Honeycomb Layout Inspired Motion of Robots for Topological Mapping

Raul F. Santana and George A. P. Thé

Department of Teleinformatics, Federal University of Ceará, Fortaleza, Ceará, Brazil

Keywords: Robot Swarm, Collaborative Robotics, Mapping, Topological Maps.

Abstract: Swarm robots are an important area of mobile robotics inspired by the collective behavior of animals for the execution of activities and, using this premise, the present work aims to present a swarm robotics algorithm for topological mapping of environments. A comparison was made with another article in the literature that presents a similar technique, where it was possible to see an improvement in performance in the proposed parameters. An assessment of closed-loop control was also carried out, using a proposed evaluation metric, which showed a minor impact with the increase in the number of agents, and in smaller environments.

1 INTRODUCTION

Bioinspired motion of robots swarm aimed at reproducing the behaviour of birds, fish, bees etc has received intensive attention lately (Barca and Sekercioglu, 2013). The ability to cooperate in coordinated group tasks opens up a wide range of interesting applications in the field of logistics (Wen et al., 2018) and environment exploration (Ramachandran et al., 2017). Indeed, one of the most basic issue in robotics, navigation is especially important in unknown scenarios, since it allows for gathering environment information in the fundamental task called mapping, as in SLAM applications (Choset et al., 2005).

Mapping consists of creating spatial models for the environment from sensor perception and can be divided into three main categories: geometric, topological and grid maps. In geometric maps, there are primitive geometric shapes which rely on parameter adjustment able to suitably fit the information coming from the sensors. Grid maps, in turn, rely on spatial grid representation for a scene, with an occupancy probability being associated to the cells; it is a not scalable alternative, and leads to problems in case of large environments. Finally, topological maps represent the environment in the form of nodes and edges for the free-collision regions, as in Figure 1a, where each node represents a place of interest, and the edges, their connections (Akdeniz and Bozma, 2015).

In the literature, a huge amount of works report on the use of robot swarms in the task of topological mapping (Akdeniz and Bozma, 2015; Dirafzoon et al., 2017). For instance, drones were used in aerial mapping after earthquakes (da Rosa et al., 2020),



Figure 1: Example of topological map and work issues.

swarms of wheeled-robots mapped industrial warehouses (Marjovi et al., 2010) and intelligent vacuum cleaners were engineered to collectively search for olfactory sources in a industrial shed (Marjovi and Marques, 2011).

In this context, here the topological mapping of typical indoor scenarios, as the one illustrated in Figure 1b is addressed from a honeycomb geometry inspired algorithm for the motion-level decision of wheeled robots. In the investigation, issues like the environment size and the existence of position closedloop control are discussed and an error metrics for the quality of the produced maps is proposed.

2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 Depth-first Search

The Depth-First Search algorithm is a routine for exploring graphs in the form of trees, often used to

Santana, R. and Thé, G.

DOI: 10.5220/0010709600003061 In Proceedings of the 2nd International Conference on Robotics, Computer Vision and Intelligent Systems (ROBOVIS 2021), pages 143-149 ISBN: 978-989-758-537-1

Copyright © 2021 by SCITEPRESS - Science and Technology Publications, Lda. All rights reserved

Honeycomb Layout Inspired Motion of Robots for Topological Mapping.

search for elements within the tree. The algorithm starts with choosing an arbitrary node to be the root of the tree and from it new descending nodes are added to complete the tree (Skiena, 2020).

The process of adding nodes consists of going from ancestral nodes to descendants until all descendants have been explored. Once a descendant is chosen to start the exploration, the process of choosing a new child will be recursive until the last child node has no more children. Once reached the end of the branch, the algorithm will return to the closest ancestor that still has unexplored children and will choose a new node to be explored, restarting the cycle. In order to avoid infinite cycles, each node should be explored only once, which implies not revisiting an already explored node, even if it is accessible from another ancestral node. The routine comes to an end when there are no more nodes to explore (Skiena, 2020).

Edges connecting nodes are classified into two categories in non-directional graphs: tree edges and back edges. While the edges of the tree link nodes from ancestor to descendants, the backlinks descendants to ancestors, guaranteeing a return to parent nodes, so that exploration of other descendants is allowed (Skiena, 2020).

2.2 Spatial Representation

For what concerns the spatial representation in the navigation simulations reported hereafter, it is to be mentioned that all the scenarios are in-plane motion and, as such, a simple description for position and orientation is considered. The approach here adopted is according to (Craig, 2009), in which the position of a mobile robot in the scene is given by the vector locating the origin of frame B respect to the universal coordinate system A, whereas the robot orientation may be retrieved from the rotation matrix calculated from the inner-product between unit-vectors of principal axes relating frames B and A.



Figure 2: Relative frame description of universal and local coordinate systems.

3 METHODOLOGY

This section presents in detail the implemented algorithm for topological mapping. It is based on the contribution brought by others in (da Rosa et al., 2020) in that, the hexagon-like layout of the scene was implemented accordingly, but some improvements have been made in the motion rules, in the perception of the neighborhood, in the path planning and movement control, so that maps are generated more accurately and efficiently.

n the hexagon-like layout for the scene, robot scans move in the orthogonal direction to the hexagon faces, thus limiting motion orientation to the set 30°,90°, 150°, 210°, 270°, and 330°, as shown in Figure 3. A free node is defined as the hexagon center when it is empty (no robots occupying) or accessible without collision (think of other objects in the scene). In the picture, cells A, B, C, D, E, and F are neighbors nodes and are accessible from the current position of the agent (white circle in H cell); the red node is not in the agent's neighborhood, being accessible only by nodes E and F, and the green hexagon is not part of the map, since its center lies outside the room. It is a premise that each element of the swarm has access to its global position and can communicate with other agents at any time.



Figure 3: Structure of accessible and non-accessible neighboring nodes.

Figure 4 shows the flowchart of the algorithm used, which is inspired by the depth-first search technique presented in subsection 2.1, where a branch must be explored until there are no more unvisited descendants before exploring a new branch. To do this, robots share a list of explored nodes and one of the unexplored nodes, and as a new node is visited, it



gets inserted into the list of visited nodes and removed from the list of unvisited nodes.

Figure 4: Flowchart of the mapping algorithm embedded in robots.

An important equipment in the mapping is the Li-DAR sensor; indeed, by using it to circularly scan the environment, new nodes (both neighbors or descendants) can be discovered. Every time a free node is found and hence available to be visited, its coordinates are computed in a universal frame and inserted into the list of unvisited nodes and added to the part of the neighborhood of the current node data struct. Its orientation comes along. The main reason for choosing the LiDAR sensor was its zone-sensing perception ability which allows creating, using basic geometric calculations, a clear safe zone for prompt collision avoidance. Figure 5 shows the safe zone mentioned in yellow, while D represents the distance to be moved and E gives the robot's diameter. It should be stressed that these details about the neighborhood perception and on the choice of LiDAR for safe zone purposes are missed in the literature.

The map itself is a data structure, as shown Figure in 6, cointaining the node coordinates, its neighbors, as well as the orientation and an identification of the agent that visited the node. At the end of the scan process, the current node is added to the map. After that, the robot chooses the next destination to visit, and will do this into unvisited list, giving preference to node in it neighborhood. If there no unvisited node in neighborhood, the robot has two rules to choose: First In First Out (FIFO) and Euclidian distance. In the first one, the robot will choose the first node added



Figure 5: Use of the LIDAR sensor and the projected safety zone.

in unvisited list, while in the second rule, the robot will choose the node with shorter Euclidian distance for the current node.



Differently to (da Rosa et al., 2020), in the present work, the decision rule for motion always favors the neighbor nodes. Another difference regards the distance metric which is here dependent on the initial node position, and not on the robot's current position as in (da Rosa et al., 2020).

Once the next objective is clear, a route is defined according to the A* path-planning algorithm, and the navigation among nodes follows similarly to what happened in the case of descendant nodes. Such a repeated process of recalculating movement parameters, even in known areas, aims at mitigating the propagation of position error. As the current map uses a global coordinates approach, it is more susceptible to error accumulation than probabilistic approaches such as (Dirafzoon and Lobaton, 2013; Dirafzoon et al., 2014; Dirafzoon et al., 2017). To cope with that, a PID-controller was implemented for set-point control at the orientation-level. Parameters tuning followed Ziegler-Nichols approach, and led to $K_p = 0.28$, $K_i = 0.008$ and $K_d = 0.0009$.

3.1 Collision Prevention

An important issue in robot navigation, collision avoidance plays a fundamental role in map generation from groups of agents. The good news is that the discretized nature of the spatial representation allows for the use of simple rules for preventing multiple node occupancy and for preventing agents to assume close goal positions. In the environment exploration, goal scan be categorized into two types: *next objective* and *final objective*. The first one concerns the adjacent nodes, whereas the latter is related to a distant cell to be reached.

A good strategy for collision avoidance required the agents to have access to others' objectives in such a way to properly check in the list of unvisited nodes about the intention of other agents. A typical collision situation may occur in a movement to a distant final objective; in this case, the waypoints can be in the *en-route* path of other agents and, to properly prevent the collision, preference is given to the agent that first published that node as a next objective.

3.2 Conflict Resolution and Exploration Completion

The above-mentioned conflict of interests of different agents to visit simultaneously a given node is especially frequent in small-size environments. A way to deal with that is to define different states for the agents and to share this information with every other robot in the task. In the present work, a number of 4 (four) activity modes were defined: standby, exploring, moving, and conflict. Once there is active conflict detected, the agent is put on standby giving free passage to the agent which preceded the motion. In the case the path remains blocked, the agent undergoes the conflict mode, and passing priority is assigned to the robot with more free neighbors in its vicinity; the others, which are in conflict, must wait. This can be illustrated with the help of Figure 3, in which nodes A and E are blocked, and the robot occupying node Hmust leave its location, since it has free neighbors B, C, and D. At the end of that node access negotiation, the objectives must be recalculated and, if the conflict persists, the process goes to new rounds until no conflict is left.

The standby mode is also assumed when the exploration is completed (meaning that no nodes in the unvisited list are left). In this case, the robots wait collectively for the activation of standby mode of every other in the group. Only in that condition, the algorithm reaches completion. Finally, to be stressed that a robot enters standby mode does not prevent new conflicts to arise; hence, the standby mode does not exempt the robot to act to solve them by giving a free pass to other agents.

4 **RESULTS**

Aiming at bringing new contributions to the state of the art, in this section, the discussion focuses on the quality of the map, an issue that has been neglected in the recent literature. The study comprehends simulations done in CoppeliaSim Software, which is an integrated development environment for simulations of factory automation systems and robotics based on a distributed control architecture. It supports development through application interfaces for many programming languages including Python, which was used in the present work. A number of up to 3 (three) Khepera III model robots were used, equipped with the LiDAR sensor, which covered an area of nearly $100 m^2$ defined by 0.5 meters-spaced hexagon-like cells, with Euclidean distance based exploration rule.

4.1 Preliminar Evaluation



Figure 7: Modeled scenario for validation of the algorithm and its respective map.



Figure 8: Zoom view of the modeled scenario, with its respective map.

Figure 7 shows the first modeled environment and its respective map, with the color information representing the visitation frequency as a heat map according to the scale shown in the right side. The picture shows very good coverage of the environment. In its expanded view, in Figure 7, it is possible to see no overlap between obstacles and centers of cells; in addition, there are no edges connecting neighboring nodes with obstacles between them, which may indicate an absence of collision with them. On the other hand, the map brings small overlaps between the hexagons, which implies that we have different positions from those initially idealized, a fact that motivated the upcoming discussion of movement control.

4.2 Comparison with the Literature

To provide a fair comparison to paper (da Rosa et al., 2020), this part of the study relies on the the amount of steps needed to carry out the mapping as a metric. Also, preference is given to scenes already investigated in that paper, which were carefully reproduced in every detail and are reported in Figure 9.

The bar-graph in Figure 10 presents the results obtained with two and three robots in both scenarios (label Ref means the literature paper used for benchmark (da Rosa et al., 2020)). It is possible to notice in the results of the present work a pattern of reduction of the number of steps with the increase of the number of robots, for both scenarios in the FIFO configuration, constraining the stabilization of the same parameter in the Euclidean distance configuration. The pattern of reducing the average number of steps per robot with increasing them was maintained in both works. The reference work presented variations for the FIFO and Euclidean Distance settings of 31.63% and 21.21%, respectively, for scenario 1, and 25.51% and 12.29% for the other, while the present work presented variations of 40%, 33.33%, 40.37% and 33.33% for the same cases, which represents a greater impact of the number of robots on the number of steps in the present algorithm. Also to be mentioned is the absolute number of steps indicating better efficiency on robots' motion during the mapping produced by the present work.

4.3 Evaluation Metrics

A gap found in the reference literature concerns the evaluation of the quality of the generated topological map, so one of the contributions of this work is the introduction of an error metric that allows evaluating which factors influence the quality of the map built. It is an adimensional number relying on two terms:



Figure 9: Modeled scenarios for comparison, as introduced by (da Rosa et al., 2020).



Figure 10: Comparison between models. Label "Curr" means this work.

one for the distance between neighboring nodes and the other, for the angle between them, according to equation 1. It accounts for the difference between the threshold, representing the idealized distance between neighboring nodes, and the actual distance between the same. Same rationale applies for the orientation. A weighting factor is also considered to allow for tuning of both aspects (position and orientation); this way, $\beta = 0$ leads to a positioning error metrics, whereas $\beta = 1$ leads to an orientation error metrics. Anything in between gives a general error metrics encompassing both of them and, as such, may be seen as a figure-of-merit.

$$error = \sum ((1 - \beta) \frac{\Delta Distance}{thresholdDist} + \beta \frac{\Delta \theta}{180}) \quad (1)$$

4.4 Movement Control Evaluation

As the reader should be aware of, positioning is an essential task for obtaining good mapping. It is therefore important for the robots to have a good position closed-loop control at the motion level. In this section we investigate how the mapping performs with and without closed-loop control at the motion level. The investigation also includes the role of the environment size (from 4 up to 10 meters-side square rooms) and the role of amount of agents. The rule for nonneighbor nodes is based on Euclidean distance with 0.5m separation between cells.

With $\beta = 0.5$, Figure 11 brings at a glance a number of important trends. Firstly, the importance of closed-loop control; can positively affect the quality of the maps as measured by the formerly introduced error metrics. Secondly, it is clear that the larger the area to cover, the worse the map generated, which might be speculated to be associated with the need to compute more displacements among cells in large environments. This is, however, compensated by the inclusion of more robots in the task, as it can be seen in the picture as the amount of robots goes from one to three. The third conclusion, indeed, somehow suggests that the decrease in the average amount of steps favors the speculation above. With no great ambitions, we could synthesize the idea of "the less you walk, the better the map gets", thus pointing to the real benefit of a group and coordinated activity of mobile agents.



Figure 11: Error metrics by environment and by number of robots.

Moving on, we put light to the map resolution. To see the the role of the closed-loop control, mapping was carried out in a 49 m^2 square-like environment having three mobile agents, and the size of the hexagon-cells were modified. The hexagon-inscribed circle' diameter ranged from 0.3 to 0.75 meters in this experiment.

The percentage variation of the error was investigated in this map-resolution study. Results are brought in Figure 12, for different values of β . Here, percentage is calculated as the relation between the error deviation *with-without* controller and the error without controler.

Analyzing the graph, it is possible to see that, for the most part, the percentage variation of the error is greater for $\beta = 1$, which means a greater difference between the error related to direction between a plant that uses and one that does not use a controller, showing that the controller has greater ability to mitigate this type of error.



Figure 12: Error variation between situations with and without controller, for different offset distances.

We conclude that the presence of a controller is essential once again to limit the error and provide a good mapping.

4.5 Influence of Starting Position



Figure 13: Maps generated by robots with changing starting positions.

To see if and how the robots' initial position could affect the map, we assessed the heat map for a given scene from 3 different initial positions. In Figure 13, these are indicated with white stars. From each generated map, in terms of completeness of the swept area, no relevant differences were observed. It is to be mentioned, however, a certain influence of the agents' initial position on the incidence of the heat map, where the nodes of the maps 13c and d had greater traffic on the left side in comparison to the others. In addition, it can be observed a higher number of steps per node, which suggests a correlation between the distribution of agents on the map with the initial conditions of the scene, especially in the vicinity of the agents.

5 CONCLUSIONS

In the present work, a robot swarm algorithm for exploration and topological mapping of environments was introduced and compared to a recent contribution of the literature. The study carried out focused on the quality of the generated maps as measured by a simple figure-of-merit metric here introduced. It was also investigated the role of the number of agents, the challenges posed by the environment size, and the effects on the close-loop control strategy for robot positioning. The analysis revealed that the present implementation was very efficient in terms of computation steps when building the maps, which points to a good perspective regarding the power consumption of robots. The discussion on motion close-loop control showed the importance of relying on it for efficient map generation and, associated with that, revealed that it benefits hugely as the population of agents grows.

As future work, we suggest the investigation of new business decision rules for accessing nodes to visit, to maximize agents' parallelism, thus reducing the visitation rates of nodes and maximizing robots exploration performance.

REFERENCES

- Akdeniz, B. C. and Bozma, H. I. (2015). Exploration and topological map building in unknown environments. In 2015 IEEE International Conference on Robotics and Automation (ICRA), pages 1079–1084. IEEE.
- Barca, J. C. and Sekercioglu, Y. A. (2013). Swarm robotics reviewed. *Robotica*, 31(3):345–359.
- Choset, H. M., Hutchinson, S., Lynch, K. M., Kantor, G., Burgard, W., Kavraki, L. E., and Thrun, S. (2005). *Principles of robot motion: theory, algorithms, and implementation.* MIT press.
- Craig, J. J. (2009). Introduction to robotics: mechanics and control, 3/E. Pearson Education India.
- da Rosa, R., Aurelio Wehrmeister, M., Brito, T., Lima, J. L., and Pereira, A. I. P. N. (2020). Honeycomb map: a bioinspired topological map for indoor search and rescue unmanned aerial vehicles. *Sensors*, 20(3):907.
- Dirafzoon, A., Betthauser, J., Schornick, J., Benavides, D., and Lobaton, E. (2014). Mapping of unknown environments using minimal sensing from a stochastic swarm. In 2014 IEEE/RSJ International Conference on Intelligent Robots and Systems, pages 3842–3849. IEEE.
- Dirafzoon, A., Bozkurt, A., and Lobaton, E. (2017). A framework for mapping with biobotic insect networks: From local to global maps. *Robotics and Autonomous Systems*, 88:79–96.
- Dirafzoon, A. and Lobaton, E. (2013). Topological mapping of unknown environments using an unlocalized robotic swarm. In 2013 IEEE/RSJ International

Conference on Intelligent Robots and Systems, pages 5545–5551. IEEE.

- Marjovi, A. and Marques, L. (2011). Multi-robot olfactory search in structured environments. *Robotics and Au*tonomous Systems, 59(11):867–881.
- Marjovi, A., Nunes, J. G., Marques, L., and de Almeida, A. (2010). Multi-robot fire searching in unknown environment. In *Field and Service Robotics*, pages 341– 351. Springer.
- Ramachandran, R. K., Wilson, S., and Berman, S. (2017). A probabilistic approach to automated construction of topological maps using a stochastic robotic swarm. *IEEE Robotics and Automation Letters*, 2(2):616–623.
- Skiena, S. S. (2020). *The algorithm design manual.* Springer International Publishing.
- Wen, J., He, L., and Zhu, F. (2018). Swarm robotics control and communications: imminent challenges for next generation smart logistics. *IEEE Communications Magazine*, 56(7):102–107.