

An Overview of different Autonomous Vehicle Algorithms for Sensing and Route Planning

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Abstract—The topic of self-driving cars has recently gained popularity. This paper presents an overview of several algorithms often employed in autonomous vehicle sensing and path planning. We have compiled a list of different algorithms used for these two purposes and provided a description of the same. A brief description of different sensors typically used in autonomous vehicles has also been provided. Sensor algorithms have been divided into 'Locational and Positioning' and 'Environmental modeling'. Location and Positioning Algorithms require the use of GPS, IMU, and Encoders to estimate accurate distance and use some variant of the Kalman Filter. Environmental modeling algorithms mainly rely on Cameras and use deep-learning object detection models like YOLO. There are also methods that require the use of Cameras with LiDAR and RADAR. For path planning, a description of the two most popular methods A* and Dijkstra has been provided along with their comparison.

Index Terms—Autonomous Vehicles, Positioning, Environment, Heuristics

I. INTRODUCTION

The term autonomous vehicle refers to any vehicle that does not require human interaction to perform its task. Lately, with the increase in technology, especially advancements in the field of deep-learning, capabilities of autonomous vehicles have increased tremendously. A typical autonomous vehicle consists of standard locomotive machinery, sensors in order to gain insight into the environment, a central dedicated CPU that gives signals to the locomotive machinery based on user input (such as target destination, etc.) and a map database. Autonomous vehicles equipped with such technology can most possibly improve energy efficiency, reduce the risk of collisions and reduce pollution [1]-[2] since most autonomous vehicle are electric in nature. These are various algorithms available that coordinate the working of an autonomous vehicle(used by the CPU) that we have categorized. The paper focuses on different algorithms involved in different parts of the system. We start with the sensors. Sensors themselves can be categorized into various parts[3]. They include sensors like LiDAR[4], RADAR[5]-[6], Camera[7]-[8], Ultrasonic Sensors[9], GPS (Global Positioning System)[10] and IMU (Inertial Measurement Unit)[11]. Focusing on the routing algorithm or the main algorithm, there are many, however, they can be broadly classified into heuristic[12]-[14] and nonheuristic algorithms[15]. These algorithms are also dynamic, they have an inbuilt obstacle avoidance system. The main input for these algorithms is the sensor values and the map database.

Heuristic algorithms may also take into account information like traffic density which would probably require an internet connection. Heuristic functions are mostly dependent on the heuristic function provided[16]. In

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path-finding algorithms, modern heuristic algorithms perform better than non-heuristic algorithms[17]-[18]. For our paper, we shall only consider one heuristic algorithm[19]-[20] (A*) and one non-heuristic algorithm[21](Dijkstra).

II. SENSOR OVERVIEW

A. LiDAR

LiDAR, which stands for light detection and ranging, is most commonly used to determine object ranges. It works by directing a beam of laser at an object and calculates the distance from the beam source by calculating the time it takes for the reflected laser beam to return. Using algorithms like SLAM(Simultaneous Location and Mapping), it is even possible to generate visual 3-D representations of the environment and as such, this sensor is extensively used in autonomous vehicles for environment detection to determine object ranges.

B. RADAR

RADAR(radio detection and ranging) is an algorithm very similar to LiDAR except for the fact that it requires the use of radio waves rather than laser beams. It is mostly used for the detection of objects and has been used in defense for detecting enemy vehicles. For use in autonomous vehicles, RADAR is generally used with radio waves having a frequency of 24,74, 77, and 79 GHz. Generally, two types of RADAR exist that have been used in autonomous vehicles namely Impulse RADAR and (FMCW) Frequency Modulated Continuous Wave Radar. Impulse RADAR emits only one pulse, the frequency of which remains constant. FMCW RADAR, on the other hand, emits pulses continually at different frequencies. FMCW is widely used owing to its high-depth perception[22].

C. Camera

A Camera is a form of sensor that records images of objects. It is comprised of a lens and a shutter used for projecting the lens image on a surface(typically a photosensitive film or an electronic sensor) or directly translated into electronic signals. In autonomous vehicles, a Camera is typically used with an object detection algorithm which detects surroundings and objects of interest. Using Photogrammetry methods, estimation of the ranges of objects is also possible. Most popular object detection methods for use with camera in Autonomous vehicles are YOLO(You Only Look Once) and SSD(Single shot detection) as they are faster than most object detection algorithms. Camera is the most widely used sensor for autonomous vehicles and in most scenarios has replaced LiDAR, RADAR and ultrasonic sensors.

Ultrasonic Sensors

This sensor is used in fusion with other sensors in environmental modelling for error correction and to get an accurate reading of the ranges, It works similar to a LiDAR and a RADAR by using Ultrasonic Waves to determine the distance of objects. It works at a very high frequency and as such is limited to close range detection only. Ultrasonic sensor can be found in almost every modern car these days. They assist in parking.

D. GPS

It is a satellite based radio-navigation system. Most autonomous cars contain a GPS receiver which receives data from satellites continuously. For accurate measurement, the GPS typically receives data from 4 or more satellites. Satellites used for transmission of GPS signals use an atomic clock which provides the broadcast time to be encoded in the signal. The receiver uses the broadcast time, satellite location and the time that the data was received to calculate current location.

E. IMU

It is a fusion of a gyroscope and an accelerometer. Gyroscope is used for the measurement of rotation and accelerometer is used for measuring odometry. In scenarios where GPS signals are not available, IMUs are used for location and positioning of autonomous vehicles. IMU's are typically used in co-ordination with encoders.

F. Encoders

An encoder is a sensor attached to a wheel or a rotation device to measure rotation. It works similar to an accelerometer by measuring odometry of a vehicle given wheel radius. Both IMUs and Encoders are used to measure relative position of an autonomous vehicle. There are 4 main types of encoders namely optical, mechanical, magnetic and electromagnetic. The specific type of encoder typically used in autonomous vehicles is an incremental rotary encoder which can be of any type. Incremental rotary encoders are used widely because of their accuracy and ability to provide real time data with efficiency.

III. SENSOR ALGORITHMS

A. Location and Positioning

Autonomous cars have a map database kept inside them or obtain it through a server connection; nonetheless, for route planning, the current position with regard to the map must be estimated. A GPS system is used to determine the current approximate position however this is prone to error and GPS outages. [23] provides a way for combining GPS, IMU sensors, and encoders. It is an odometry model that is based on Ackerman steering geometry and is computed using encoder data from the rear two wheels and steering. Because there is sensor fusion, it employs the Unscented Kalman Filter (UKF).

B. Environment modelling

There are various algorithms used for this purpose. For autonomous vehicles, the representation of environment should be dynamic i.e. it should take into consideration changes in the environment as well. [24] proposes a very simple solution based on Camera. It uses an object

detection deep learning algorithm YOLO v2 trained on a set of vehicle images which is then used for identification of vehicles. They pass the information from YOLO v2 to a ROS node which then estimates the approximate distance of the vehicle. [25] proposes a similar method which uses Tiny YOLO and estimating neighbouring vehicle speed by tracking their taillights. [26] presents an approach to this problem for indoor environments by using a 2D LiDAR and a low cost camera.

IV. MAIN/ROUTE PLANNING ALGORITHMS

A. A* algorithm

A* is a well-known heuristic-based technique that is commonly employed in graph search issues. In 1968, Stanford Research Institute's Peter Hart, Nils Nilsson, and Bertram Raphael suggested it. By transforming the map to a graph and using heuristics as information supplied by sensor values, the route planning issue might be described in A*. The A* algorithm takes a greedy approach. It is a development of Dijkstra's Algorithm. The A* algorithm's evaluation function is provided by

$$f(n) = g(n) + h(n) \quad (1)$$

where $g(n)$ is the cost of getting to the current place and $h(n)$ is the expected cost of getting to the destination. The euclidean distance function or any other distance function may readily determine $h(n)$.

$$h(n) = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2}$$

where (x_1, x_2) and (y_1, y_2) represent the co-ordinates of the current location and destination respectively. We can find their values using their latitudes and longitudes of the two points. We can also include heuristics like traffic and sensor information for more efficient path planning. The time complexity of this algorithm dependent on the heuristic function. [20] proposes an improved A* algorithm for path planning which focuses on obstacles and path proposals using circle equations. The algorithm proposed is more effective and faster by about 200%.

B. Dijkstra's algorithm

Edsger Wybe Dijkstra, a computer scientist, devised this technique in 1956. It's a well-known non-heuristic path planning algorithm. This algorithm determines the shortest path between two points on a graph. Given the current position and destination, this method returns the shortest distance or the shortest cost path. [27] describes how to apply this method on a network of interconnected roadways. Although Dijkstra always finds the shortest path, it does not ensure time efficiency. Because we must consider traffic, the shortest road is not always the quickest option. This approach has a temporal or time complexity of $O(V^2)$ when utilising an adjacency list representation of a graph, where V is the number of vertices in the graph.

Algorithm 1 A* Algorithm

```
1: function A*(start, goal)
2: openSet ← {start}
```

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3:closedSet ← {}
4:cameFrom ← {}
5:gScore[start] ← 0
6:fScore[start] ← heuristic(start, goal)
7:while openSet is not empty do
8:current ← the node in openSet with the lowest
  fScore
9:if current is goal then
10:return reconstructPath(cameFrom, current)
11:end if
12:remove current from openSet
13:add current to closedSet
14:for all neighbors neighbor of current do
15:tentativeGScore ← gScore[current] +
  dist(current, neighbor)
16:if neighbor is in closedSet and
  tentativeGScore ≥ gScore[neighbor] then
17:continue
18:end if
19:if neighbor is not in openSet or
  tentativeGScore < gScore[neighbor] then
20:cameFrom[neighbor] ← current
21:gScore[neighbor] ← tentativeGScore
22:fScore[neighbor] ← gScore[neighbor] + heuristic(neighbor,
  goal)
23:if neighbor is not in openSet then
24:add neighbor to openSet
25:end if
26:end if
27:end for
28:end while
29:return failure
30: end function
    
```

C. Comparison between A* and Dijkstra

However, because A* is primarily dependent on its heuristic function, its optimality can only be established by the effectiveness of its heuristic function. Dijkstra has consistently outperformed in circumstances with little to no traffic. However, while dealing with traffic and having to include sensor data, A* performs better if these data are incorporated

Algorithm 2 Dijkstra's Algorithm

```

1: function DIJKSTRA(start, goal)
2:openSet ← {start}
3:closedSet ← {}
4:cameFrom ← {}
5:gScore[start] ← 0
6:while openSet is not empty do
7:current ← the node in openSet with the lowest
  gScore
8:if current is goal then
9:return reconstructPath(cameFrom, current)
10:end if
11:remove current from openSet
12:add current to closedSet
13:for all neighbors neighbor of current do
14:tentativeGScore ← gScore[current] +
  dist(current, neighbor)
15:if neighbor is in closedSet and
  tentativeGScore ≥ gScore[neighbor] then
    
```

```

16:continue
17:end if
18:if neighbor is not in openSet or
  tentativeGScore < gScore[neighbor] then
19:cameFrom[neighbor] ← current
20:gScore[neighbor] ← tentativeGScore
21:if neighbor is not in openSet then
22:add neighbor to openSet
23:end if
24:end if
25:end for
26:end while
27:return failure
28: end function
    
```

TABLE I COMPARISON OF DIJKSTRA AND A*

	Dijkstra	A*
Advantages	Guaranteed to find shortest path Can use heuristic to guide search Noneed for admissible heuristic	Faster than Dijkstra Can use different heuristics Consistently finds optimal path
Disadvantages	Can be slower than A* Does not consider distance to goal No way to guide search towards goal	Requires admissible heuristic Not guaranteed to be faster than Dijkstra

into its heuristic function. This is owing to the fact that A* might easily incorporate dynamicity in its approach. [28] also suggests that A* is more efficient than Dijkstra in terms of destination finding if provided appropriate heuristic. [29] compares computational efficiency of both the algorithms in a static scenario whereas [30] compares both the algorithm in different applications on the field. The results of which are summarized in the table below.

A* relies heavily on its heuristic function and therefore it may or may not be faster than Dijkstra. We can see that Dijkstra outperforms A* in long distance path planning algorithms however in terms of time and memory A* is more efficient. In dynamic environments, A* always outperforms Dijkstra.

TABLE II IMPLEMENTATION RESULTS FOR A* AND DIJKSTRA ALGORITHMS

		Metric Type	Result
A*	Static short distance	Time	Faster than Dijkstra
	Dynamic	Time	Faster than Dijkstra
Dijkstra	Static long distance	Time	Faster than Dijkstra

V. CONCLUSION

An overview of different popular algorithms have been provided and a comparison of two path planning algorithms has also been provided. Most of the sensor methods require the use of camera only owing to developments in distance estimation methods and the low cost of using only one Camera sensor however, a few methods still use a fusion of Camera and Lidar. In path planning algorithms, Dijkstra provides the shortest path, however A* may also consider information from sensors and traffic information. A* is shown to more efficient than Dijkstra.

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