

The Focussed D* Algorithm for Real-Time Replanning

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Abstract

Finding the lowest-cost path through a graph is central to many problems, including route planning for a mobile robot. If arc costs change during the traverse, then the remainder of the path may need to be replanned. This is the case for a sensor-equipped mobile robot with imperfect information about its environment. As the robot acquires additional information via its sensors, it can revise its plan to reduce the total cost of the traverse. If the prior information is grossly incomplete, the robot may discover useful information in every piece of sensor data. During replanning, the robot must either wait for the new path to be computed or move in the wrong direction; therefore, rapid replanning is essential. The D* algorithm (Dynamic A*) plans optimal traverses in real-time by incrementally repairing paths to the robot's state as new information is discovered. This paper describes an extension to D* that focusses the repairs to significantly reduce the total time required for the initial path calculation and subsequent replanning operations. This extension completes the development of the D* algorithm as a full generalization of A* for dynamic environments, where arc costs can change during the traverse of the solution path.¹

1 Introduction

The problem of path planning can be stated as finding a sequence of state transitions through a graph from some initial state to a goal state, or determining that no such sequence exists. The path is optimal if the sum of the transition costs, also called arc costs, is minimal across all possible sequences through the graph. If during the "traverse" of the path, one or more arc costs in the graph is discovered to be

incorrect, the remaining portion of the path may need to be replanned to preserve optimality. A traverse is optimal if every transition in the traverse is part of an optimal path to the goal assuming, at the time of each transition, all known information about the arc costs is correct.

An important application for this problem, and the one that will serve as the central example throughout the paper, is the task of path planning for a mobile robot equipped with a sensor, operating in a changing, unknown or partially-known environment. The states in the graph are robot locations, and the arc values are the costs of moving between locations, based on some metric such as distance, time, energy expended, risk, etc. The robot begins with an initial estimate of arc costs comprising its "map", but since the environment is only partially-known or changing, some of the arc costs are likely to be incorrect. As the robot acquires sensor data, it can update its map and replan the optimal path from its current state to the goal. It is important that this replanning be fast, since during this time the robot must either stop or continue to move along a suboptimal path.

A number of algorithms exist for producing optimal traverses given changing arc costs. One algorithm plans an initial path with A* [Nilsson, 1980] or the distance transform [Jarvis, 1985] using the prior map information, moves the robot along the path until either it reaches the goal or its sensor discovers a discrepancy between the map and the environment, updates the map, and then replans a new path from the robot's current state to the goal [Zelinsky, 1992]. Although this brute-force replanner is optimal, it can be grossly inefficient, particularly in expansive environments where the goal is far away and little map information exists.

Boult [1987] maintains an optimal cost map from the goal to all states in the environment, assuming the environment is bounded (finite). When discrepancies are discovered between the map and the environment, only the affected portion of the cost map is updated. The map representation is limited to polygonal obstacles and free space. Trovato [1990] and Ramalingam and Reps [1992] extend this approach to handle graphs with arc costs ranging over a continuum. The limitation of these algorithms is that the entire affected portion of the map must be repaired before the robot can resume moving and subsequently make additional corrections. Thus, the algorithms are inefficient when the robot is near the goal and the affected portions of the map have long "shadows". Stentz [1994] overcomes

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these limitations with D^* , an incremental algorithm which maintains a partial, optimal cost map limited to those locations likely to be of use to the robot. Likewise, repair of the cost map is generally partial and re-entrant, thus reducing computational costs and enabling real-time performance.

Other algorithms exist for addressing the problem of path planning in unknown or dynamic environments [Korf, 1987; Lumelsky and Stepanov, 1986; Pirzadeh and Snyder, 1990], but these algorithms emphasize fast operation and/or low memory usage at the expense of optimality.

This paper describes an extension to D^* which focusses the cost updates to minimize state expansions and further reduce computational costs. The algorithm uses a heuristic function similar to A^* to both propagate cost increases and focus cost reductions. A biasing function is used to compensate for robot motion between replanning operations. The net effect is a reduction in run-time by a factor of two to three. The paper begins with the intuition behind the algorithm, describes the extension, presents an example, evaluates empirical comparisons, and draws conclusions.

2 Intuition for Algorithm

Consider how A^* solves the following robot path planning problem. Figure 1 shows an eight-connected graph representing a Cartesian space of robot locations. The states in the graph, depicted by arrows, are robot locations, and the arcs encode the cost of moving between states. The white regions are locations known to be in free space. The arc cost for moving between free states is a small value denoted by *EMPTY*. The grey regions are known obstacle locations, and arcs connected to these states are assigned a prohibitively high value of *OBSTACLE*. The small black square is a closed gate believed to be open (i.e., *EMPTY* value). Without a loss of generality, the robot is assumed to be point-size and occupies only one location at a time. A^* can be used to compute optimal path costs from the goal, G , to all states in the space given the initial set of arc costs, as shown in the figure. The arrows indicate the optimal state transitions; therefore, the optimal path for any state can be recovered by following the arrows to the goal. Because the closed gate is assumed to be open, A^* plans a path through it.

The robot starts at some initial location and begins following the optimal path to the goal. At location R , the robot's sensor discovers the gate between the two large obstacles is closed. This corresponds to an incorrect arc value in the graph: rather than *EMPTY*, it has a much higher value of *GATE*, representing the cost of first opening the gate and then moving through it. All paths through this arc are (possibly) no longer optimal, as indicated by the labelled region. A^* could be used to recompute the cost map, but this is inefficient if the environment is large and/or the goal is far away.

Several characteristics of the problem motivate a better approach. First, changes to the arc costs are likely to be in the vicinity of the robot, since it typically carries a sensor with a limited range. This means that most plans need only be patched "locally". Second, the robot generally makes near-monotonic progress toward the goal. Most obstructions are small and simple path deflections suffice, thus avoiding the high computational cost of backtracking. Third, only the

remaining portion of the path must be replanned at a given location in the traverse, which tends to get progressively shorter due to the second characteristic.

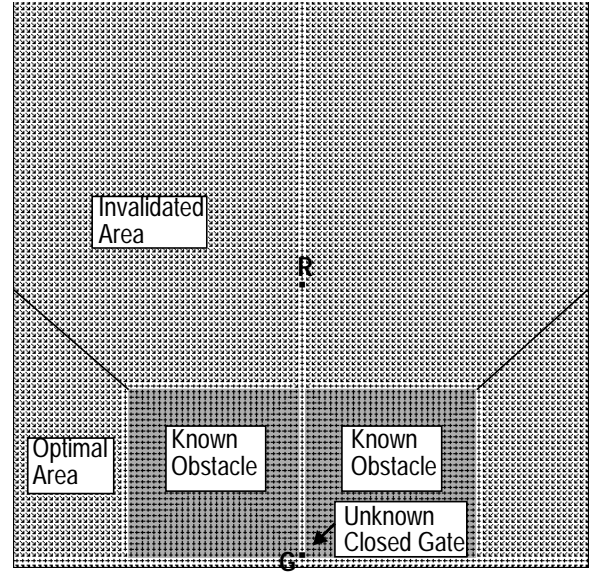


Figure 1: Invalidated States in the Graph

As described in Stentz [1994], D^* leverages on these characteristics to reduce run-time by a factor of 200 or more for large environments. The paper proves that the algorithm produces correct results regardless--only the performance improvement is affected by the validity of the problem characteristics.

Like A^* , D^* maintains an *OPEN* list of states for expansion; however, these states consist of two types: *RAISE* and *LOWER*. *RAISE* states transmit path cost increases due to an increased arc value, and *LOWER* states reduce costs and re-direct arrows to compute new optimal paths. The *RAISE* states propagate the arc cost increase through the invalidated states, by starting at the gate and sweeping outward, adding the value of *GATE* to all states in the region. The *RAISE* states activate neighboring *LOWER* states which sweep in behind to reduce costs and re-direct pointers. *LOWER* states compute new, optimal paths to the states that were previously raised.

States are placed on the *OPEN* list by their *key value*, $k(X)$, which for *LOWER* states is the current *path cost*, $h(X)$ (i.e., cost from the state X to the goal), and for *RAISE* states the previous, unraised $h(X)$ value. States on the list are processed in order of increasing key value. The intuition is that the previous optimal path costs of the *RAISE* states define a lower bound on the path costs of *LOWER* states they can discover. Thus, if the path costs of the *LOWER* states currently on the *OPEN* list exceed the previous path costs of the *RAISE* states, then it is worthwhile processing *RAISE* states to discover (possibly) a better *LOWER* state.

The process can terminate when the lowest value on the *OPEN* list equals or exceeds the robot's path cost, since additional expansions cannot possibly find a better path to the goal (see Figure 2). Once a new optimal path is computed or the old one is determined to be valid, the robot can continue to move toward the goal. Note in the figure that

only part of the cost map has been repaired. This is the efficiency of the D* algorithm.

The D* algorithm described in Stentz [1994] propagates cost changes through the invalidated states without considering which expansions will benefit the robot at its current location. Like A*, D* can use heuristics to focus the search in the direction of the robot and reduce the total number of state expansions. Let the *focussing heuristic* $g(X, R)$ be the estimated path cost from the robot's location R to X . Define a new function, the *estimated robot path cost*, to be $f(X, R) = h(X) + g(X, R)$, and sort all *LOWER* states on the *OPEN* list by increasing $f(X, R)$ value. The function $f(X, R)$ is the estimated path cost from the state R through X to G . Provided that $g(X, R)$ satisfies the monotone restriction, then since $h(X)$ is optimal when *LOWER* state X is removed from the *OPEN* list, an optimal path will be computed to R [Nilsson, 1980]. The notation $g(X, R)$ is used to refer to a function independent of its domain.

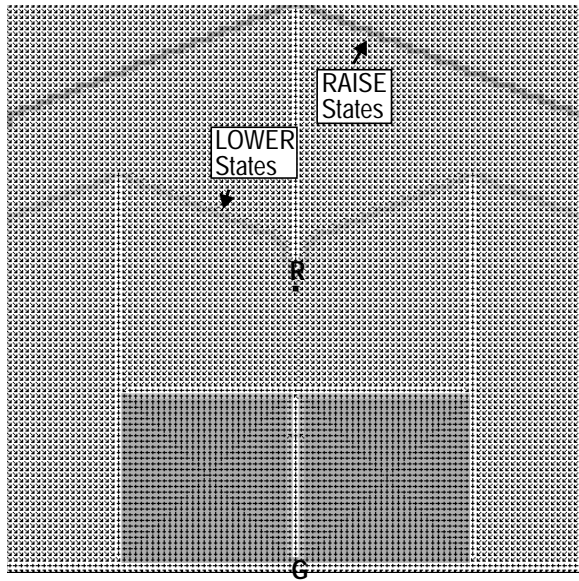


Figure 2: LOWER States Reach the Robot

In the case of *RAISE* states, the previous $h(X)$ value defines a lower bound on the $h(X)$ values of *LOWER* states they can discover; therefore, if the same focussing heuristic $g(X, R)$ is used for both types of states, the previous $f(X, R)$ values of the *RAISE* states define lower bounds on the $f(X, R)$ values of the *LOWER* states they can discover. Thus, if the $f(X, R)$ values of the *LOWER* states on the *OPEN* list exceed the previous $f(X, R)$ values of the *RAISE* states, then it is worthwhile processing *RAISE* states to discover better *LOWER* states. Based on this reasoning, the *RAISE* states should be sorted on the *OPEN* list by $f(X, R) = k(X) + g(X, R)$. But since $k(X) = h(X)$ for *LOWER* states, the *RAISE* state definition for $f(X, R)$ suffices for both kinds of states. To avoid cycles in the backpointers, it should be noted that ties in $f(X, R)$ are sorted by increasing $k(X)$ on the *OPEN* list [Stentz, 1993].

The process can terminate when the lowest value on the *OPEN* list equals or exceeds the robot's path cost, since the subsequent expansions cannot possibly find a *LOWER* state that 1) has a low enough path cost, and 2) is "close" enough to the robot to be able to reduce the robot's path cost when it

reaches it through subsequent expansions. Note that this is a more efficient cut-off than the previous one, which considers only the first criterion.

Figure 3 shows the same example, except that a focussed search is used. All states in the *RAISE* state wave front have roughly the same $f(X, R)$ value. The wave front is more "narrow" in the focussed case since the inclusion of the cost to return to the robot penalizes the wide flanks. Furthermore, the *LOWER* states activated by the *RAISE* state wave front have swept in from the outer sides of the obstacles to compute a new, optimal path to the robot. Note that the two wave fronts are narrow and focussed on the robot's location. Compare Figure 3 to Figure 2. Note that both the *RAISE* and *LOWER* state wave fronts have covered less ground for the focussed search than the unfocussed search in order to compute a new, optimal path to R . Therein is the efficiency of the Focussed D* algorithm.

The problem with focussing the search is that once a new optimal path is computed to the robot's location, the robot then moves to a new location. If its sensor discovers another arc cost discrepancy, the search should be focussed on the robot's new location. But states already on the *OPEN* list are focussed on the old location and have incorrect $g(X, R)$ and $f(X, R)$ values. One solution is to recompute $g(X, R)$ and $f(X, R)$ for all states on the *OPEN* list every time the robot moves and new states are to be added. Based on empirical evidence, the cost of re-sorting the *OPEN* list more than offsets the savings gained by a focussed search.

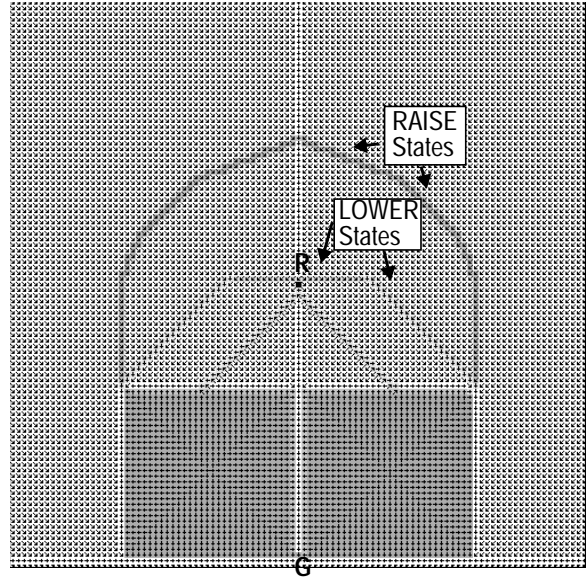


Figure 3: Focussed LOWER States Reach Robot

The approach in this paper is to take advantage of the fact that the robot generally moves only a few states between replanning operations, so the $g(X, R)$ and $f(X, R)$ values have only a small amount of error. Assume that state X is placed on the *OPEN* list when the robot is at location R_0 . Its $f(X, R_0)$ value at that point is $f(X, R_0)$. If the robot moves to location R_1 , we could calculate $f(X, R_1)$ and adjust its position on the *OPEN* list. To avoid this computational cost, we compute a lower bound on $f(X, R_1)$ given by $f_L(X, R_1) = f(X, R_0) - g(R_1, R_0) - \epsilon$. $f_L(X, R_1)$ is a lower bound

on $f(X, R_1)$ since it assumes the robot moved in the “direction” of state X , thus subtracting the motion from $g(X, R_0)$. The parameter ϵ is an arbitrarily small positive number. If X is repositioned on the *OPEN* list by $f_L(X, R_1)$, then since $f_L(X, R_1)$ is a lower bound on $f(X, R_1)$, X will be selected for expansion before or when it is needed. At the time of expansion, the true $f(X, R_1)$ value is computed, and X is placed back on the *OPEN* list by $f(X, R_1)$.

At first this approach appears worse, since the *OPEN* list is first re-sorted by f_L° and then partially adjusted to replace the f_L° values with the correct f° values. But since $g(R_1, R_0) + \epsilon$ is subtracted from *all* states on the *OPEN* list, the ordering is preserved, and the list need not be re-sorted. Furthermore, the first step can be avoided altogether by *adding* $g(R_1, R_0) + \epsilon$ to the states to be inserted on the *OPEN* list rather than *subtracting* it from those already on the list, thus preserving the relative ordering between states already on the list and states about to be added. Therefore, the only remaining computation is the adjustment step. But this step is needed only for those states that show promise for reaching the robot’s location. For typical problems, this amounts to fewer than 2% of the states on the *OPEN* list.

3 Definitions and Formulation

To formalize this intuition, we begin with the notation and definitions used in Stentz [1994], and then extend it for the focussed algorithm. The problem space can be formulated as a set of *states* denoting robot locations connected by *directional arcs*, each of which has an associated cost. The robot starts at a particular state and moves across arcs (incurring the cost of traversal) to other states until it reaches the *goal* state, denoted by G . Every visited state X except G has a *backpointer* to a next state Y denoted by $b(X) = Y$. D^* uses backpointers to represent paths to the goal. The cost of traversing an arc from state Y to state X is a positive number given by the *arc cost* function $c(X, Y)$. If Y does not have an arc to X , then $c(X, Y)$ is undefined. Two states X and Y are *neighbors* in the space if $c(X, Y)$ or $c(Y, X)$ is defined.

D^* uses an *OPEN* list to propagate information about changes to the arc cost function and to calculate path costs to states in the space. Every state X has an associated *tag* $t(X)$, such that $t(X) = \text{NEW}$ if X has never been on the *OPEN* list, $t(X) = \text{OPEN}$ if X is currently on the *OPEN* list, and $t(X) = \text{CLOSED}$ if X is no longer on the *OPEN* list. For each visited state X , D^* maintains an estimate of the sum of the arc costs from X to G given by the path cost function $h(X)$. Given the proper conditions, this estimate is equivalent to the optimal (minimal) cost from state X to G . For each state X on the *OPEN* list (i.e., $t(X) = \text{OPEN}$), the key function, $k(X)$, is defined to be equal to the minimum of $h(X)$ before modification and all values assumed by $h(X)$ since X was placed on the *OPEN* list. The key function classifies a state X on the *OPEN* list into one of two types: a *RAISE* state if $k(X) < h(X)$, and a *LOWER* state if $k(X) = h(X)$. D^* uses *RAISE* states on the *OPEN* list to propagate information about path cost increases and *LOWER* states to propagate information about path cost reductions. The propagation takes place through the repeated removal of states from the *OPEN* list. Each time a state is removed from the list, it is *expanded* to pass cost changes to its neighbors.

These neighbors are in turn placed on the *OPEN* list to continue the process.

States are sorted on the *OPEN* list by a *biased* f° value, given by $f_B(X, R_i)$, where X is the state on the *OPEN* list and R_i is the robot’s state at the time X was inserted or adjusted on the *OPEN* list. Let $\{R_0, R_1, \dots, R_N\}$ be the sequence of states occupied by the robot when states were added to the *OPEN* list. The value of f_B° is given by $f_B(X, R_i) = f(X, R_i) + d(R_i, R_0)$, where f° is the estimated robot path cost given by $f(X, R_i) = h(X) + g(X, R_i)$ and d° is the *accrued bias* function given by $d(R_i, R_0) = g(R_1, R_0) + g(R_2, R_1) + \dots + g(R_i, R_{i-1}) + i\epsilon$ if $i > 0$ and $d(R_0, R_0) = 0$ if $i = 0$. The function $g(X, Y)$ is the focussing heuristic, representing the estimated path cost from Y to X . The *OPEN* list states are sorted by increasing f_B° value, with ties in f_B° ordered by increasing f° , and ties in f° ordered by increasing k° . Ties in k° are ordered arbitrarily. Thus, a vector of values $\langle f_B^\circ, f^\circ, k^\circ \rangle$ is stored with each state on the list.

Whenever a state is removed from the *OPEN* list, its f° value is examined to see if it was computed using the most recent focal point. If not, its f° and f_B° values are recalculated using the new focal point and accrued bias, respectively, and the state is placed back on the list. Processing the f_B° values in ascending order ensures that the first encountered f° value using the current focal point is the minimum such value, denoted by f_{min} . Let k_{val} be its corresponding k° value. These parameters comprise an important threshold for D^* . By processing properly-focussed f° values in ascending order (and k° values in ascending order for a constant f° value), the algorithm ensures that for all states X , if $f(X) < f_{min}$ or $(f(X) = f_{min} \text{ and } h(X) \leq k_{val})$, then $h(X)$ is optimal. The parameter *val* is used to store the vector $\langle f_{min}, k_{val} \rangle$ for the purpose of this test.

Let R_{curr} be the current state on which the search is focussed, initialized to the robot’s start state. Define the *robot state* function $r(X)$, which returns the robot’s state when X was last inserted or adjusted on the *OPEN* list. The parameter d_{curr} is the accrued bias from the robot’s start state to its current state; it is shorthand for $d(R_{curr}, R_0)$ and is initialized to $d_{curr} = d(R_0, R_0) = 0$. The following shorthand notation is used for f_B° and f° : $f_B(X) \equiv f_B(X, r(X))$ and $f(X) \equiv f(X, r(X))$.

4 Algorithm Description

The D^* algorithm consists primarily of three functions: *PROCESS-STATE*, *MODIFY-COST*, and *MOVE-ROBOT*. *PROCESS-STATE* computes optimal path costs to the goal, *MODIFY-COST* changes the arc cost function c° and enters affected states on the *OPEN* list, and *MOVE-ROBOT* uses the two functions to move the robot optimally. The algorithms for *PROCESS-STATE*, *MODIFY-COST*, and *MOVE-ROBOT* are presented below along with three of the more detailed functions for managing the *OPEN* list: *INSERT*, *MIN-STATE*, and *MIN-VAL*. The user provides the function $GVAL(X, Y)$, which computes and returns the focussing heuristic $g(X, Y)$.

The embedded routines are: *MIN(a, b)* returns the minimum of the two scalar values a and b ; *LESS(a, b)* takes a vector of values $\langle a_1, a_2 \rangle$ for a and a vector $\langle b_1, b_2 \rangle$ for b

and returns *TRUE* if $a_1 < b_1$ or ($a_1 = b_1$ and $a_2 < b_2$); *LESSEQ*(a, b) takes two vectors a and b and returns *TRUE* if $a_1 < b_1$ or ($a_1 = b_1$ and $a_2 \leq b_2$); *COST*(X) computes $f(X, R_{curr}) = h(X) + GVAL(X, R_{curr})$ and returns the vector of values $\langle f(X, R_{curr}), h(X) \rangle$ for a state X ; *DELETE*(X) deletes state X from the *OPEN* list and sets $t(X) = CLOSED$; *PUT-STATE*(X) sets $t(X) = OPEN$ and inserts X on the *OPEN* list according to the vector $\langle f_B(X), f(X), k(X) \rangle$; and *GET-STATE* returns the state on the *OPEN* list with minimum vector value (*NULL* if the list is empty).

The *INSERT* function, given below, changes the value of $h(X)$ to h_{new} and inserts or repositions X on the *OPEN* list. The value for $k(X)$ is determined at lines L1 through L5. The remaining two values in the vector are computed at line L7, and the state is inserted at line L8.

Function: INSERT (X, h_{new})

```
L1 if  $t(X) = NEW$  then  $k(X) = h_{new}$ 
L2 else
L3   if  $t(X) = OPEN$  then
L4      $k(X) = MIN(k(X), h_{new})$ ; DELETE( $X$ )
L5   else  $k(X) = MIN(h(X), h_{new})$ 
L6    $h(X) = h_{new}$ ;  $r(X) = R_{curr}$ 
L7    $f(X) = k(X) + GVAL(X, R_{curr})$ ;  $f_B(X) = f(X) + d_{curr}$ 
L8   PUT-STATE( $X$ )
```

The function *MIN-STATE*, given below, returns the state on the *OPEN* list with minimum $f(\cdot)$ value. In order to do this, the function retrieves the state on the *OPEN* list with lowest $f_B(\cdot)$ value. If the state was placed on the *OPEN* list when the robot was at a previous location (line L2), then it is re-inserted on the *OPEN* list at lines L3 and L4. This operation has the effect of correcting the state's accrued bias using the robot's current state while leaving the state's $h(\cdot)$ and $k(\cdot)$ values unchanged. *MIN-STATE* continues to retrieve states from the *OPEN* list until it finds one that was placed on the *OPEN* list with the robot at its current state.

Function: MIN-STATE ()

```
L1 while  $X = GET-STATE() \neq NULL$ 
L2   if  $r(X) \neq R_{curr}$  then
L3      $h_{new} = h(X)$ ;  $h(X) = k(X)$ 
L4     DELETE( $X$ ); INSERT( $X, h_{new}$ )
L5   else return  $X$ 
L6 return NULL
```

The *MIN-VAL* function, given below, returns the $f(\cdot)$ and $k(\cdot)$ values of the state on the *OPEN* list with minimum $f(\cdot)$ value, that is, $\langle f_{min}, k_{val} \rangle$.

Function: MIN-VAL ()

```
L1  $X = MIN-STATE()$ 
L2 if  $X = NULL$  then return NO-VAL
L3 else return  $\langle f(X), k(X) \rangle$ 
```

In function *PROCESS-STATE* cost changes are propagated and new paths are computed. At lines L1 through L3, the state X with the lowest $f(\cdot)$ value is removed from the *OPEN* list. If X is a *LOWER* state (i.e., $k(X) = h(X)$), its path cost is optimal. At lines L9 through L14, each neighbor Y of X is examined to see if its path cost can be lowered. Additionally, neighbor states that are *NEW* receive an initial path cost value, and cost changes are propagated to each

neighbor Y that has a backpointer to X , regardless of whether the new cost is greater than or less than the old. Since these states are descendants of X , any change to the path cost of X affects their path costs as well. The backpointer of Y is redirected, if needed. All neighbors that receive a new path cost are placed on the *OPEN* list, so that they will propagate the cost changes to their neighbors.

Function: PROCESS-STATE ()

```
L1  $X = MIN-STATE()$ 
L2 if  $X = NULL$  then return NO-VAL
L3  $val = \langle f(X), k(X) \rangle$ ;  $k_{val} = k(X)$ ; DELETE( $X$ )
L4 if  $k_{val} < h(X)$  then
L5   for each neighbor  $Y$  of  $X$ :
L6     if  $t(Y) \neq NEW$  and LESSEQ(COST( $Y, val$ )) and
L7        $h(X) > h(Y) + c(Y, X)$  then
L8        $b(X) = Y$ ;  $h(X) = h(Y) + c(Y, X)$ 
L9   if  $k_{val} = h(X)$  then
L10    for each neighbor  $Y$  of  $X$ :
L11      if  $t(Y) = NEW$  or
L12        ( $b(Y) = X$  and  $h(Y) \neq h(X) + c(X, Y)$ ) or
L13        ( $b(Y) \neq X$  and  $h(Y) > h(X) + c(X, Y)$ ) then
L14         $b(Y) = X$ ; INSERT( $Y, h(X) + c(X, Y)$ )
L15 else
L16   for each neighbor  $Y$  of  $X$ :
L17     if  $t(Y) = NEW$  or
L18       ( $b(Y) = X$  and  $h(Y) \neq h(X) + c(X, Y)$ ) then
L19        $b(Y) = X$ ; INSERT( $Y, h(X) + c(X, Y)$ )
L20   else
L21     if  $b(Y) \neq X$  and  $h(Y) > h(X) + c(X, Y)$  and
L22        $t(X) = CLOSED$  then
L23       INSERT( $X, h(X)$ )
L24   else
L25     if  $b(Y) \neq X$  and  $h(X) > h(Y) + c(Y, X)$  and
L26        $t(Y) = CLOSED$  and
L27       LESS( $val, COST(Y)$ ) then
L28       INSERT( $Y, h(Y)$ )
L29 return MIN-VAL()
```

If X is a *RAISE* state, its path cost may not be optimal. Before X propagates cost changes to its neighbors, its optimal neighbors are examined at lines L4 through L8 to see if $h(X)$ can be reduced. At lines L16 through L19, cost changes are propagated to *NEW* states and immediate descendants in the same way as for *LOWER* states. If X is able to lower the path cost of a state that is not an immediate descendant (lines L21 through L23), X is placed back on the *OPEN* list for future expansion. This action is required to avoid creating a closed loop in the backpointers [Stentz, 1993]. If the path cost of X is able to be reduced by a suboptimal neighbor (lines L25 through L28), the neighbor is placed back on the *OPEN* list. Thus, the update is "postponed" until the neighbor has an optimal path cost.

In function *MODIFY-COST*, the arc cost function is updated with the changed value. Since the path cost for state Y will change, X is placed on the *OPEN* list. When X is expanded via *PROCESS-STATE*, it computes a new $h(Y) = h(X) + c(X, Y)$ and places Y on the *OPEN* list. Additional state expansions propagate the cost to the descendants of Y .

Function: MODIFY-COST (X, Y, c_{val})

```

L1  $c(X, Y) = c_{val}$ 
L2 if  $t(X) = CLOSED$  then  $INSERT(X, h(X))$ 
L3 return  $MIN - VAL()$ 

```

The function *MOVE-ROBOT* illustrates how to use *PROCESS-STATE* and *MODIFY-COST* to move the robot from state S through the environment to G along an optimal traverse. At lines L1 through L4 of *MOVE-ROBOT*, $t()$ is set to *NEW* for all states, the accrued bias and focal point are initialized, $h(G)$ is set to zero, and G is placed on the *OPEN* list. *PROCESS-STATE* is called repeatedly at lines L6 and L7 until either an initial path is computed to the robot's state (i.e., $t(S) = CLOSED$) or it is determined that no path exists (i.e., $val = NO-VAL$ and $t(S) = NEW$). The robot then proceeds to follow the backpointers until it either reaches the goal or discovers a discrepancy (line L11) between the *sensor measurement* of an arc cost $s()$ and the stored arc cost $c()$ (e.g., due to a detected obstacle). Note that these discrepancies may occur anywhere, not just on the path to the goal. If the robot moved since the last time discrepancies were discovered, then its state R is saved as the new focal point, and the accrued bias, d_{curr} , is updated (lines L12 and L13). *MODIFY-COST* is called to correct $c()$ and place affected states on the *OPEN* list at line L15. *PROCESS-STATE* is then called repeatedly at line L17 to propagate costs and compute a new path to the goal. The robot continues to follow the backpointers toward the goal. The function returns *GOAL-REACHED* if the goal is found and *NO-PATH* if it is unreachable.

Function: MOVE-ROBOT (S, G)

```

L1 for each state  $X$  in the graph:
L2  $t(X) = NEW$ 
L3  $d_{curr} = 0$ ;  $R_{curr} = S$ 
L4  $INSERT(G, 0)$ 
L5  $val = \langle 0, 0 \rangle$ 
L6 while  $t(S) \neq CLOSED$  and  $val \neq NO-VAL$ 
L7  $val = PROCESS-STATE()$ 
L8 if  $t(S) = NEW$  then return NO-PATH
L9  $R = S$ 
L10 while  $R \neq G$ :
L11 if  $s(X, Y) \neq c(X, Y)$  for some  $(X, Y)$  then
L12 if  $R_{curr} \neq R$  then
L13  $d_{curr} = d_{curr} + GVAL(R, R_{curr}) + \epsilon$ ;  $R_{curr} = R$ 
L14 for each  $(X, Y)$  such that  $s(X, Y) \neq c(X, Y)$ :
L15  $val = MODIFY-COST(X, Y, s(X, Y))$ 
L16 while  $LESS(val, COST(R))$  and  $val \neq NO-VAL$ 
L17  $val = PROCESS-STATE()$ 
L18  $R = b(R)$ 
L19 return GOAL-REACHED

```

It should be noted that line L8 in *MOVE-ROBOT* only detects the condition that no path exists from the robot's state to the goal if, for example, the graph is disconnected. It does not detect the condition that all paths to the goal are obstructed by obstacles. In order to provide for this capability, obstructed arcs can be assigned a large positive value of *OBSTACLE* and unobstructed arcs can be assigned a small positive value of *EMPTY*. *OBSTACLE* should be chosen such that it exceeds the longest possible path of

EMPTY arcs in the graph. No unobstructed path exists to the goal from S if $h(S) \geq OBSTACLE$ after exiting the loop at line L6. Likewise, no unobstructed path exists to the goal from a state R during the traverse if $h(R) \geq OBSTACLE$ after exiting the loop at line L16. Since $R = R_{curr}$ for a robot state R undergoing path recalculations, then $g(R, R) = 0$ and $f(R, R) = h(R)$. Therefore, optimality is guaranteed for a state R , if $f_{min} > h(R)$ or ($f_{min} = h(R)$ and $k_{val} \geq h(R)$).

5 Example

Figure 4 shows a cluttered 100 x 100 state environment. The robot starts at state S and moves to state G . All of the obstacles, shown in black, are unknown before the robot starts its traverse, and the map contains only *EMPTY* arcs. The robot is point-size and is equipped with a 10-state radial field-of-view sensor. The figure shows the robot's traverse from S to G using the Basic D* algorithm. The traverse is shown as a black curve with white arrows. As the robot moves, its sensor detects the unknown obstacles. Detected obstacles are shown in grey with black arrows. Obstacles that remain unknown after the traverse are shown in solid black or black with white arrows. The arrows show the final cost field for all states examined during the traverse. Note that most of the states are examined at least once by the algorithm.

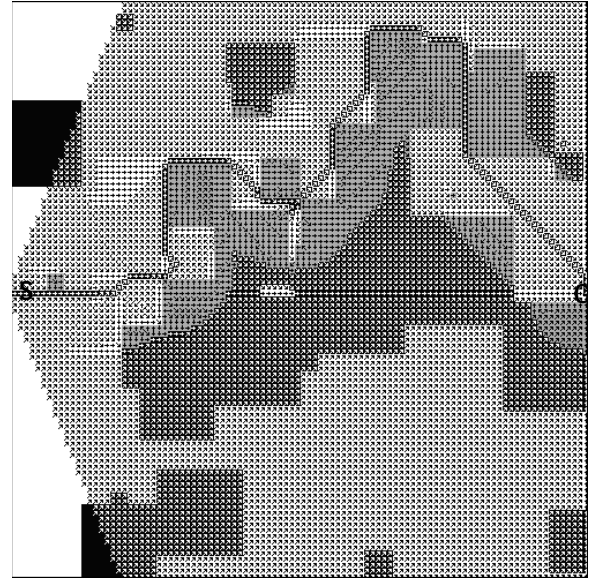
**Figure 4: Basic D* Algorithm**

Figure 5 shows the robot's traverse using the Focussed D* algorithm. The number of *NEW* states examined is fewer than Basic D*, since the Focussed D* algorithm focuses the initial path calculation and subsequent cost updates on the robot's location. Note that even for those states examined by the algorithm, fewer of them end up with optimal paths to the goal. Finally, note that the two trajectories are not fully equivalent. This occurs because the lowest-cost traverse is not unique, and the two algorithms break ties in the path costs arbitrarily.

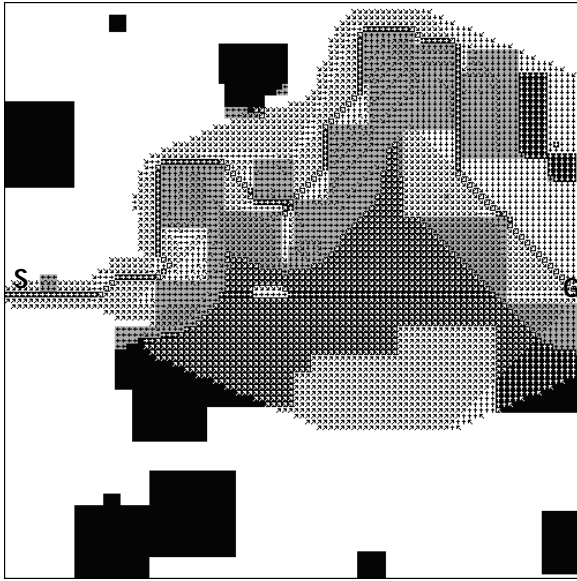


Figure 5: Focussed D* Algorithm

6 Experimental Results

Four algorithms were tested to verify optimality and to compare run-time results. The first algorithm, the Brute-Force Replanner (BFR), initially plans a single path from the goal to the start state. The robot proceeds to follow the path until its sensor detects an error in the map. The robot updates the map, plans a new path from the goal to its current location using a focussed A* search, and repeats until the goal is reached. The focussing heuristic, $g(X, Y)$, was chosen to be the minimum possible number of state transitions between Y and X , assuming the lowest arc cost value for each.

The second and third algorithms, Basic D* (BD*) and Focussed D* with Minimal Initialization (FD*M), are described in Stentz [1994] and Section 4, respectively. The fourth algorithm, Focussed D* with Full Initialization (FD*F), is the same as FD*M except that the path costs are propagated to all states in the planning space, which is assumed to be finite, during the initial path calculation, rather than terminating when the path reaches the robot's start state.

The four algorithms were compared on planning problems of varying size. Each environment was square, consisting of a start state in the center of the left wall and a goal state in center of the right wall. Each environment consisted of a mix of map obstacles known to the robot before the traverse and unknown obstacles measurable by the robot's sensor. The sensor used was omnidirectional with a 10-state radial field of view. Figure 6 shows an environment model with approximately 100,000 states. The known obstacles are shown in grey and the unknown obstacles in black.

The results for environments of 10^4 , 10^5 , and 10^6 states are shown in Table 1. The reported times are CPU time for a Sun Microsystems SPARC-10 processor. For each environment size, the four algorithms were compared on five randomly-generated environments, and the results were averaged. The *off-line* time is the CPU time required to

compute the initial path from the goal to the robot, or in the case of FD*F, from the goal to all states in the environment. This operation is "off-line" since it could be performed in advance of robot motion if the initial map were available. The *on-line* time is the total CPU time for all replanning operations needed to move the robot from the start to the goal.

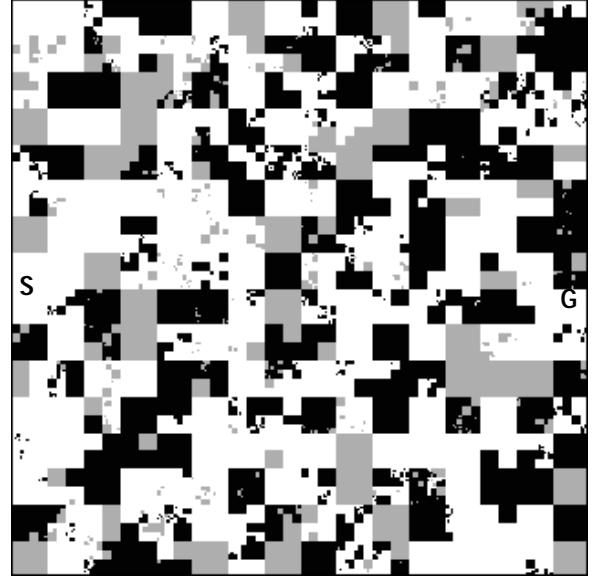


Figure 6: Typical Environment for Comparison

	Focussed D* with Full Init	Focussed D* with Min Init	Basic D*	Brute-Force Replanner
Off-line: 10^4	1.85 sec	0.16 sec	1.02 sec	0.09 sec
On-line: 10^4	1.09 sec	1.70 sec	1.31 sec	13.07 sec
Off-line: 10^5	19.75 sec	0.68 sec	12.55 sec	0.41 sec
On-line: 10^5	9.53 sec	18.20 sec	16.94 sec	11.86 min
Off-line: 10^6	224.62 sec	9.53 sec	129.08 sec	4.82 sec
On-line: 10^6	10.01 sec	41.72 sec	21.47 sec	50.63 min

Table 1: Results for Empirical Tests

The results for each algorithm are highly dependent on the complexity of the environment, including the number, size, and placement of the obstacles, and the ratio of known to unknown obstacles. For the test cases examined, all variations of D* outperformed BFR in on-line time, reaching a speedup factor of approximately 300 for large environments. Generally, the performance gap increased as the size of the environment increased. If the user wants to minimize on-line time at the expense of off-line time, then FD*F is the best algorithm. In this algorithm, path costs to all states are computed initially and only the cost propagations are focussed. Note that FD*F resulted in lower on-line times and higher off-line times than BD*. The FD*M algorithm resulted in lower off-line times and higher on-line

times than BD*. Focussing the search enables a rapid start due to fewer state expansions, but many of the unexplored states must be examined anyway during the replanning process resulting in a longer execution time. Thus, FD*M is the best algorithm if the user wants to minimize the *total* time, that is, if the off-line time is considered to be on-line time as well.

Thus, the Focussed D* algorithm can be configured to outperform Basic D* in either total time or the on-line portion of the operation, depending on the requirements of the task. As a general strategy, focussing the search is a good idea; the only issue is how the computational load should be distributed.

7 Conclusions

This paper presents the Focussed D* algorithm for real-time path replanning. The algorithm computes an initial path from the goal state to the start state and then efficiently modifies this path during the traverse as arc costs change. The algorithm produces an optimal traverse, meaning that an optimal path to the goal is followed at every state in the traverse, assuming all known information at each step is correct. The focussed version of D* outperforms the basic version, and it offers the user the option of distributing the computational load amongst the on- and off-line portions of the operation, depending on the task requirements. The addition of a heuristic focussing function to D* completes its development as a generalization of A* to dynamic environments--A* is the special case of D* where arc costs do not change during the traverse of the solution path.

Acknowledgments

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