






Task and motion planning methods: applications and limitations

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Abstract: Robots are required to perform more and more complicated tasks, which raises the requirement of more intelligent planning algorithms. As a domain having been explored for decades, task and motion planning (TAMP) methods have achieved significant results, but several challenges remain to be solved. This paper summarizes the development of TAMP from solving objectives, simulation environments, methods and remaining limitations. In particular, it compares different simulation environments and methods used in different tasks aiming to provide a practical guide and overview for the beginners.

1 INTRODUCTION


With the development of manufacturing and software technology, robots are playing a more and more important role in our society. For example, we can see them in the factories to assist or replace people in the dangerous and tedious work. To enhance our life experience, they come to our life as autonomous cars, housekeepers, etc. However, their competence on this kind of tasks is not always convincing since they are not as intelligent as expected. The essential reason is that the human environment is unstructured and dynamic, which is more complicated than the structured factory environment. As a consequence, the tasks of the robots are more difficult in human environment, like household affairs. When a robot needs to perform a task, firstly it needs to find feasible plans to accomplish the goal, then during executing the plan, it has to consider the surrounding complex and changing environment before stepping ahead. This process can be summarized as two steps, task planning and motion planning.


Task planning aims to compute solvable plans to complete a long-horizon task. It usually decomposes a long-horizon task into some short-horizon and el-


ementary subtasks. For example, when a robot is ordered to fetch some object in a room with door closed, after decomposition, it can complete the task by solving several simple tasks, including opening the door, searching the object and return back. Hence, the challenge in this step is to decompose the complicate task into several simple subtasks.


Motion planning focuses on converting a subgoal into a sequence of parameters so that the software of the robot can control the hardware parts to reach the subgoal. For example, the "open door" task is transformed into some parameters to control the joints of robot's arm so that the end-effector could touch and push the door. Due to the constraints of the environment, it is often challenging to generate applicable control parameters without colliding with other objects.


Although it seems that task planning and motion planning share some similar designs, they are operated in different spaces. Task planning is usually considered as planning in a discrete space while the motion planning is taken in continuous space. Great progress has been made to integrate the discrete and continuous planning methods to solve TAMP problems. Recently, an overview paper [Garrett et al., 2021] focused on the integration of TAMP summarizes different kinds of methods, especially on the operator based searching methods, to solve multi-model motion planning and TAMP. It provides general concepts about the TAMP but the scope focuses on the operator-based methods conducting in full-observable

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environment, which is far from the real applications. Besides, it demonstrates the solution of TAMP problems in a theoretical way, which is not user-friendly to beginners who want to get into this field by practicing. Therefore, this paper aims to provide a practical and broader overview for readers to easily start applying the TAMP methods to solve different tasks.

The organization of this paper is as follows: After the introduction, the background knowledge on TAMP is introduced in section 2. Section 3 describes the popular tasks solved by TAMP methods and some public simulation environments. Besides, the recent TAMP methods are compared and some limitations are pointed out. Finally, we conclude this paper and propose some potential research directions in this field.

2 BACKGROUND

Let's first present task and motion planning separately. Task planning usually works in a higher-level discrete state space, giving a global plan, while motion planning aims to follow such guidance in a lower-level action space.

2.1 Task planning

Given an initial state and a task, task planning aims to generate a sequence of intermediate tasks to guide the agent to accomplish the original unfeasible task. A more mathematical definition can be expressed as: given the initial state S_0 and a task whose corresponding state is S_g , task planning outputs a sequence of intermediate states $S_i, i = 1, \dots, g-1$, where each S_i is feasible when the agent is at S_{i-1} , as well as the transition actions $A_i, i = 1, \dots, g-1$, where A_{i-1} advances the state from S_{i-1} to S_i .

Depending on the types of tasks, the predefined actions A_i of a robot could be discrete action or continuous action. Discrete actions contain a finite set of options that the agent can choose to apply, such as move left or right. Continuous actions are configured with a value, such as the rotation of a robot base, where there is an infinite choice of actions. For example, 60 degrees clockwise rotation is different from 60.1 degrees clockwise rotation. This second situation is more complex to deal with as the search space is much larger.

Lots of efforts have been made by robotics researchers and several planning methods have been proposed, such as hierarchical methods [Kaelbling and Lozano-Perez, 2010], heuristic searching methods, operator planning methods, etc. A more detailed

overview and discussion can be found in the introduction book [LaValle, 2006]. Due to the simplicity and efficiency, they are widely used in the decision making games like chess, Tower of Hanoi, etc.

Instead of the handcrafted methods, reinforcement learning (RL) methods learn policies that map the observations to subgoals by maximizing a numerical reward signal. By default, these methods learn the solution to a single task, hence they are not solving the full planning problem. Popular RL methods include DQN [Mnih et al., 2015], value iteration for discrete planning and DDPG [Lillicrap et al., 2016], Soft Actor-Critic(SAC) [Haarnoja et al., 2018] for continuous planning. In planning problems, the RL approach can be applied to learn goal-conditioned policies, which takes in the observation and goal information and outputs appropriate actions. As an example, to solve a 2D navigation task, [Eysenbach et al., 2019] uses a goal-conditioned RL to generate a sequence of intermediate waypoints along the planned path that the robot could follow to reach the goal. Such policies can also be trained using imitation learning, and their generalization to large problems is considered in [Toyer et al., 2020]. They propose Action Schema Networks to solve probabilistic and classical planning problems by mimicking the policy generated by traditional planners.

2.2 Motion planning

Motion planning can be considered to bridge the low-level control parameters and the high-level tasks. Given a feasible task, the motion planning algorithm would generate a series of concrete parameters to achieve the task. For example, in the navigation task, given a goal position, motion planning algorithm will generate a trajectory so that the robot could follow the trajectory to reach the goal without collision.

Several algorithms have been proposed for motion planning, such as the shortest path searching methods in navigation task, or inverse-kinematic methods in manipulation task. A more detailed introduction can be found in Ghallab's planning book [Ghallab et al., 2016].

Besides, learning methods are used to solve the continuous planning problems. For example, [Zhu et al., 2017] proposes a reinforcement learning method similar to A3C [Babaeizadeh et al., 2016] used for visual guided navigation in indoor environments. Given the visual information, the network outputs the motion parameters to guide the movement of robots. More approaches using reinforcement learning methods can be found in [Sun et al., 2021].

Apart from the previous passive motion planning

algorithm, which focus on satisfying the predefined collision constraints, an active motion planner could consider the context of local environment before making a plan. For instance, a context-aware costmap is generated by integrating several semantic layers in [Lu et al., 2014], each of which describes one type of obstacle or constraint, including mobile and static obstacles, dangerous regions. Planning on the context-aware costmap could produce a practical and intelligent trajectory. Moreover, in [Patel et al., 2021], an active obstacle avoidance method is introduced, where the robot intends to avoid humans from its back region. There are other scenarios as well, for instance the robot needs to move along the right side of road, or it should prefer the wheelchair accessible ramp when encountering stairs.

3 TASK AND MOTION PLANNING

TAMP is the integration of task planning and motion planning. In other words, it links the planning in discrete space and continuous space. In this section, we highlight the common TAMP problems and methods categorized by whether they use deep learning techniques. In contrast to [Garrett et al., 2021], which focuses on symbolic operator based planning methods, we extend it to a broader view, including end-to-end learning methods for TAMP. Besides, we present a comparison of related objectives and experimental environments.

3.1 Objectives

There are various objectives for TAMP in human environment but most of them could be regarded as the combination of basic tasks. We believe that if the TAMP methods could deal well with the basic tasks, they could be generalized to solve the complex objectives. Three of the fundamental tasks are described as follows:

- **Rearrangement (Re).** In this task, one or multiple robots need to find a strategy to interact with several objects so that it could manipulate a target object without collision, as shown in Figure 1. The rearrangement task for multiple robots requires the collaboration among robots, which usually happens when a robot's arm cannot reach some regions of the environment due to its physical limitation [Driess et al., 2020].
- **Navigation among movable obstacles (NAMO).** Different from pure navigation task, NAMO re-

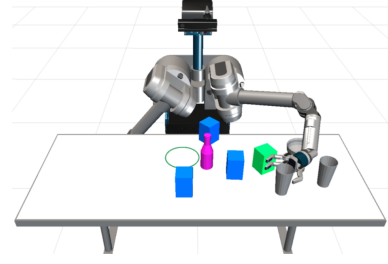


Figure 1: Rearrangement task. The robot needs to push the green box from its start pose to the goal region indicated by the green circle [King et al., 2016].

quires the robot to interact with environment during navigation in order to reach the goal position. The interaction with environment aims to move the obstacles actively to clear the path so that an infeasible trajectory could be feasible. For example, as shown in Figure 2, the robot wants to move from current room to the kitchen but the corridor is blocked. It is planned to remove the obstacles to make the kitchen reachable.

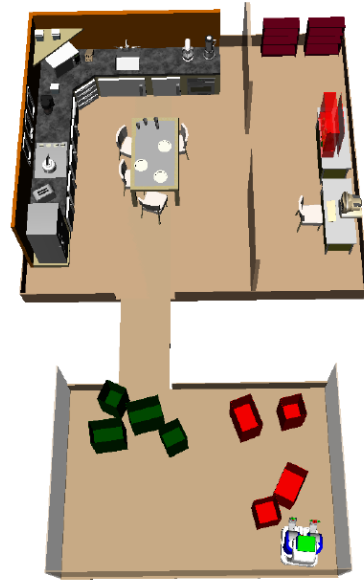


Figure 2: Navigation among movable obstacles. The robot needs to move the red boxes to the kitchen region. The green boxes are movable obstacles [Kim et al., 2019b].

- **Pick-Place-Move (PPM) task.** Considering a situation where various objects are placed on a table and the robot's task is to collect some subset of the objects and put them on another box. The primitive robot operations are to pick up an object, move and place it in a box, as shown in Figure 3. In addition, robot is free to move the base in order to reach a distant object. Furthermore, the PPM task can serve for the Assembly and/or Disassem-

bly task, in which the order of manipulated object should be considered.

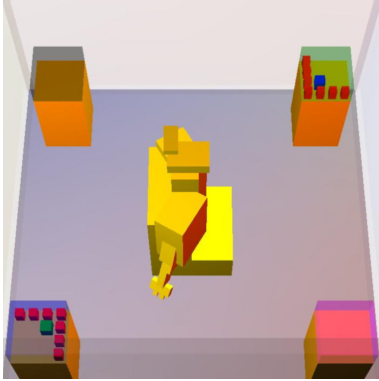


Figure 3: Pick place move task. The robot needs to pick the blue cube and place it in the box containing green cube [Garrett et al., 2015].

3.2 Methods

After introducing the objectives, we describe the TAMP methods corresponding to above objectives from three categories, namely classical methods, learning methods and hybrid methods that combine the previous two categories.

3.2.1 Classical methods

The classical methods mainly include two types of methods, sampling-based and optimization-based methods. Given a long-horizon task with description of initial and final state, sampling methods could sample several useful intermediate states from the continuous infinite state space. Afterward, the sampling process are also used to search for a sequence of feasible transition operators between the intermediate states. When a sample doesn't satisfy the constraints, the sampler would generate a novel one. The frequently adopted searching-based sampling methods include heuristic search [Wang et al., 2020], forward search [Kaelbling and Lozano-Perez, 2010], or backward search. An overview on searching methods can be found in [Ghallab et al., 2016]. With a sequence of operators, the classical motion planning methods, including A* [Hart et al., 1968], RRT Connect [Kuffner and LaValle, 2000] for the robot base and inverse kinematics for the robot arm [Srivastava et al., 2014, Garrett et al., 2020b], are applied to change the states of robot up to the goal state. However, sampling methods are usually not complete over all problem instances. First, they cannot generally identify and terminate on infeasible instances. Sec-

ond, sampling process can only be applied to the explored space, which means they cannot find solutions to instances that require identifying values from unknown space [Garrett et al., 2018]. For example, in a partial observation case, the robot can only find a path to a waypoint within the range of observation. Third, when the task description is not lucid, the sampling methods tend to fail. For example, in a pouring task, we ask the robot to pour as much milk as possible into the cup.

Accordingly, optimization based methods are proposed to compensate the sampling methods. The objective is primarily given in terms of a cost function along the temporal axis. An optimization strategy is applied to minimize the cost with respect to constraints and finally output the feasible solutions. The optimization method is ideal to solve the problems with continuous solutions since time axis is directly integrated in the objective function. Toussaint [Toussaint, 2015] uses this approach in a manipulation problem where a robot picks and places cylinders and plates on a table to assemble the highest possible stable tower. The action sequences are generated by a simple symbolic planning approach but the best final and intermediate positions of all the objects are found through optimization.

A comprehensive review on sampling methods and optimization methods to solve TAMP problems can be found in [Garrett et al., 2021].

Besides, there are also some TAMP methods with hand-crafted strategy. For example, [Meng et al., 2018] presents an active path cleaning algorithm for NAMO task. The proposed system integrates obstacle classification, collision detection, local environment reconstruction and interaction with obstacles. To solve the situation where the obstacle is unknown, an affordance-based method [Wang et al., 2020] is developed to help robot decide if the obstacle is movable by interacting with it.

3.2.2 Learning based methods

In learning based methods, the robot acquires the skills from experiences. The most common framework is RL which learns a policy that maps a state of the environment to an action by reward and penalty [Driess et al., 2020]. A TAMP problem usually contains a long-horizon task, which can be converted to sparse reward when the task is completed and can be solved using RL. However, exploring the environment through taking random actions requires a prohibitive number of samples until a solution can be found [Li et al., 2020]. Therefore, hierarchical RL (HRL) has been proposed to solve the sparse reward problem by generating subtasks to guide the robot to

final task step by step [Barto and Mahadevan, 2003].

An intuitive idea of HRL is to design and train two networks, one is dedicated to high level task generation while the other one is for primitive motion control, as described in [Heess et al., 2016]. They train a low-level network on simple tasks with access to proprioceptive sensors to learn sensorimotor primitives. This pre-trained module is fixed and connected to a high-level network, with access to all sensors, which drives behavior by modulating the inputs to the low-level network. Similarly, in [Kulkarni et al., 2016], a top-level module learns a policy over subgoals and a bottom-level module learns actions to accomplish the objective of each subgoal. Considering the task dependence and generalization problem of previous methods, a task-independent method [Nachum et al., 2018b] is designed by reformulating the task description. Instead of using the observation from the robot, they use the observation from the environment, like position and distance, to reduce the dependence of task. Besides, to facilitate the training in real environment, they apply off-policy RL strategy which requires less interactive training data.

Training the high-level policy and low-level action separately misses the ability of joint optimization. Hence, in [Levy et al., 2018], they describe a joint training strategy to learn the policy in three levels for a navigation task. The highest level takes in the current state and a task to generate subtasks, while the middle level decomposes a subtask to a directly feasible goal. The lowest level generates action parameters to reach the goal. However, in a NAMO task, given a final position, the high-level subgoal creation network should not only generate subgoals for robot base but also the interaction position for arms. Accordingly, a HRL method is proposed [Li et al., 2020] to generate heterogeneous subgoals so that the robot could interact with the obstacles during navigation. To find an appropriate action to interact with various obstacles, a Neural Interaction Engine [Zeng et al., 2021] that predicts the action effect, is integrated to a policy generation RL network.

Although the learning methods have achieved satisfying results in simulation environment, the transfer from simulation to real applications is difficult because the trained models cannot be used directly in the real scenarios and under most circumstances, they should be retrained in the application environment. For example, in the solution proposed in [Li et al., 2020], the trained model maps the sensor data to actions. However, due to the large difference between environments, the change of sensor data could lead to strange actions. Moreover, the training data in real environment is expensive, hence we can see few real

applications relying on learning methods only.

3.2.3 Hybrid methods

Although both the classical methods and learning based methods can solve several TAMP tasks, they suffer some limitations. For example, the operators used in sampling methods are usually designed manually, which is time-consuming and tends to be inappropriate. The learning methods avoid the manual work but they offer less freedom to add extra constraints, like no collision tolerance. Besides, the transferability of learning methods from simulation to real environment is proved difficult since the expensive cost of constructing the training dataset and the inaccurate representation of environment, which might be caused by the sensor noise, illumination, occlusion, etc.

Therefore, some researchers adopt the hybrid strategy, including learning symbolic operators from dataset [Silver et al., 2021, Pasula et al., 2007, Konidaris et al., 2018], learning to guide the operator search [Kim et al., 2019b, Kim and Shimanuki, 2020] or learning to generate feasible subgoals [Xia et al., 2021].

Learning symbolic operators from a dataset provides the primitive skills for the task planning. With the operators, a conventional tool such as PDDL [Ghallab et al., 1998] or its extensions [Younes and Littman, 2004, Garrett et al., 2020a] is applied to search the feasible plans, which consists of primitive actions. Then, the motion planning algorithm could directly convert the primitive actions to executable control parameters. A supervised learning strategy is introduced in [Pasula et al., 2007] to learn the symbolic operators from a training dataset. Each training example contains the current state, an action and the state after applying the action. An action model is searched by maximizing the likelihood of the action effects, subject to a penalty on complexity. To reduce the requirement for an expensive abstract training dataset, a learning-from-experience method [Konidaris et al., 2018] firstly applies actions to the agent and obtains the states through the experience. Then, it converts the continuous states into a decision tree, and finally into symbolic operators.

Given a large problem that contains lots of actions and states, the classical searching methods are less efficient since the search space is too large. Instead of traversing the whole space to find a solution, reinforcement learning methods provide an efficient way to learn the searching strategy from experience [Chitnis et al., 2016]. In [Kim et al., 2019b], a graph neural network [Scarselli et al., 2008] is taken as the searching space due to its extensibility. The nodes

are abstract actions while the edges are the priority of transition. A Q-value function is learned from a training dataset to rank the abstract actions and calculate the priority, which provides guidance for efficient searching. Apart from the guidance of discrete searching, in continuous action space, they apply a generative model to generate multiple feasible candidates to avoid being blocked by an infeasible solution [Kim et al., 2021]. Similarly, a model is applied to a dataset to learn the probability of success [Wang et al., 2018, Wang et al., 2021]. Then, in the same domain but a new scenario, given the action, the model predicts a successful rate. By picking the actions with a higher successful rate, the searching space is significantly reduced leading to efficient search.

In addition to the operator based methods, a few methods are proposed to directly generate the subtasks based on RL methods. With a feasible subtask, the classical motion planning methods are adopted to control the robots. In a NAMO task, a SAC [Haarnoja et al., 2018] algorithm is applied to generate the subgoal for an arm and a base of a robot [Xia et al., 2021]. The distance reduction reward and success reward are applied to teach the robot to interact with environment and generate the subtasks. Finally, they apply RRT connect [Kuffner and LaValle, 2000] and inverse kinematics methods to reach the subgoals.

In summary, the hybrid methods usually apply the learning based methods to task planning, or a part of the task planning process, then classical motion control algorithms are adopted to generate control parameters. This strategy benefits from better transferability to real application than pure learning algorithms and provide more efficient strategies than classical methods.

Table 1 provides an overview of the application of the presented methods on the basic tasks proposed in section 3.1.

3.3 Environments and tools

When developing robotic algorithms, the validation of interaction results is an essential step. Testing the effects of interactions in a real environment is a straightforward approach, but it can be time-consuming, expensive, unstable and potentially unsafe. Therefore, several interactive simulation environments are recently proposed to advance the robotic research and facilitate the experiments.

In this subsection, we compare several interactive simulation environments that are designed for navigation and manipulation tasks, which include iGibson2 [Li et al., 2021], AI2THOR [Kolve et al., 2017], TDW [Gan et al., 2021], Sapien [Xiang et al., 2020],

Habitat2 [Szot et al., 2021] and VirtualHome [Puig et al., 2018]. Different from the low-level view that focuses on which type of rendering they use, we pay attention to their usability for TAMP tasks and transferability to real environment. Here are the criteria we use for comparison and the results can be found in Table 2.

- Provided environment and interactive objects. A simulation environment with embedded scenes and interactive objects is easier to use since constructing the scenes is difficult for a beginner. Various interactive objects provide the users with more freedom to adapt the environment to the tasks.
- ROS support. Robot Operating System (ROS) [Quigley et al., 2009] is a generic and widely-used framework for building robot applications. It offers a standard software platform to developers across industries that will carry them from research and prototyping all the way through to deployment and production. With ROS support, we could more easily transfer our algorithm from simulation environment to real applications. Hence, an environment supporting ROS has better transferability.
- Uncertainty support. In the real environment, the sensor data always contains noise and uncertainty. Introducing uncertainty in simulation environment provides more realistic results for the algorithms.
- Support tasks. Here we evaluate the usability of each environment to the three basic tasks described in 3.1. The score is given based on the provided environment, types of interaction, control interfaces, etc. The higher score means easier to apply the environment to the task.
- Speed. Rendering speed is important in simulation experiments. All the environments can use only CPU for rendering except the iGibson2.
- Sensors. It demonstrates which type of sensors the simulation environment supports.

3.4 Challenges

Although TAMP methods have been explored for decades, they are still not robust and face limitation in practical applications. In this section, we present several area of potential improvements.

3.4.1 Observation uncertainty

Observation uncertainty is usually caused by the sensor noise, which is unavoidable in real applications.

Table 1: List of TAMP methods on three tasks.

	Classical methods	Learning based methods	Hybrid methods
Re	[Srivastava et al., 2014] [Toussaint, 2015] [Garrett et al., 2020b]	[Driess et al., 2020]	[Chitnis et al., 2016] [Wang et al., 2018] [Wang et al., 2021]
NAMO	[Meng et al., 2018] [Wang et al., 2020]	[Li et al., 2020] [Nachum et al., 2018a] [Zeng et al., 2021]	[Kim and Shimanuki, 2020] [Kim et al., 2019a] [Xia et al., 2021]
PPM	[Kaelbling and Lozano-Perez, 2010] [Kaelbling and Lozano-Pérez, 2013] [Garrett et al., 2015]		[Kim et al., 2019b] [Konidaris et al., 2018] [Garrett et al., 2018]

Table 2: Comparison among different interactive simulation environments.

	iGibson2	AI2THOR	TDW	Sapien	Habitat2	VirtualHome
Provided environment	15 homes (108 rooms)	120 rooms	-	-	-	build from 8 rooms
Interactive objects	1217	609	200	2346	-	308
ROS support	✓	×	×	✓	✓	×
Uncertainty support	✓	×	×	×	✓	×
Supported tasks	Re	+++++	++++	++++	++++	++++
	NAMO	+++++	++	+++	++	++++
	PPM	+++++	+++++	++++	+++++	+++++
Speed	GPU ++	++	++	+++	++++	++
Sensors	RGBD, Li-dar	RGBD	RGBD	RGBD	RGBD	RGBD

There are mainly two kinds of solutions, (a) modeling the noise and reducing it through multiple observation [Kaelbling and Lozano-Pérez, 2013]; (b) using learning methods to directly map the noisy data with actions [Driess et al., 2020].

An operator based TAMP method is presented in [Kaelbling and Lozano-Pérez, 2013] to solve the observation uncertainty in PPM task. The uncertainty appears in the localization of the robot and the target object. They ask the robot to observe the object multiple times and use Gaussian model to approximate the noise of localization. A point worth noting is that they model the relative difference of two objects rather than focus on single object considering its possible large variance. In [Driess et al., 2020], the raw sensor data is directly inputted to a neural network aiming to map raw observation data to action sequence through reward optimization. The approach is simple since it doesn't require a complex modeling process but requires a large amount of training scenes, 30000 in their experiment.

In summary, although the previous methods complete the task with observation uncertainty, their experiment environment is quite simple, giving the robot a large free space of manipulation. Therefore, it raises the questions of their practicability in a con-

strained and complex environment to finish household works, and their efficiency to find a feasible solution.

3.4.2 Action uncertainty

Using a symbolic operator, with the same precondition and action, an action may produce different action effect. For example, *pick* action may indicate the grasp of the object from its top or from its side. This ambiguity may lead to failure when trying to place the object steadily. In a PPM task described in [Silver et al., 2021], the robot needs to pick an object and place it in a shelf, which demands the robot to choose appropriate action of picking since the space is narrow under the ceiling of the shelf. They collect a dataset, from which they obtain several kinds of pick operators, like picking from side and picking from top. The solution is found through backtracking from goal state so that the robot could apply pick action according to goal state.

Backtracking could certainly solve the action uncertainty but it requires the full observation of environment, which usually cannot be satisfied in real applications.

3.4.3 Situational mapping

A real task tends to be more complex and the robot needs to deduce the solution by considering the semantic information of the environment. For example, in a blocks building task, there are kinds of blocks and the objective is to assemble a car model. Without considering the shape information of each block and a car, it's impossible to complete the assembling task. Situational analysis and mapping could benefit various domains, including safe navigation, action verification, understanding of ambiguous task, etc.

For example, to achieve safe navigation, situational mapping allows robot to build respective danger zone according to the characteristics of obstacles. For instance, the danger zone is relative small for the static obstacles, like walls, desks, while it is large for the mobile obstacles, like humans, vehicles. Specifically, the shape of danger zone is related to the moving direction and velocity of mobile obstacles. In [Samsani and Muhammad, 2021], the real-time behavior of humans are analyzed to generate the danger zone to guarantee the safe navigation in crowded scenes.

Due to the noise of sensors and action uncertainty, a robot might apply an action to an object but fail to change its state. For example, it may fail to grasp a bottle even after the grasp action. If there is no action verification step, all the following actions are vain. Utilizing the semantic information as a validation, like detecting whether there is still a bottle at the grasping point, could help the robot to correct the mistakes in time.

Sometimes, the description of a task allocated to a robot is ambiguous. For example, in PPM task, instead of asking the robot to pick an object at location A and put it at location B, the task could be described as picking an object in the living room and putting it in the kitchen. Without the precise location instruction, the robot should recognize and understand the environment, like judging whether the current room is the kitchen. Several advances have been made, including the work proposed in [Drouilly et al., 2015] where the robot navigates with consideration of semantic information of environment and chooses suitable route to destination. Besides, in [Toussaint, 2015, Wang et al., 2018], the robot is ordered to complete a maximization task, like pouring as much milk as possible into the cup, rather than reaching a specific state.

3.4.4 Balance between optimum and feasibility

This challenge is more concerned with the final objective of solving the TAMP problem, which is finding an

optimal or feasible solution. For example, in NAMO task, it might happen that the robot can either bypass the obstacle through moving a long distance or clear the obstacle and pass it, which correspond to a feasible solution and optimal solution respectively. The choice between these two solutions could be made by considering the semantic background, like whether the task is urgent or whether we want to save energy.

4 CONCLUSION

This paper reviews the recent development of TAMP, including the popular tasks, practical simulation environments, methods and existing challenges. Three fundamental tasks, including rearrangement, navigation among movable obstacles and pick place move task, are described. To facilitate the experiments, this paper also lists and compares some simulation environments so the readers could easily choose the suitable experiment environment according to their need. In addition, some TAMP methods are described from three categories classified by whether they use the deep learning methods. Furthermore, their experiment tasks are also listed, which helps readers to easily choose a baseline according to the problems encountered and their background knowledge. Finally, we describe the existing problems aiming at indicating the possible exploration direction. In summary, algorithms that are more robust to perception and action uncertainty and are able to exploit the environment semantics, should be explored.

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