

Fast Path Planning through Segmentation of the Map into Manhattan-Cohesive Areas

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Abstract

This paper presents a method for fast planning within arbitrary maps, through segmentation of the map into Manhattan-cohesive areas. A Manhattan-cohesive area is a connected part of the map where the optimal distance between any two points in the area is equal to their Manhattan distance. We adopt a four directions Manhattan distance, where diagonal moves are allowed. In the paper we present the method we adopted to fragmentize the map, as well the method to extract the paths. The proposed method produces nearly optimal plans quite efficiently.

Introduction

In order to find the best path between two points into a given map, the most significant step is the map preprocessing. Because the map can be very big in dimensions (up to 2048x2048), the nodes for the graph must be chosen very carefully and strategically in order to be able to go from one node to another quickly straight ahead and without any search. In this paper we describe a preprocessing method based on the fragmentation of the map into Manhattan cohesive areas, namely cells hereafter. An area of the map is considered as Manhattan cohesive, if the actual distance between any two points of the area is equal to their Manhattan distance. For two points, A and B, with coordinates (XA,YA) and (XB,YB) respectively, their Manhattan distance is defined as: $M(A,B)=\min(\text{abs}(XA-XB), \text{abs}(YA-YB)) + \text{sqrt}(2)*[\max(\text{abs}(XA-XB), \text{abs}(YA-YB)) - \min(\text{abs}(XA-XB), \text{abs}(YA-YB))]$ (fig. 1)

Based on this fragmentation, we define a graph, the vertices of which correspond to the contact points between the cells, and their edges are weighted with the distance between these contact points. So, during search it is possible to perform jumps inside the map, from one endpoint of a cell to another, instead of looking at the close neighbors of each point.

Defining Cells

In this section we explain the map-preprocessing that results in creating Manhattan-cohesion areas inside the map. We de-

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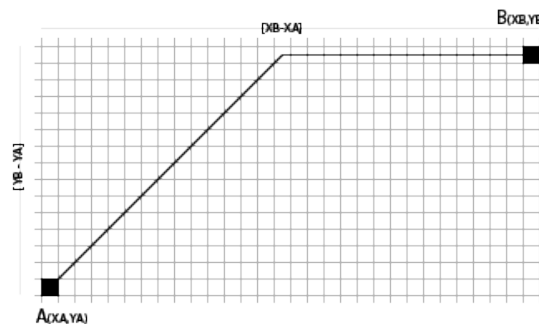


Figure 1: Manhattan distance between two points

fine a cell as an area inside which any two points have a distance equal to their Manhattan distance, as defined above. The proposed algorithm to create the cells scans the map only once, in a left-to-right, top-to-bottom direction. Scanning the map in rows, we create slices of consecutive free points. A row slice can be split into more slices if the pattern of the above row changes. This happens when free points are alternated with non-free points and vice-versa. For every row slice, the points of the above row must be included in the same slice (of the above row), if any (fig. 3). While scanning the map from top to bottom, we maintain a current open list of areas that are being expanded and when an area is finished, we remove it from the current list and we add it to the final list of areas (fig. 2).

After creating all the slices for the current row, we must decide which slice can be added into which cell and which slice will become a new cell. For that reason, we scan the current open list of cells and search for connected slices for each of those cells. Notice that cells in the list are sorted from left to right. For each cell in the current list, we consider its current borders and their tendency to alternate at both sides, left and right. For an area to be Manhattan-cohesive, rules must be applied:

The borders are allowed to:

- Deviate and then be steady.
- Deviate and then converge.
- Converge and then be steady.
- Be steady and then deviate.

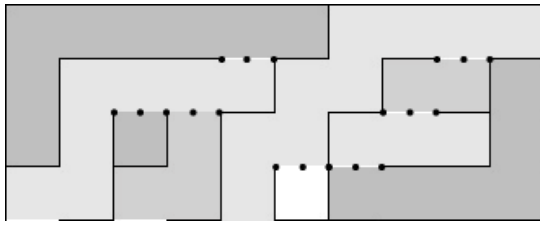


Figure 2: Creating cells on map-segment

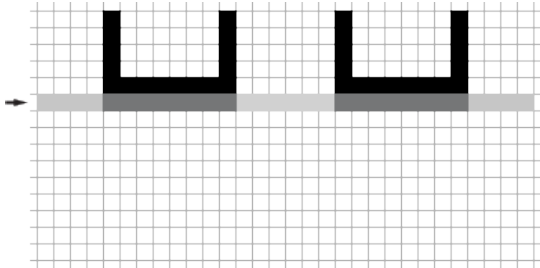


Figure 3: Slice pattern

The borders cannot converge and then deviate. So, when its the time to choose which slices can be inserted in which cells, we take into consideration the above restrictions. For each cell, many slices may be candidates to be inserted. We choose the slice with the biggest width and only if its more than 10% of the last width of the cell (last width is the width of the last slice that inserted in that cell). Slices that are not inserted in existing areas, initiate new cells.

Each cell is stored as a structure consisting of the row where it starts, the total number of rows it spans and for each row in between, two vectors where we keep the start and the end position of each slice. This is a compact way of storing every cell, instead of storing each point of the map, and is much easier and faster to see if a point is within an area.

Finally, we have to define the points of connection between any two adjacent cells. Two adjacent cells can be connected vertically or horizontally. Vertically, when between two or more candidate slices the cell chooses one of them, the rest will become a new cell or will be inserted into another area. Horizontally, when two slices in the same row are connected (being separated because of the previous row pattern) but are inserted into different cells.

Creating the Graph

Having found the cells and the connection points, we proceed with creating a graph. A node of this graph consists of a pair of adjacent points, one from each adjacent cell, connecting them either vertically or horizontally. Horizontally, the node is usually only one point of connection, so we create a node with the two points being side by side. Vertically, there are usually multiple pairs of adjacent points that form the connection area. We choose the two pairs of points on the right and on the left side of the connection area, and if the width of the connection area is bigger than 10 points, we take another node in the middle of this area. At each node,

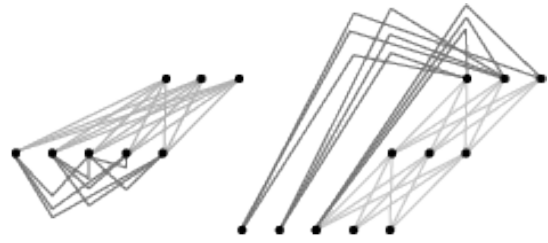


Figure 4: Graph created

we retain the two areas being connected. With that information, we know which cells are neighbors and which are not (fig. 4).

Concerning the edges of the graph, we create an edge for each pair of nodes that involve the same cell. The weights of these edges are equal to the Manhattan distance of these nodes, which, according to our assumption for cell creation, is their actual distance. The computation of the edges' weights is performed at the time of cell formation.

Searching for the Path

For a specific path-planning problem, we introduce two additional nodes in the graph, corresponding to the start and goal point respectively. These nodes are connected with edges with all nodes that involve their cells. Before the actual search, we check two more things:

- Whether the points are in the same cell.
- Whether the points, although not in the same cell, can be connected with a Manhattan path.

In both of the above occasions, we connect the two points and there is no search at all. If none of the above is true, search starts. And now it is only matter of time and cpu cycles to find a nearly optimal path among the nodes we have created. As for a search algorithm, we adopted A* coupled with Manhattan distance as its heuristic.

Conclusions and Future Work

Our method finds nearly optimal paths. The loss of optimality is due to the selection of contact points at the contact area of adjacent cells. So, we are working on improving the strategy for selecting the contact points and, consequently the nodes of the graph. The decision will be based on the relative position of the cells, the size and the position of the other nodes-neighbors.

Another improvement is the way the path is being extracted. During backtracking and path extraction, we can check if a node can be connected directly with its grandparent, i.e., bypassing its parent, and continue up the tree until there is no connection possible. That way, we may slow down the algorithm but we may be able to extract a shorter path.