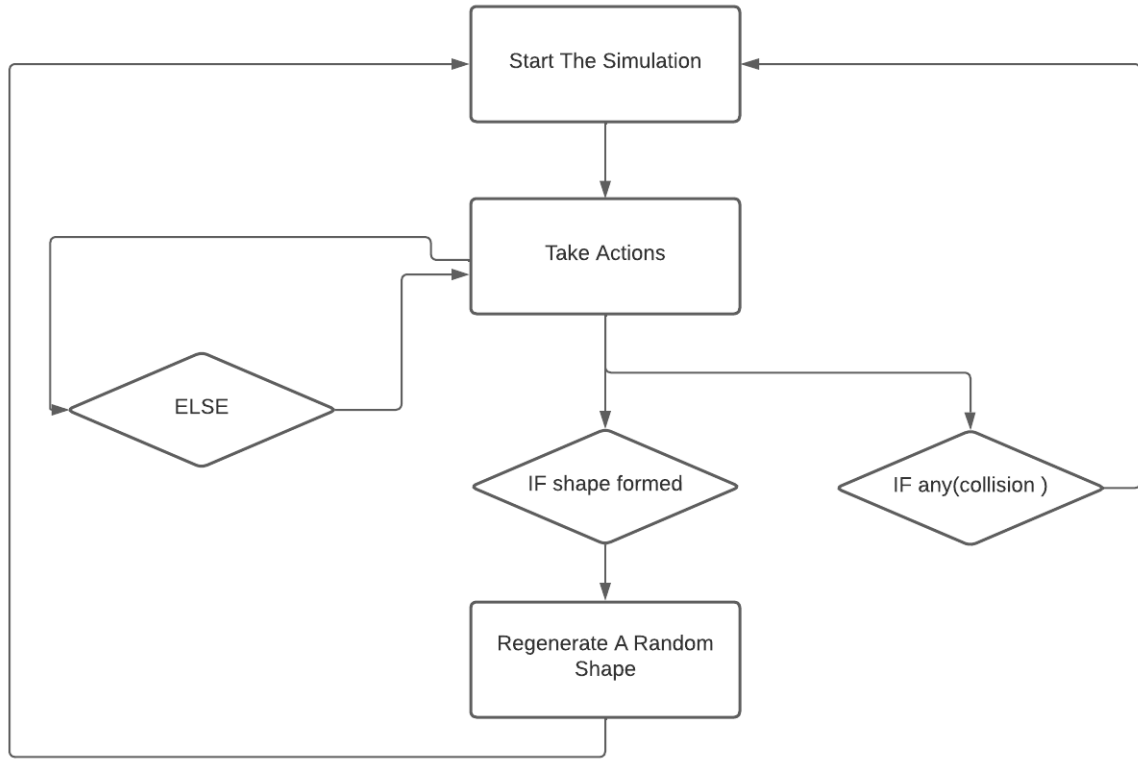


Figure 4: simulation low

4.10.1 TurtleBot3 components

TurtleBot3 is a two wheeled, small size robot composed of many parts that generally robots have like Gyroscope, Accelerometer and Programmable LEDs ..., and he uses Raspberry Pi as the core computer board.

But the most important component, and what we will relay on in this project is the Laser Distance Sensor or (LDS) which gives a 360 degree sensing of ob objects in the environemnt with a maximun distance of 3.5m

The (LDS) was the main source of data to train our neural networks besides the robots positions. we have used it to detect other robots and to avoid collisions during the navigation.

4.11 Gazebo simulator

Gazebo is an open source collection of software libraries that have been developed for robotics developers and educationers.

It consists of a simulator that can be used to spawn robots, design environement , put obstacles , run diffrents expiriments, all this with real interaction and simulation of the real world phisics.

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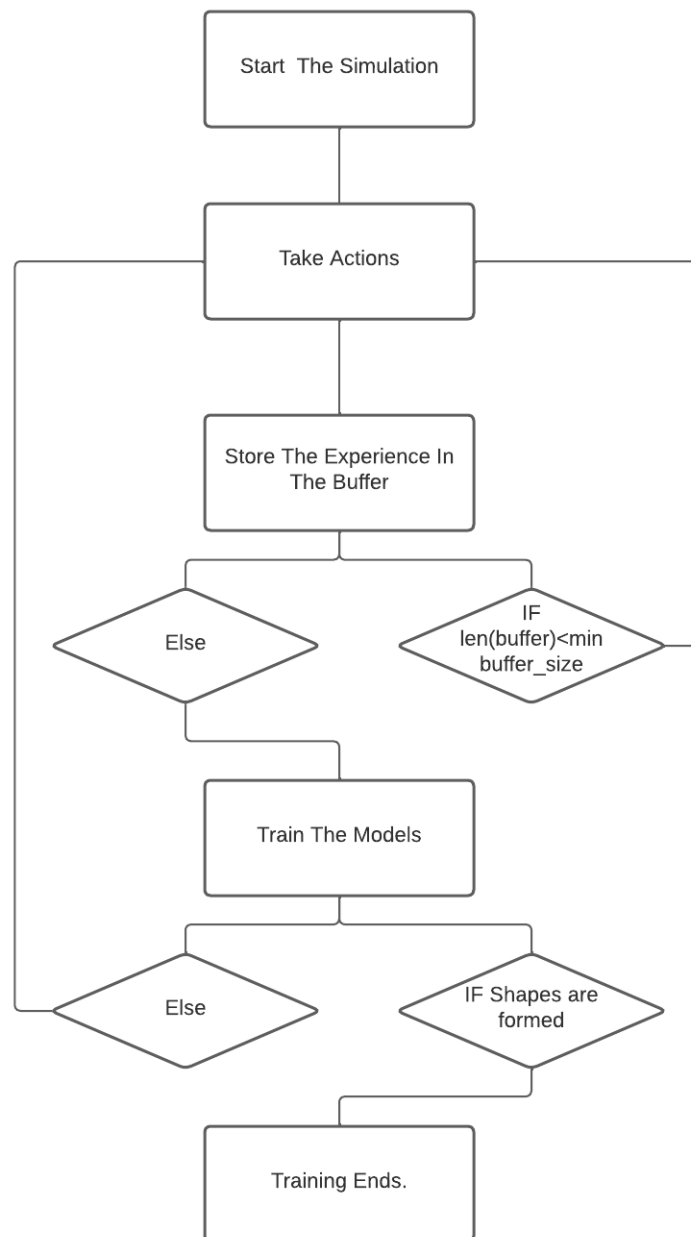


Figure 5: training flow

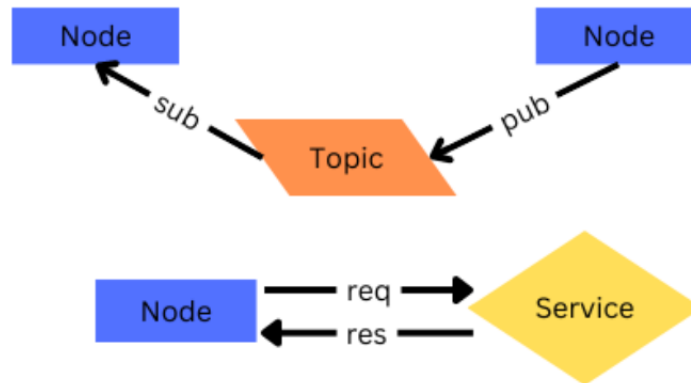


Figure 6: Ros

TurtleBot3 Burger

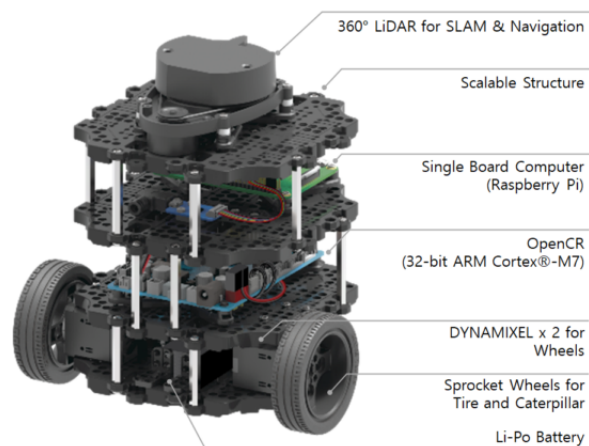


Figure 7: TurtleBot3 [ref:<https://emanual.robotis.com/>]]

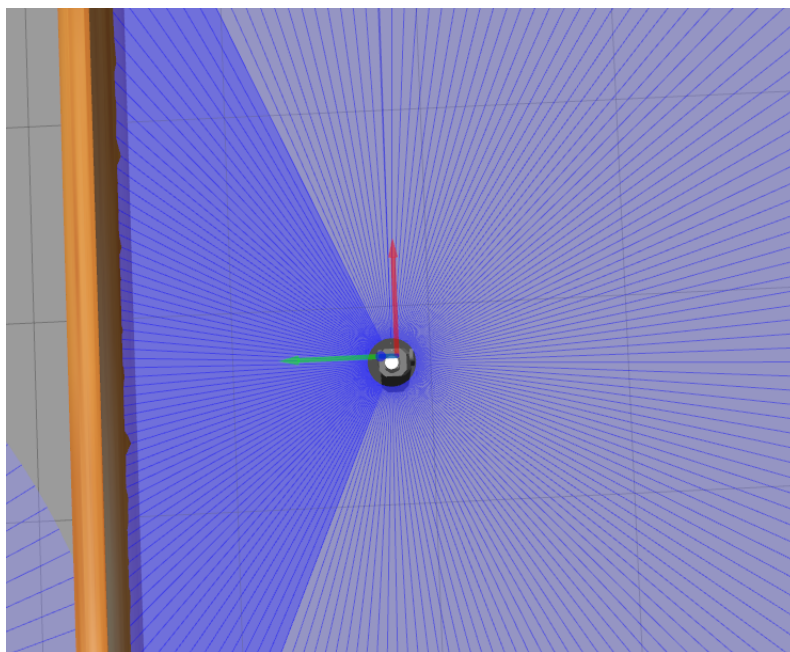


Figure 8: TurbleBot3 Lds