### BLG456E Robotics Motion Planning

- Framework.
- Reactive approaches.
- Transform-and-search approach.
- Iterative search approach.
- Optimisation for motion planning.
- Other considerations

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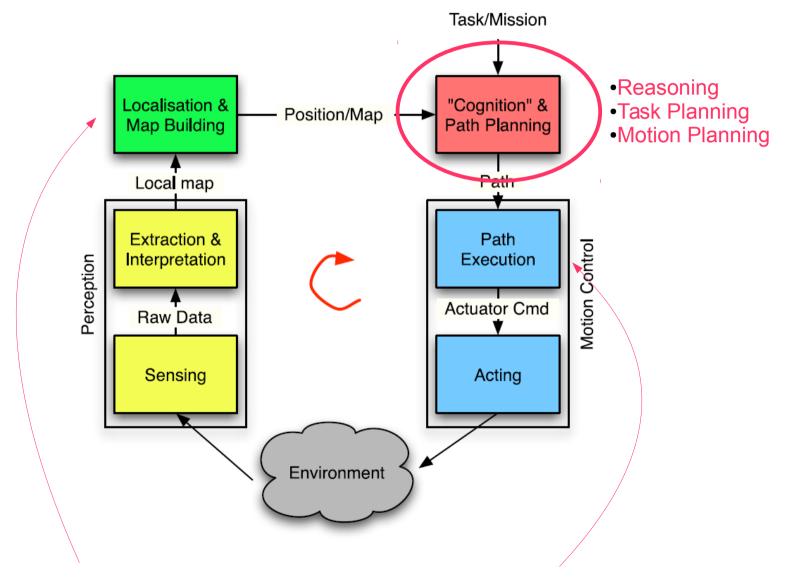
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Some slides adapted from work by Dr. Sanem Sariel-Talay

# Definition of Motion Planning

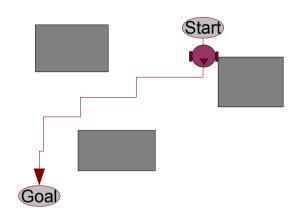
Motion planning: Finding motions (paths, trajectories, movement policies...) to reach a goal while satisfying constraints.

# Standard model: Where motion planning fits

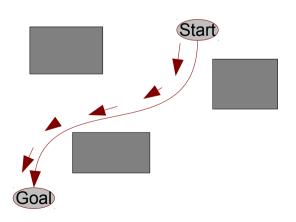


But sometimes can encompass many other parts (e.g. planning to explore, feedback planning).

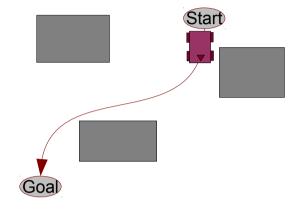
# Kinds of abstraction in motion planning



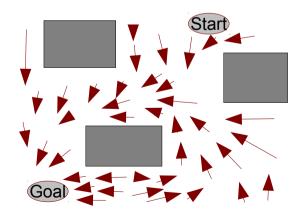
1. Path.



3. Trajectory in phase-space.



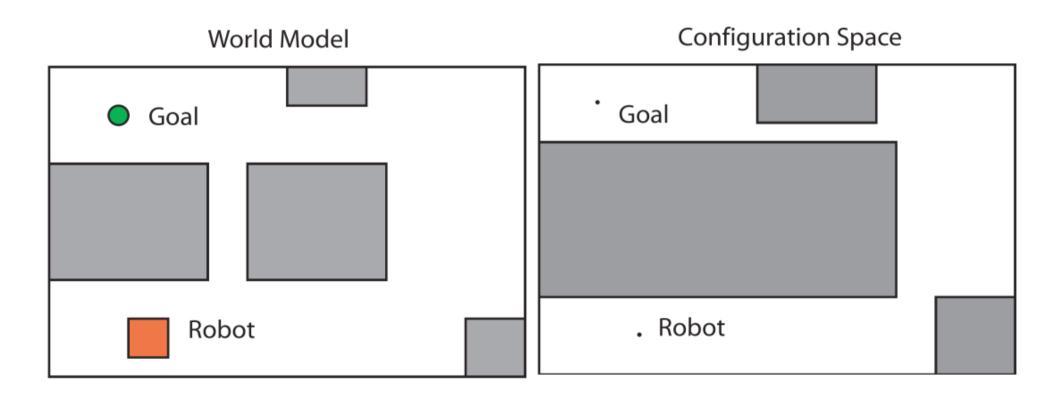
2. Path, conforming to differential constraints.



4. Feedback controller.

# Workspace vs. configuration space

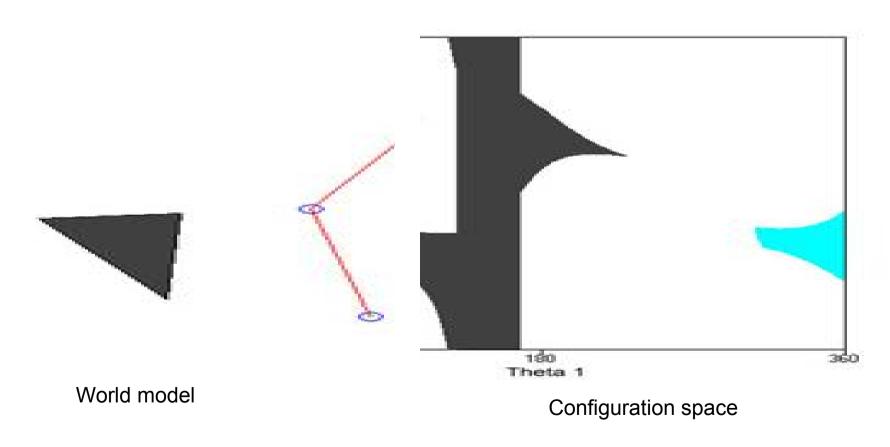
#### **Holonomic mobile robot**



Configurations spaces are supposed to allow general motion planning.

# Workspace vs. configuration space

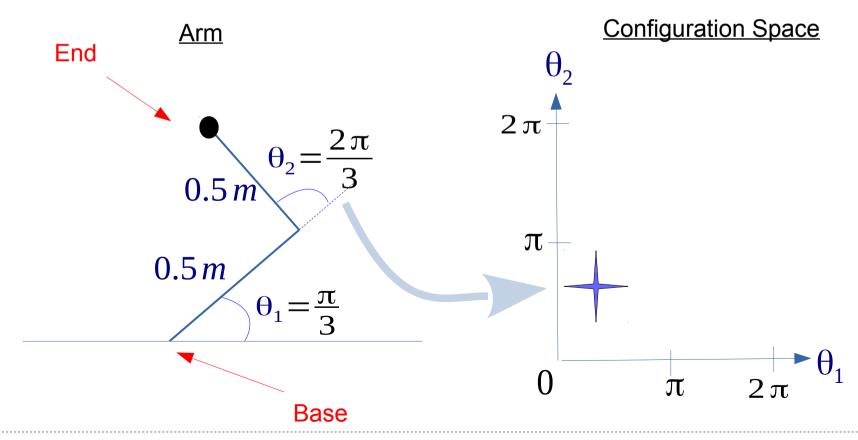
#### **Robot arm**



Configurations spaces are supposed to allow general motion planning.

# Exercise: configuration spaces

With the below robot arm, plot these configurations in configuration space and also draw the arm in its position:



Additional question: Plot a configuration that is impossible due to table-collision or self-collision.

### Kinds of Motion Planning

- Workspace (Cartesian planning) vs. configuration space.
- Unconstrained vs. constrained.
- State-space vs. phase-space.
- Trajectory finding vs feedback planning.
- Off-line vs on-line planning.
- Continuous vs hybrid.
- Approach to search:
  - Reactive.
  - Transform and search.
  - Iterative search.

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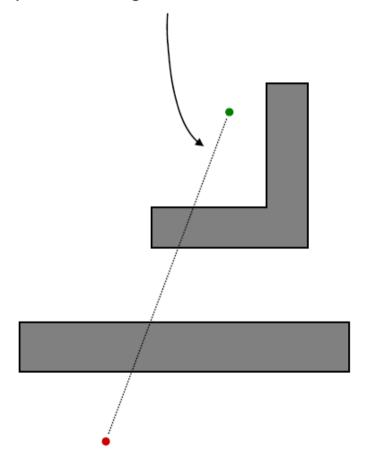
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## Reactive algorithms I: Bug2

Call the line from the starting point to the goal the *m-line* 

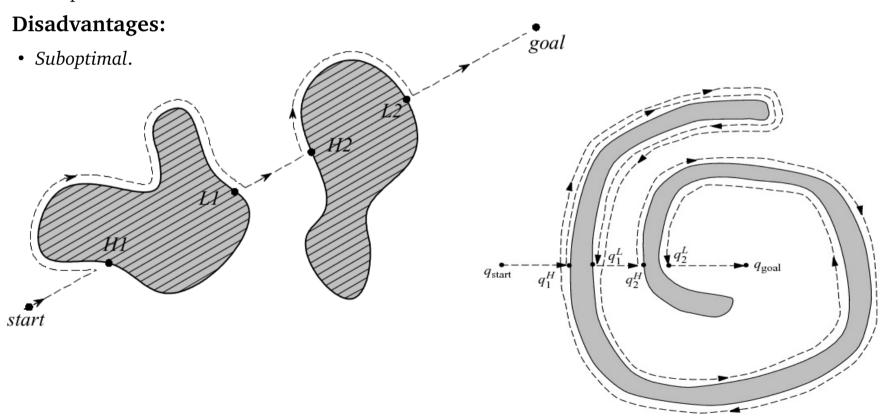


- IF no obstacle and would make progress THEN
  - Move towards goal on *m*-line.
- ELSE
  - Keep obstacle on right (left) side.
- LOOP

## Reactive algorithms I: Bug2

### **Advantages:**

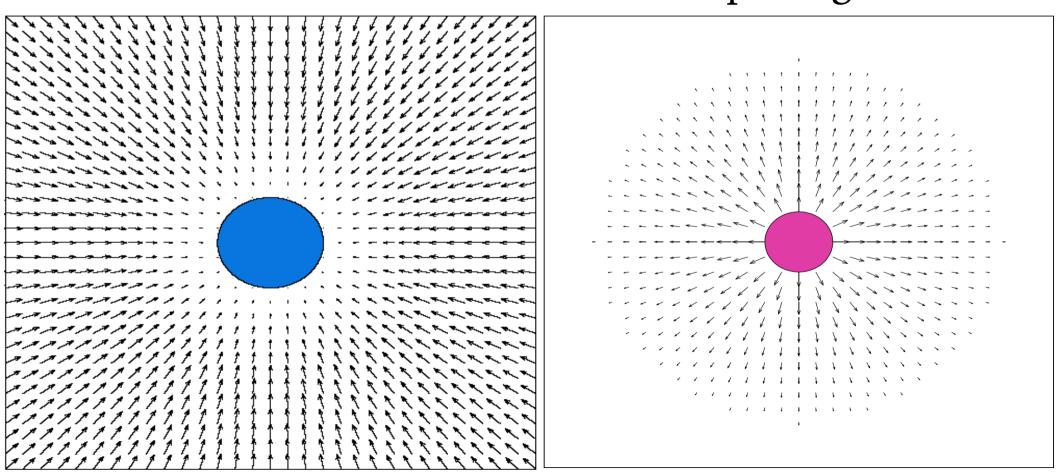
- No map required.
- Reactive (but needs localisation).
- Complete.



## Reactive algorithms II: Potential field

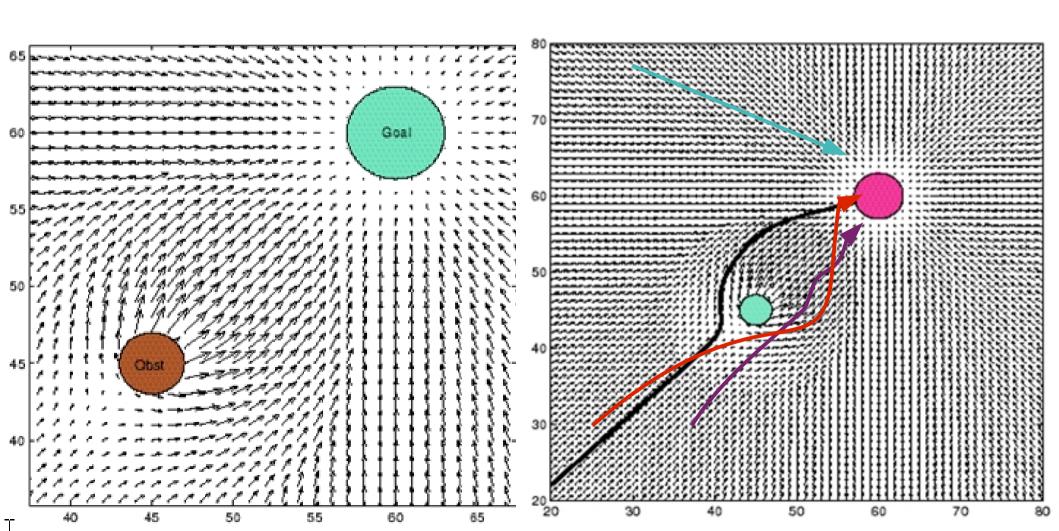
Goal provides attractive field.

Obstacles provide repelling field.

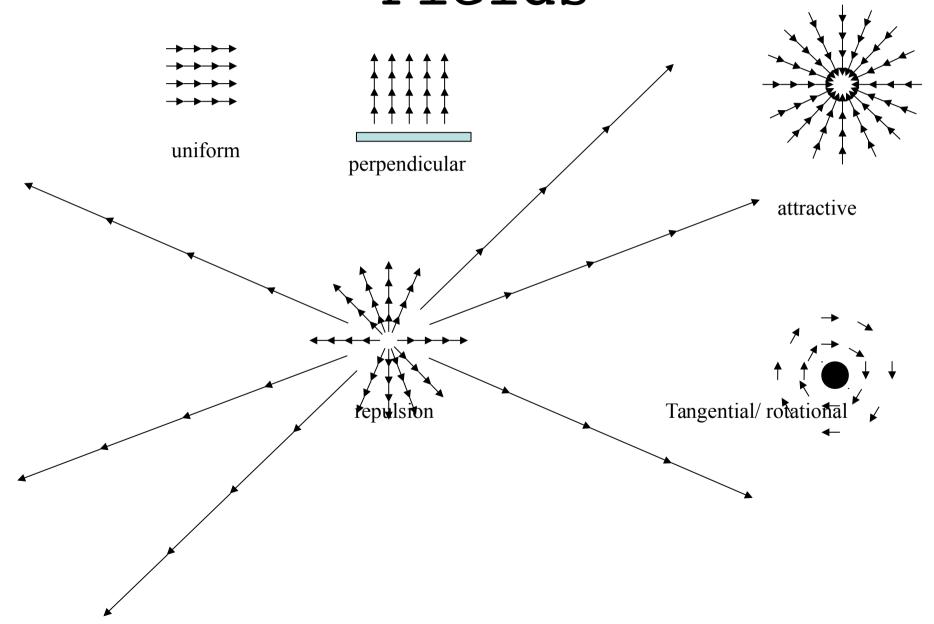


## Reactive algorithms II: Potential field

Fields added (vector addition).



# Primitive Potential Fields



### Reactive algorithms II: Potential field

• Goal provides attractive field. e.g.  $U_q(x,y) = k_q[(x-x_q)^2 + (y-y_q)^2]$ 

e.g. 
$$U_g(x,y) = k_g[(x-x_g)^2 + (y-y_g)^2]$$

• Obstacles provide repelling field. e.g. 
$$U_i(x,y) = \frac{k_{obs}}{(x-x_i)^2 + (y-y_i)^2}$$

Fields added (vector addition). e.g.  $U = (x, y) = U_i(x, y) + U_a(x, y)$ 

e.g. 
$$U = (x, y) = U_i(x, y) + U_a(x, y)$$

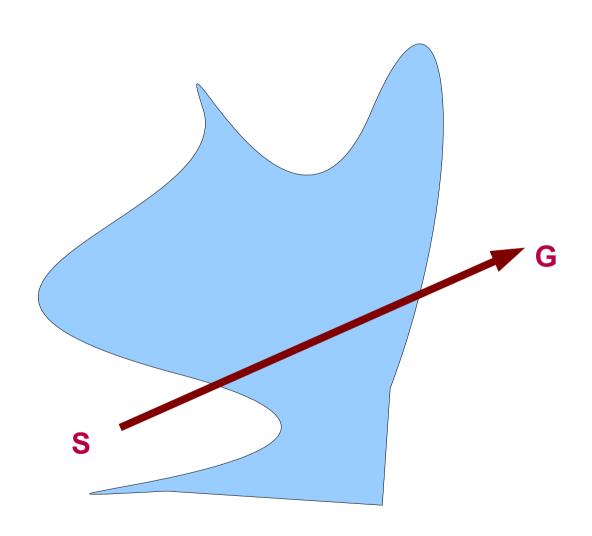
Differentiate these to find forces in X and Y direction.

e.g. 
$$\nabla U_i(x,y) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial U}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2(x_i - x)k_{obs}}{((x - x_i)^2 + (y - y_i)^2)^2} \\ \frac{2(y_i - y)k_{obs}}{((x - x_i)^2 + (y - y_i)^2)^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

## Reactive algorithms II: Potential field

- Advantages:
  - Can be faster.
  - Simple.
  - Adaptable to different domains/constraints.
- Disadvantages:
  - Suboptimal.
  - Incomplete.

(won't always find a plan and won't know if there isn't one)



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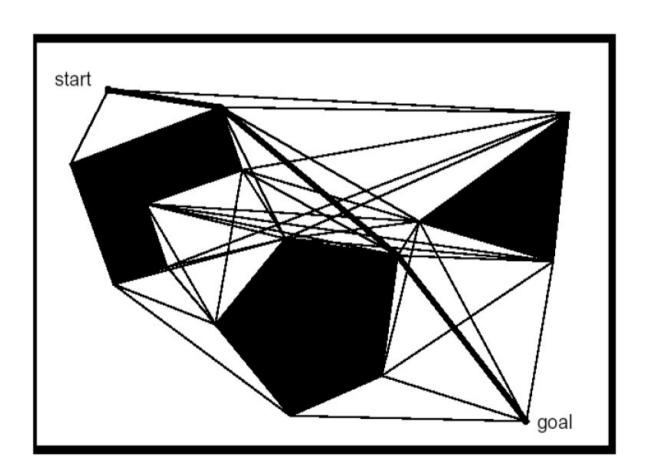
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## Transform-and-search algorithms I: Visibility graph

- Connect vertices (start & goal) with lines between.
- Do graph search (shortest path, cost=distance).



### Advantages?

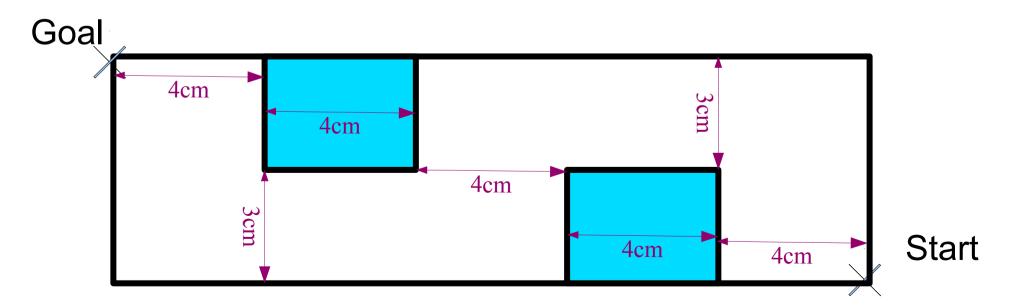
- Complete
- Geometrically optimal.

#### Drawbacks?

- Compuational complexity.
- Polygons required.
- Closeness to obstacles?
- Differential constraints?

# Exercise: make a visibility graph

- 1. Make a visibility graph out of the below motion planning problem.
- 2. Calculate edge lengths.
- 3. Do a depth-first search, expanding nodes anti-clockwise, to find a path start→ goal.

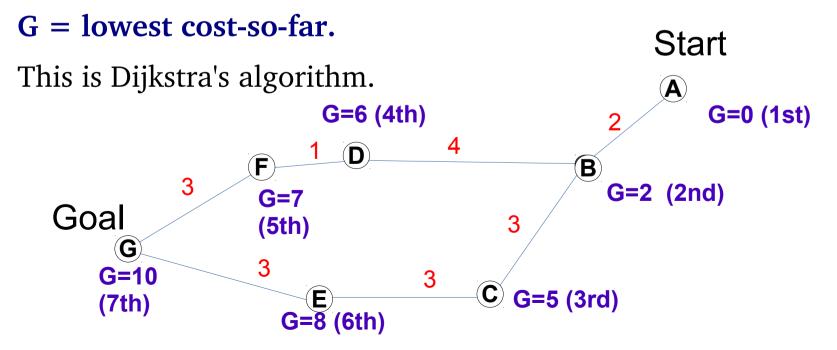


# Better search in roadmaps: Dijkstra's

- Shortest path guaranteed.
- Order node expansion by "best first".

Rather than FIFO or LIFO.

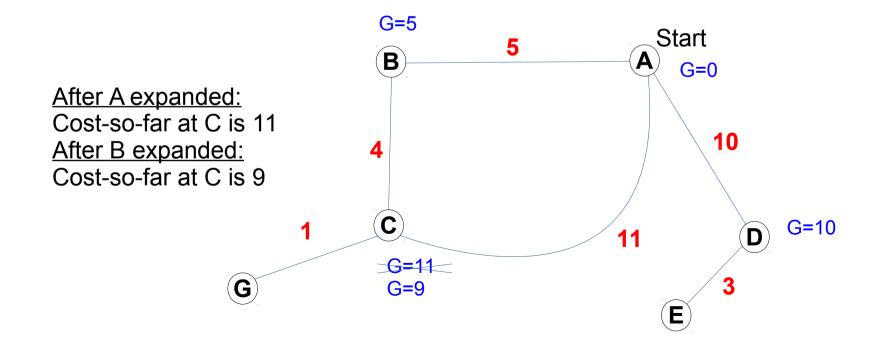
- Keep a "visited" list.
- Simplest example of "best first":



### Multiple routes to a node

Sometimes need to update cost at a fringe node.

**Fringe** = set of candidate nodes to be expanded (unexpanded neighbours of expanded nodes)



# Better search in roadmaps: A\*

- Can do better than cost-so-far.
- Add a heuristic cost-to-go.
  - Order node expansion by F = G + H

**G** = Known cost-so-far (start to node).

H = Heuristic cost-to-go (node to goal).

 Cost must be "admissible" for shortest-path guarantee.

Admissible: Never overestimates cost.

## General search algorithm

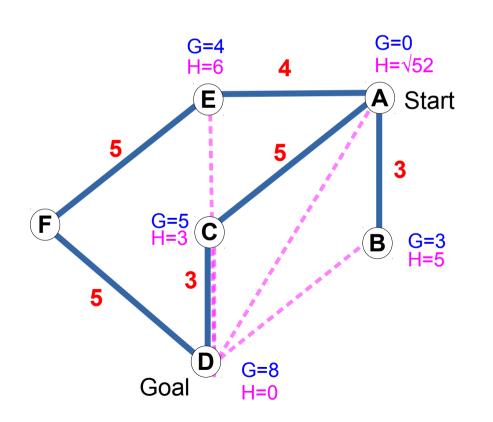
```
FRINGE \leftarrow \{(initial\ node)\}
                                                            * FIFO
                                                            * LIFO
VISITED ← {initial node}
                                                            * cost-so-far
                                                            * heuristic
loop while |FRINGE| > 0:
   current path \leftarrow Choose(FRINGE)
   for n in Neighbours(End(current path)):
       if n \notin VISITED:
          if n \in GOAL return current path+n
          FRINGE \leftarrow FRINGE \cup \{current \ path+n\}
          VISITED \leftarrow VISITED \cup \{n\}
```

https://qiao.github.io/PathFinding.js/visual/

## A\* example

Euclidean distance:  $\sqrt{(x_1-x_2)^2+(y_1-y_2)^2}$ Manhattan distance:  $|x_1-x_2|+|y_1-y_2|$ 

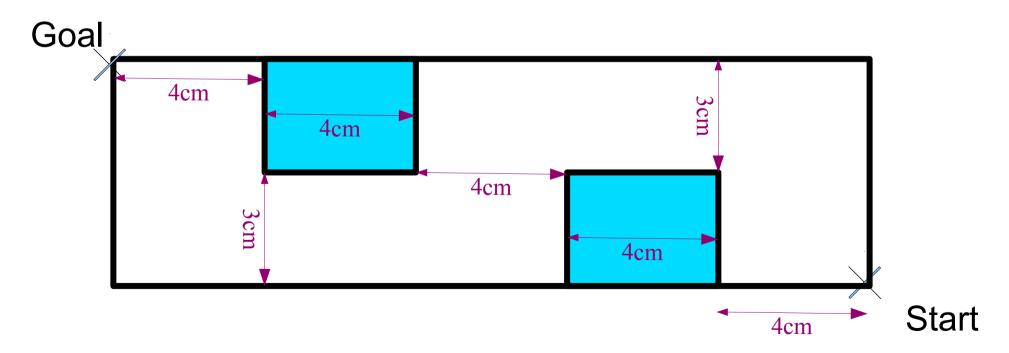
- G = cost so far.
- Let H be Euclidean distance to goal.
- What would happen if H was the Manhattan distance?



Fringe Step 1: <b>A</b> : F=2√52 Expand A	<u>Visited</u> Step 1:
Step 2: <b>B</b> : F=8 <b>C</b> : F=8 <b>E</b> : F=10 Expand B	<u>Step 2:</u> <b>A</b>
Step 3: <b>C</b> : F=8 <b>E</b> : F=10 Expand C	<u>Step 3:</u> <b>A, B</b>

## Exercise: search a roadmap

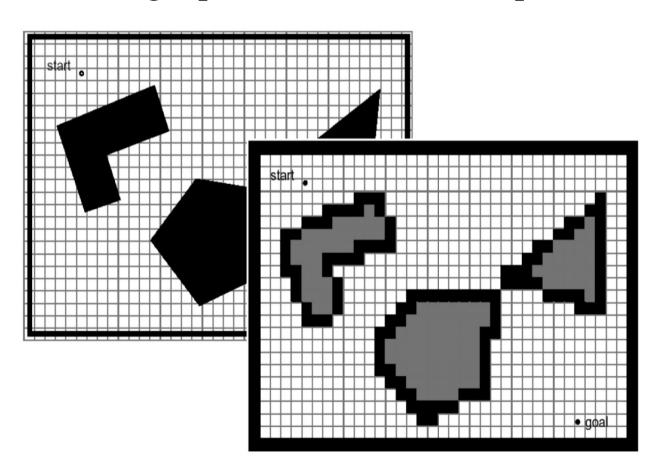
Calculate the visibility graph of the below problem, add edge lengths, and conduct an A\* search using Euclidean distance as the heuristic.



Finding goal does not guarantee shortest path found.

## Transform-and-search algorithms V: Approximate grid decomposition

- Graph nodes are grid entries.
- Do graph search (shortest path, cost=distance).



#### <u>Advantages</u>

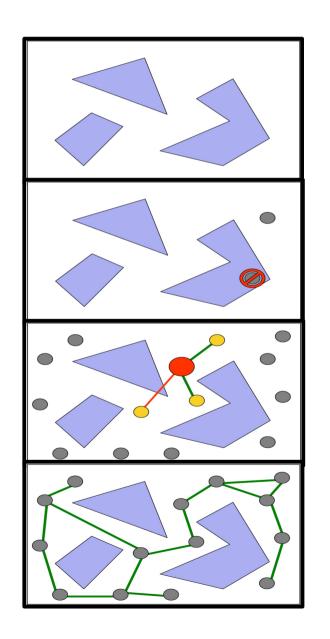
- Efficient.
- More granular than simple decomposition.
- Resolution complete.
   (fine enough resolution → solution known)

#### Drawbacks?

- Approximation near edges (tight gaps)
- Robot shape?
- Differential constraints?

Diagram: Siegwart &

## Transform-and-search algorithms III: Probabilistic Roadmaps



- Randomly sample N collisionfree vertices.
- Put edges between k closest neighbours.
- Search graph: closest-point to start → closest-point to goal.

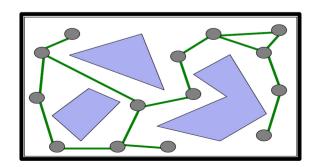
## Transform-and-search algorithms III: Probabilistic Roadmaps

### **Advantages:**

- Probabilistically complete.
   As sampled points → ∞, correctness probability → 1.
- Efficient.
- Not domain-specific (e.g. protein folding).

### • <u>Disadvantages:</u>

- Completeness depends on computation time.
- Differential constraints & tight spaces:
  - How to move between nodes?
  - Start to a node, node to a goal?
  - Direction along edge important?
  - Local planning needed.



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## Iterative search algorithms I: Incremental forward search

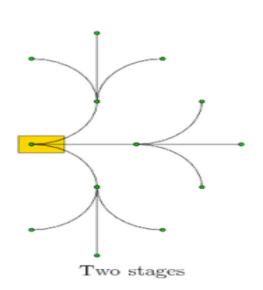
- Combine "motion primitives" can be *any* motion!
- No graph, just search.

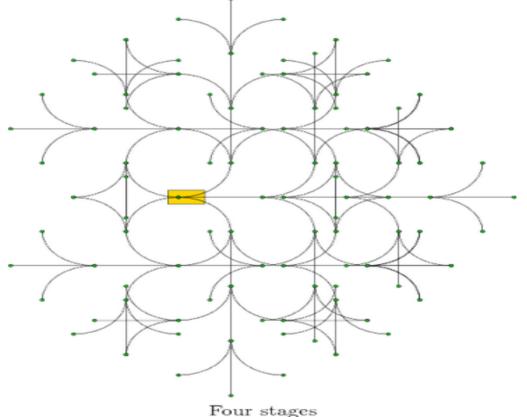
#### **Advantages**

- Constraints/dynamics automatically accounted for.
- Not domain-specific.

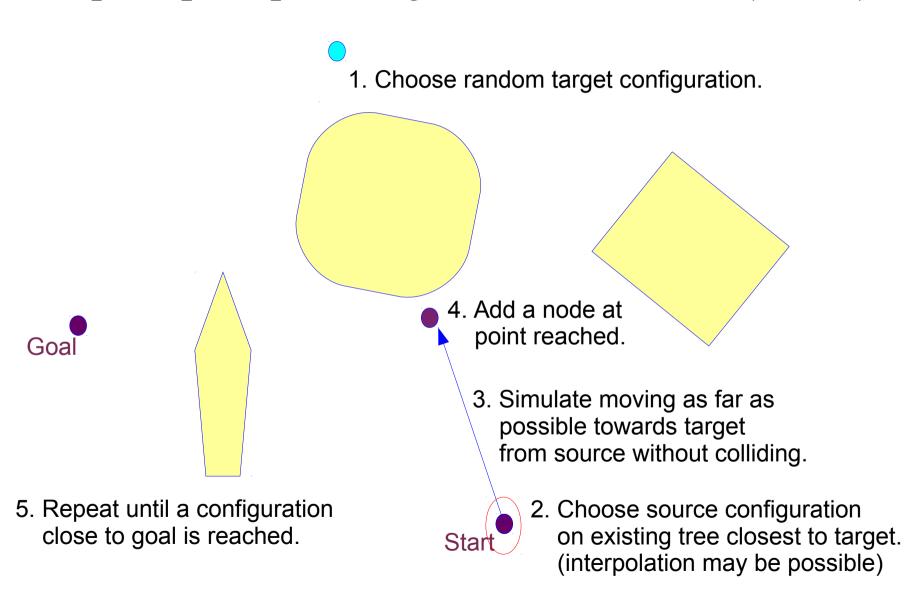
#### **Disadvantages**

- Non-reusable.
- Combinatorial explosion.

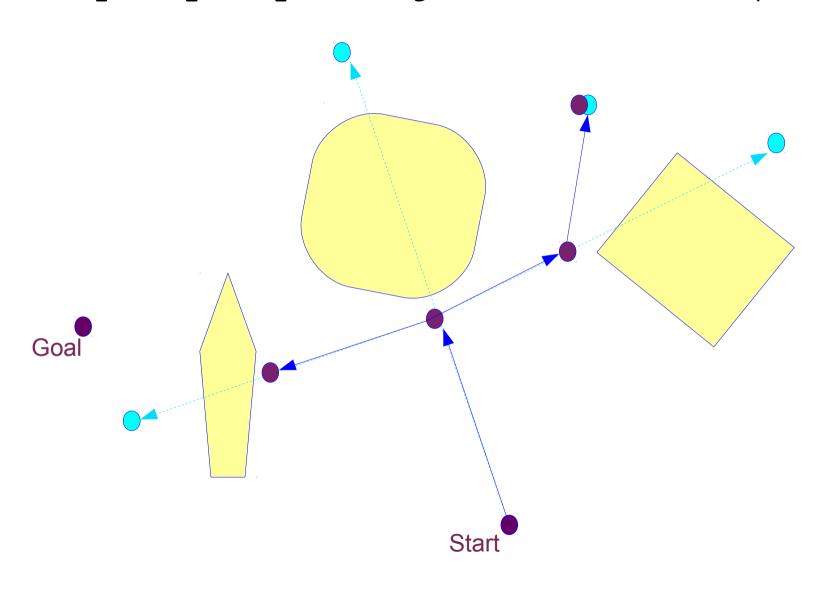




## Iterative search algorithms II: Rapidly exploring Random Trees (RRTs)



Iterative search algorithms II: Rapidly exploring Random Trees (RRTs)



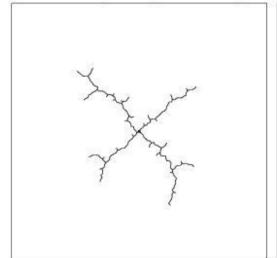
## Iterative search algorithms II: Rapidly exploring Random Trees (RRTs)

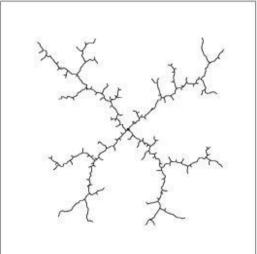
#### **Advantages**

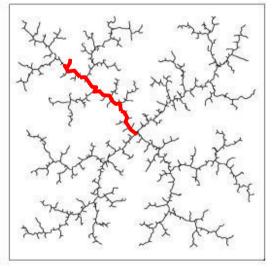
- Fast.
- Not domain specific.
- Often probabilistically complete.

#### **Disadvantages**

- Can be suboptimal.
- Can fail.







See also http://msl.cs.uiuc.edu/rrt/gallery.html and http://correll.cs.colorado.edu/?p=1623

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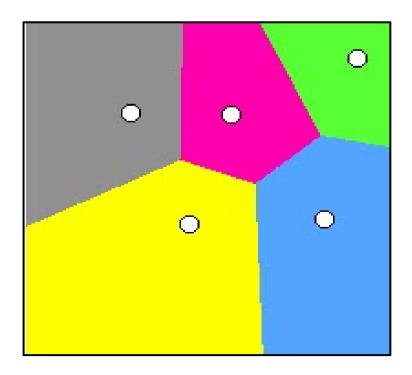
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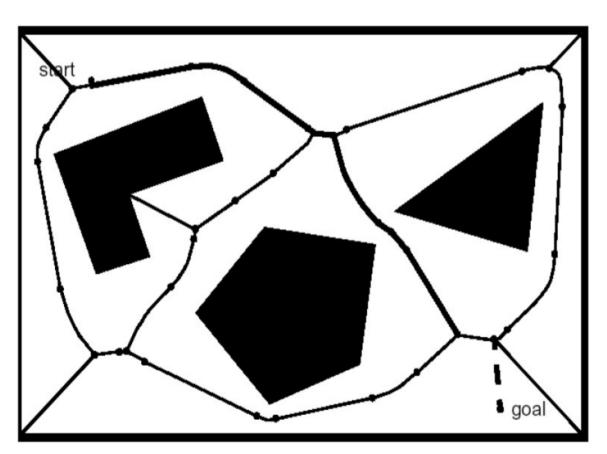
# Voronoi Graph Preliminary: Voronoi decomposition

- Colour space according to closest obstacle point.
- Edges are maximally distant from obstacle points.
- Generalisations include distance from *edges*.



## Transform-and-search algorithms II: Voronoi graph

- Graph nodes are Voronoi edge junctions.
- Do graph search (shortest path, cost=distance).



#### Advantages?

- Complete.
- Maximise clearance.
- Minimise accidental collision.
- Computational complexity.

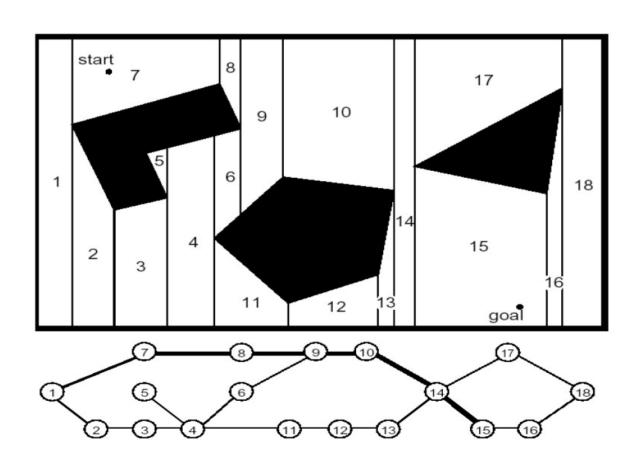
#### Drawbacks?

- Geometrically suboptimal.
- Polygons needed.
- Differential constraints?
- Limited range sensors/ localisation might fail.

Diagram: Siegwart &

### Transform-and-search algorithms IV: Exact cell decomposition

- Graph nodes are cells.
- Do graph search (shortest path, cost=distance).



#### <u>Advantages</u>

- Graph is complete.

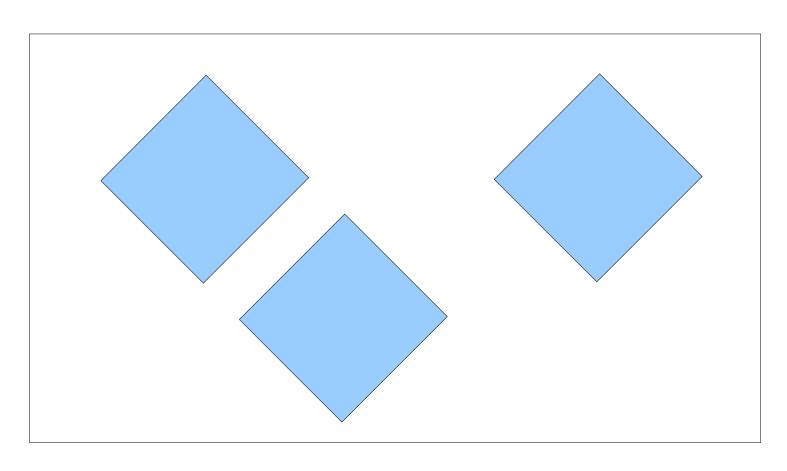
#### **Drawbacks?**

- Distance between nodes?
- Moving between nodes?.
- Robot shape?
- Differential constraints?

Diagram: Siegwart & Nourbakhsh

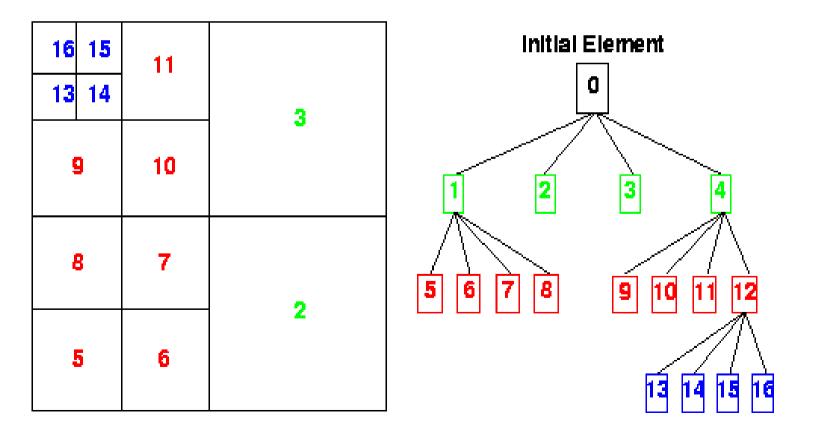
### Exact cell decomposition exercise

• Decompose the following map using vertical lines.



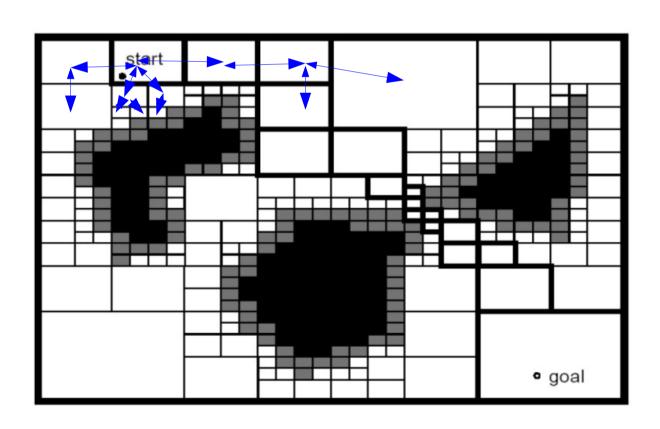
### Adaptive cell decomposition preliminaries: Quad-tree

• **Quad-tree**: a data structure for efficiently indexing 2D space.



### Transform-and-search algorithms V: Adaptive cell decomposition

- Quad-trees or oct-trees or kd-trees.
- Do graph search (shortest path, cost=distance).



#### <u>Advantages</u>

- Efficient.
- Resolution complete.
- Higher granularity.

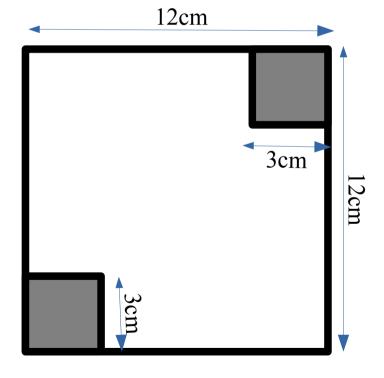
#### **Drawbacks?**

- Robot shape?
- Differential constraints?

### Quad-tree exercise

Represent the following space with a quad-

tree.



#### Some Variations

- Bug2 → Tangent Bug.
  - Better wall-following with laser scanner.
- Potential fields → Local minima repair.
  - Tricks for dealing with local minima.
- Visibility graph → Reduced visibility graph.
  - Reducing the size of the visibility graph.
- RRT  $\rightarrow$  BiRRT.
  - Faster RRT with search from both goal and start.
- Decompositions → On-demand decomposition.
  - No transforming the full graph for search.

• ...

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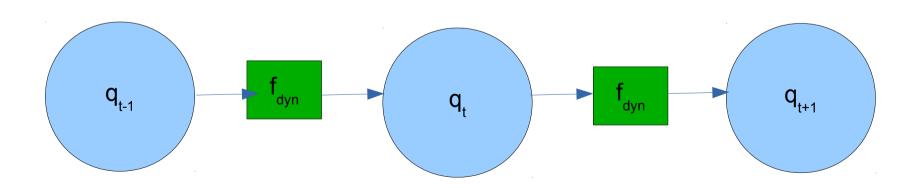
Path planning is an optimisation problem:

- Objective:
  - Minimize path-length.
  - Minimize danger (e.g. of rolling).
  - Minimize time.
- Constraints:
  - Do not collide.
  - Do not violate differential constraints.
- General optimisation may not be good for initialisation.
  - → initialise with specialised planner (e.g. PRM).

• A trajectory is a sequence of states:

$$q_{1:T} = q_{1,q_2,q_3} \dots q_{T-2}, q_{T-1}, q_T$$

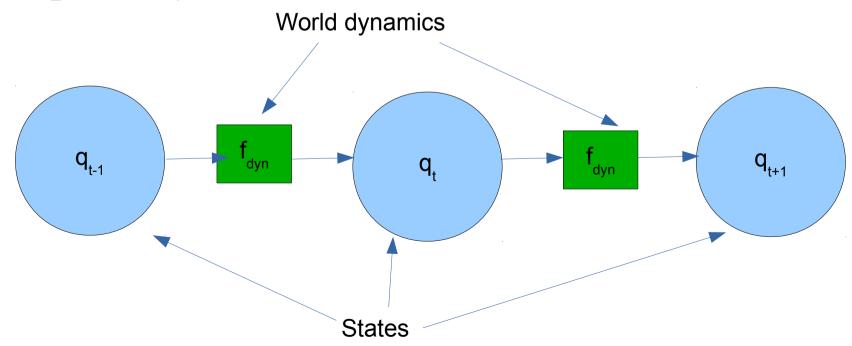
• Graphically:



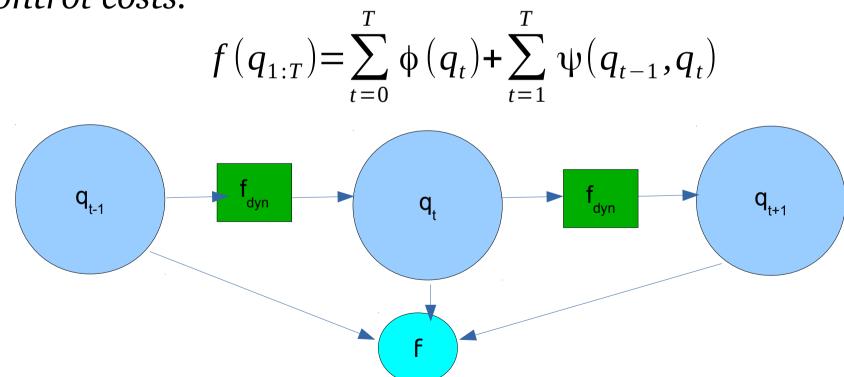
• A trajectory is a sequence of states:

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Graphically:

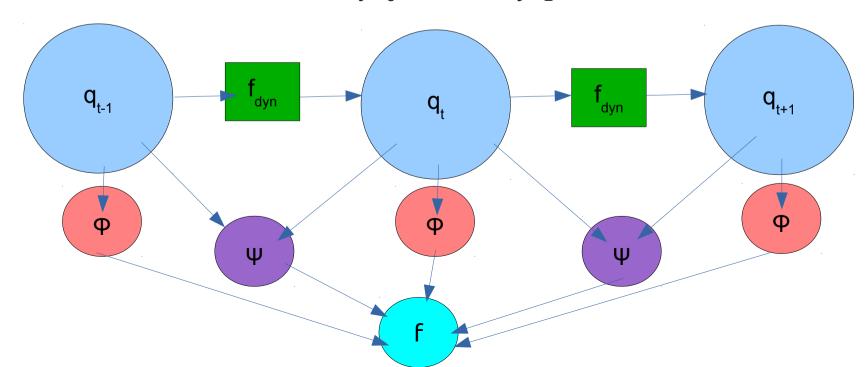


• We introduce a cost function f over trajectories.  $f(q_{1:T})$  Usually that cost function contains task costs and control costs.



We introduce a cost function f over trajectories.
 Usually that cost function contains task costs and control costs.

$$f(q_{1:T}) = \sum_{t=0}^{T} \phi(q_t) + \sum_{t=1}^{T} \psi(q_{t-1}, q_t)$$



### Example task costs

Closeness to nearest obstacle (collision avoidance):

$$\phi_1(q_t) = \phi_1 \begin{bmatrix} x_t \\ y_t \\ \theta_t \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{(x_t - x_{obs})^2 + (y_t - y_{obs})^2}$$

Here  $[x_{obs}, y_{obs}]$  is closest point on the nearest obstacle to  $q_t$ .

### Example task costs

Path must end close to goal:

$$\phi_2(q_t) = \phi_2 \begin{bmatrix} x_t \\ y_t \\ \theta_t \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{((x_t - x_G)^2 + (y_t - y_G)^2)^4}$$

Note: this produces a very "stiff" problem and could be handled better with a constraint.

Here  $[x_G, y_G]$  is goal point.

### Example task costs

Path must begin at start point:

$$\phi_3(q_t) = \phi_3 \begin{bmatrix} x_t \\ y_t \\ \theta_t \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{((x_t - x_s)^2 + (y_t - y_s)^2)^6}$$

Note: this produces a very "stiff" problem and could be handled better with a constraint.

Here  $[x_s, y_s]$  is start point.

### Example control cost

Path should be as short as possible:

$$\psi_{1}(q_{t}, q_{t-1}) = \psi_{1}\begin{bmatrix} x_{t} \\ y_{t} \\ \theta_{t} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} x_{t-1} \\ y_{t-1} \\ \theta_{t-1} \end{bmatrix} = (x_{t} - x_{t-1})^{2} + (y_{t} - y_{t-1})^{2}$$

Note: by itself this will result in a 0-length path: Need task costs too.

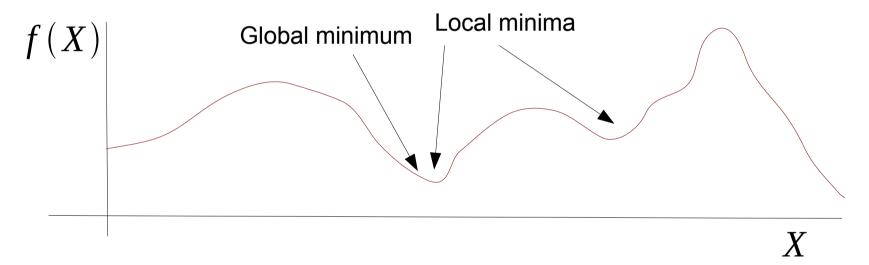
#### Example control cost

• Differential constraints should be observed as much as possible.

$$\psi_2(q_t,q_{t-1}) = \psi_2\begin{bmatrix} x_t \\ y_t \\ \theta_t \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} x_{t-1} \\ y_{t-1} \\ \theta_{t-1} \end{bmatrix} = \left| \cos(\theta_t)(x_t - x_{t-1}) + \sin(\theta_t)(y_t - y_{t-1}) \right|$$

### Optimisation

Once a cost function is designed, minimise it.



There are many methods to choose from, of varying quality.

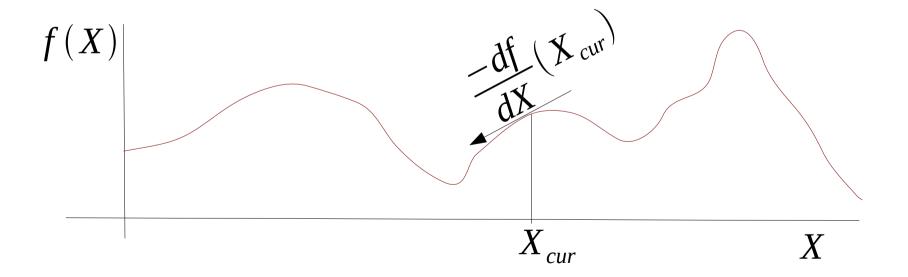
- Gradient descent is one; it is generally slow.

# Gradient descent optimisation

Start with a guess  $X_{cur}$ 

Calculate the gradient vector with respect to each variable  $\frac{df}{dX}(X_{cur})$ 

Move in the opposite direction:  $X_{new} = X_{cur} - \delta \frac{df}{dX}(X_{cur})$  ( $\delta$  is the step-size constant).



Try to find *global* minima (not just local) by using random restart.

#### Calculating the gradient vector

Imagine I have the following cost function.

$$f(q_{0}, \dots, q_{T}) = \sum_{t \in (1,T)} (x_{t} - x_{t-1})^{2} + (y_{t} - y_{t-1})^{2}$$

Then the gradient vector is

Then the gradient vector is 
$$\nabla f = \begin{bmatrix}
\frac{df}{dx_0} \\
\frac{df}{dy_0} \\
\frac{df}{d\theta_0} \\
\vdots \\
\frac{df}{dx_T} \\
\frac{df}{dy_T} \\
\frac{df}{dy_T} \\
\frac{df}{d\theta_0}
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}
2(-x_1 + x_0) \\
2(-y_1 - y_0) \\
0 \\
\vdots \\
2(x_T - x_{T-1}) \\
2(y_T - y_{T-1}) \\
0
\end{bmatrix} - \text{this is the direction to search in.}$$

### Other optimisation algorithms

- Linear programming.
- Quadratic programming.
- Genetic & Evolutionary Algorithms.
- Simulated Annealing.
- Coordinate descent.
- Newton's method.
  - Levenberg-Marquadt.
- Line-search methods.
- Trust-region methods.

• ...

### Online planning

- Planning problem is always changing:
  - The environment moves.
    - e.g. when obstacles = people.
  - New things are discovered.
    - e.g. new ways, new obstacles.
- How to deal with this?
  - Contingency (feedback) planning.
  - Replanning.
  - Plan repair.
  - Continual planning.

# Feedback & contingent planning

- What if no initial state given?
- Make a policy.
- "Under these circumstances do this, but if you see that do this other thing."

#### BLG456E Robotics Motion Planning

- Framework.
- Reactive approaches.
- Transform-and-search approach.
- Iterative search approach.
- Optimisation for motion planning.
- Other considerations

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Some slides adapted from work by Dr. Sanem Sariel-Talay

### Reading



- **Section 3.6**. Feedback control.
- Chapter 6. Planning & Navigation.