

MOANTOOL: A Matlab Toolbox for Model Predictive Control with Obstacle Avoidance

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Abstract: This paper introduces MOANTOOL - a Matlab-based toolbox for formulating, solving, and simulating model predictive controllers (MPC) with embedded obstacle avoidance functionality. The toolbox offers a simple, yet powerful user interface that allows control researchers and practitioners to set up even complex control problems with just a few lines of code. MOANTOOL fully automates tedious mathematical and technical details and let the user concentrate on the problem formulation. It features a rich set of tools to perform closed-loop simulations with MPC controllers and to visualize the results in an appealing way. From a theoretical point of view, MOANTOOL tackles non-convex obstacle avoidance constraints in two ways: either by using binary variables or by resorting to suboptimal, but convex, time-varying constraints.

Keywords: collision avoidance, autonomous vehicles, model predictive control

1. INTRODUCTION

Collision-free control of autonomous vehicles is of a big interest nowadays and plays a major role in ensuring safety of the vehicles and the surrounding environment alike. Many control strategies ensuring collision-free operation of autonomous vehicles have been proposed in the literature with model prediction control (MPC) being the predominant technique, see, e.g. Yoon et al. (2009) and references therein. The popularity of MPC is mainly due to the fact that it can naturally incorporate constraints (including obstacle avoidance constraints) directly into the decision making process. Moreover, since MPC employs predictions of the future behavior of the system and its environment, it is straightforward to include prediction of moving obstacles into the problem, see, e.g., (Carvalho et al., 2015). Finally, MPC is an optimization-based control strategy and the computed control inputs are thus optimal with respect to some performance measure. Due to these advantages MPC has found its way into applications involving steering of autonomous vehicles (Keviczky et al., 2006), autonomous braking (Falcone et al., 2007), improvement of passengers' comfort (Elbanhawi et al., 2016), adaptive cruise control (Corona and De Schutter, 2008), and control of racing cars (Liniger et al., 2015) to name just a few.

Although a plethora of MPC-based control algorithms for collision-free trajectory planning and following exists in the literature, the respective authors rarely provide their software implementation to general public (let alone under free/open-source terms). This leaves interested control researchers and/or practitioners with the difficult task of implementing theoretical algorithms on their own using general-purpose optimization modeling tools, such as

YALMIP (Löfberg, 2004), CVX (Grant and Boyd, 2014), or ACADO (Houska et al., 2011). Going the manual way, however, opens doors to erroneous and/or suboptimal formulations.

The objective of MOANTOOL (Mpc Obstacle Avoidance TOOLbox) is to provide a free, open-source tool for MPC-based control of autonomous vehicles with embedded obstacle avoidance capabilities. The toolbox features a simple, yet versatile user interface that allows even non-experts to set up MPC problems using just few lines of code. The toolbox then automatically takes care of tedious mathematical and technical details as to provide an efficient formulation of the underlying optimization problem. In particular, MOANTOOL allows for two different formulations of obstacle avoidance constraints. The first one, discussed in Section 3.1, employs binary variables to avoid obstacles in an optimal fashion. The downside is that it yields a non-convex mixed-integer problem that can be difficult to solve. As an alternative, the toolbox allows to avoid obstacles in a suboptimal way by using time varying constraints, cf. Section 3.2. The advantage here is that the underlying constraints are convex and allow for a simpler optimization problem to be solved as every sampling instant.

Although all theoretical concepts employed in this paper are well known (see, e.g. Williams (1993) and Frasca et al. (2013)), we believe the presented tool is of interest both to the research community, as well as to control practitioners willing to use MPC in their applications. MOANTOOL exposes a powerful functionality using a user-friendly interface and hides (and fully automates) technical tasks. This allows its users to concentrate on

problem formulation rather than on cumbersome math and/or Matlab programming.

1.1 Notation

We denote by \mathbb{R}^n and $\mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ the set of real-valued n -dimensional vectors and $n \times m$ matrices, respectively. \mathbb{N}_a^b denotes the set of consecutive integers from a to b , i.e., $\mathbb{N}_a^b = \{a, a+1, \dots, b\}$ for $a \leq b$. $\|z\|_Q^2 := z^\top Q z$ with $z \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $Q \succeq 0$ is the weighted squared 2-norm of the vector z .

2. PROBLEM SETUP

MOANTOOL allows to easily synthesize, solve, and simulate MPC-based feedback laws for autonomous vehicles (robots, quadcopters, UAVs, etc.) that are required to avoid obstacles. The dynamics of the controlled vehicle (which will be referred to as an *agent*), is governed by discrete-time state-update and output equations of the form

$$x_{k+1} = f(x_k, u_k), \quad (1a)$$

$$y_k = g(x_k, u_k), \quad (1b)$$

where $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n_x}$ is the agent's state vector, $u \in \mathbb{R}^{n_u}$ is the vector of control inputs, and $y \in \mathbb{R}^{n_y}$ is the vector of agent's outputs. Without loss of generality we will assume that the output vector corresponds with the agent's position in the n_y -dimensional Euclidian space.

The task is to devise a feedback controller that manipulates the control inputs u in such a way that:

- (1) state, input, and output constraints of the form

$$x \in \mathcal{X}, \quad u \in \mathcal{U}, \quad y \in \mathcal{Y}, \quad (2)$$

are enforced;

- (2) the agent avoids obstacles $\mathcal{O}_j \subset \mathbb{R}^{n_y}$, i.e., that $y \notin \mathcal{O}_j$ $\forall j \in \mathbb{N}_1^{n_{\text{obs}}}$;
- (3) the agent tracks a user-specified trajectory y_{ref} as closely as possible.

MOANTOOL allows for different types of the dynamics in (1) as long as the system is controllable. In particular, it supports linear time invariant dynamics with $f(x, u) := Ax + Bu$ and $g(x, u) := Cx + Du$, as well as generic nonlinear functions $f : \mathbb{R}^{n_x} \times \mathbb{R}^{n_u} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n_x}$ and $g : \mathbb{R}^{n_x} \times \mathbb{R}^{n_u} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n_y}$. Moreover, we assume that the constraint sets in (2) are polyhedra of corresponding dimension, and the obstacles \mathcal{O}_j are all polytopes (i.e., bounded polyhedra) in the half-space representation:

$$\mathcal{O}_j = \{y \mid \alpha_{i,j}^\top y \leq \beta_{i,j}, \quad i = 1, \dots, m_j\}, \quad \forall j \in \mathbb{N}_1^{n_{\text{obs}}}. \quad (3)$$

Here, m_j is the number of half-spaces that define the j -th obstacle.

Given the input data (the current value of the agent's state $x(t)$, the dynamics in (1), the constraints in (2), and the obstacles in (3)), the MPC problem that MOANTOOL solves is given by

$$\min_{u_0, \dots, u_{N-1}} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \left(\|y_k - y_{\text{ref},k}\|_{Q_y}^2 + \|u_k - u_{\text{ref},k}\|_{Q_u}^2 \right) \quad (4a)$$

$$\text{s.t.} \quad x_{k+1} = f(x_k, u_k), \quad (4b)$$

$$y_k = g(x_k, u_k), \quad (4c)$$

$$x_k \in \mathcal{X}, \quad u_k \in \mathcal{U}, \quad y_k \in \mathcal{Y}, \quad (4d)$$

$$y_k \notin \mathcal{O}_j, \quad \forall j \in \mathbb{N}_1^{n_{\text{obs}}}, \quad (4e)$$

$$x_0 = x(t), \quad (4f)$$

with (4b)–(4e) imposed for $k = 0, \dots, N-1$. In (4a), $y_{\text{ref},k}$ and $u_{\text{ref},k}$ are the (possibly time-varying) references for the agent's outputs and inputs to be followed, respectively. In case of no preview of future references being available, $y_{\text{ref},k} = y_{\text{ref}}$ and $u_{\text{ref},k} = u_{\text{ref}} \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{N}_0^{N-1}$ is assumed. Moreover, Q_y and Q_u are weighting matrices used to tune the performance. The optimization is performed with respect to u_0, \dots, u_{N-1} . Then, in the spirit of a receding horizon implementation, only the first optimized input, i.e., u_0^* is implemented to the system in (1) and the whole procedure is repeated at a subsequent time instant for a new value¹ of the initial condition in (4f).

Remark 2.1. The MPC problem (4) optimizes the agent's control inputs such that its outputs y (which are assumed to correspond to the agent's position) avoid the obstacles \mathcal{O}_j . However, here y represents just a point in the Euclidian space, e.g., the center of the agent. MOANTOOL also allows to account for the physical shape of the agent, represented by a polytopic set \mathcal{S} (e.g., a box, hypercube, or a general polytope). Here, \mathcal{S} is assumed to be centered at the origin. Then for the whole agent to avoid the obstacles (besides its center point), the constraint in (4e) is replaced by $y_k \notin (\mathcal{O}_j \oplus \mathcal{S})$, where \oplus is the Minkowski addition of two sets. As shown, e.g., in (Borrelli et al., 2011, Section 5.4.9), $\tilde{\mathcal{O}}_j = \mathcal{O}_j \oplus \mathcal{S}$ is a polytope and represents an obstacle “inflated” by \mathcal{S} . (4e) thus becomes $y_k \notin \tilde{\mathcal{O}}_j$. All transformations are performed by MOANTOOL automatically. \square

Remark 2.2. MOANTOOL also supports time-varying dynamics and constraints. In other words, the functions $f(\cdot, \cdot)$, $g(\cdot, \cdot)$, as well as the sets \mathcal{X} , \mathcal{U} , \mathcal{Y} , \mathcal{O}_j can take different values at different prediction steps. \square

If the obstacle avoidance constraints (4e) are disregarded, the optimization problem (4) becomes a “standard” MPC problem that can be readily formulated with off-the-shelf tools such as YALMIP, CVX, or ACADO, and solved using a plethora of free or commercial solvers such as GUROBI, CPLEX, quadprog, fmincon, depending on the type of the dynamics in (4b) and (4c), cf. (1).

However, with the constraint (4e) in place, the task becomes more challenging because, even though the obstacles \mathcal{O}_j are assumed to be convex, the constraint $y \notin \mathcal{O}_j$ is non-convex. Although a manual handling of such a non-convex constraint is possible, it is cumbersome, error-prone and, if not done in an optimal fashion, can negatively impact the complexity and thus the runtime of the optimization. The underlying objective of MOANTOOL is therefore to automate the task of formulating and solving non-convex

¹ To keep the exposition simple, we assume that the state vector of (1) can be directly measured. Since MOANTOOL is mainly a simulation tool, this assumption is trivially satisfied. For a practical implementation one would use a suitable state estimator.

MPC problems as in (4) with a minimal intervention from the user. The mathematical fundamentals of two different ways of formulating the obstacle avoidance constraints (4e) are presented in the next section.

3. TACKLING OBSTACLE AVOIDANCE CONSTRAINTS IN (4E)

In this section we review two methods of formulating in obstacle avoidance constraints in (4e). The first method is based on using binary variables and thus results in (4) being a mixed-integer optimization problem. Although such problems are non-convex and NP-hard, efficient off-the-shelf solvers can tackle them for at least a modest number of obstacles. On the other hand, the mixed-integer formulation provides an optimal way of avoiding obstacles.

The second method avoids binary variables by heuristically choosing the direction from which to avoid the obstacle (either from the left or from the right), followed by employing time-varying output constraints. Although this leads to just a suboptimal trajectory, the advantage is that the constraints remain convex.

3.1 Optimal Obstacle Avoidance

Consider one polytopic obstacle \mathcal{O} as in (3) and introduce binary variables $\delta_i \in \{0, 1\}$ for $i = 1, \dots, m$ (here, m denotes the number of defining half-spaces of the obstacle). Introduce the implication

$$[\delta_i = 1] \implies [\alpha_i^\top y \geq \beta_i + \epsilon], \quad (5)$$

i.e. that if $\delta_i = 1$, then the i -th constraint of the obstacle in (3) is violated by at least ϵ . Then $y \notin \mathcal{O}$ is clearly equivalent to

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^m \delta_i \right) \geq 1, \quad (6)$$

i.e. that at least one constraint is violated (and thus the agent does not collide with the obstacle).

The implication in (5) can be recast as a set of linear inequalities by using the following result, due to Williams (1993):

Lemma 3.1. Consider a function $\ell : \mathcal{Z} \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and a binary variable $\delta \in \{0, 1\}$. Then $[\delta = 1] \implies [\ell(z) \leq 0]$ if and only $\ell(z) \leq M(1 - \delta)$ where $M := \max_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} \ell(z)$. \square

Applying Lemma 3.1 with $\ell := \beta_i - \alpha_i^\top y + \epsilon$ thus transforms (5) into

$$\beta_i - \alpha_i^\top y + \epsilon \leq M_i(1 - \delta_i), \quad (7)$$

which is a linear constraint in y and δ_i . Since \mathcal{O} is assumed to be a polytope (therefore bounded), M_i can be taken as the maximum of the function $\beta_i - \alpha_i^\top y + \epsilon$ over the vertices of \mathcal{O} . To guarantee that $y \notin \mathcal{O}$, one therefore needs to impose (7) for $i = 1, \dots, m$, together with (6).

The original obstacle avoidance constraint (4e) can therefore be replaced by

$$\beta_{i,j} - \alpha_{i,j}^\top y_k + \epsilon \leq M_{i,j}(1 - \delta_{i,j,k}), \quad \forall i \in \mathbb{N}_1^{m_j}, \quad (8a)$$

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m_j} \delta_{i,j,k} \right) \geq 1, \quad (8b)$$

which needs to be imposed for $j = 1, \dots, n_{\text{obs}}$ (i.e., for each obstacle), and $k = 0, \dots, N - 1$ (i.e., for each

step of the prediction horizon). Note that (8) involves a total of $N(\sum_{j=1}^{n_{\text{obs}}} m_j)$ binary variables. MOANTOOL automatically formulates the constraints in (8) and frees the user from doing so manually, which can be a tedious task if n_{obs} and/or N are large, especially in the view of the following remark:

Remark 3.2. In theory, any sufficiently large value of the constants $M_{i,j}$ in (8) suffice for Lemma 3.1 to work. However, as pointed out e.g. in Kvasnica (2008), tight values of $M_{i,j}$ significantly improve the performance of branch-and-bound mixed integer solvers. Therefore MOANTOOL automatically deduces the tightest possible values $M_{i,j} = \arg \max_{y \in \mathcal{O}_j} \beta_{i,j} - \alpha_{i,j}^\top y + \epsilon$ by computing the vertices of \mathcal{O}_j . \square

Remark 3.3. The value of ϵ in (8) can be viewed at as a minimal separation gap between the agent and the obstacle. Its value can be customized in MOANTOOL and by default it is equal to the agent's physical size, cf. Section 4.1. \square

If the dynamics in (4b)–(4c) is linear, the MPC problem (4) with (4e) replaced by (8) will be a mixed-integer quadratic program (MIQP), which can be solved e.g. by GUROBI or CPLEX. It should be noted that MIQP problems are nonconvex due to the presence of binary variables. If the dynamics is nonlinear, the procedure results in a mixed-integer nonlinear problem (MI-NLP) that can be solved e.g. by the YALMIP's global branch-and-bound solver. The most suitable solver is automatically detected by MOANTOOL without user's intervention.

3.2 Suboptimal Obstacle Avoidance

The second way of tackling the non-convex collision avoidance constraints in (4e) is to use time-varying output constraints as proposed in Frasca et al. (2013) coupled with a heuristics that decides from which side of the obstacle the agent should go around (either from the left or from the right). Once the get-around direction is fixed, the output (i.e., position) constraint set \mathcal{Y} is modified as not to collide with the obstacle, i.e., $\mathcal{Y} \cap \mathcal{O}_j = \emptyset \quad \forall j \in \mathbb{N}_1^{n_{\text{obs}}}$. Moreover, different constraint sets \mathcal{Y}_k are used at different steps of the prediction horizon, cf. Fig. 1.

The technical realization of this approach is then done in two steps. First, based on the current position of the agent and the position of the obstacles, a heuristic block decides the get-around direction and generates a sequence of constraint sets \mathcal{Y}_k for $k = 0, \dots, N - 1$. Subsequently, the output constraints in (4d) are modified to $y_k \in \mathcal{Y}_k$ and the non-convex collision avoidance constraint (4e) is dropped from the MPC problem. The time-varying constraints \mathcal{Y}_k are then updated at each sampling step.

The advantage of such an approach is that the non-convex constraints (4e) are replaced by a series of convex constraints. This results in shorter runtime of the solution to (4), cf. Section 5.1. The obvious disadvantage is that the obtained trajectory needs not be optimal and the amount of suboptimality depends on the quality of the heuristically determined get-around directions.

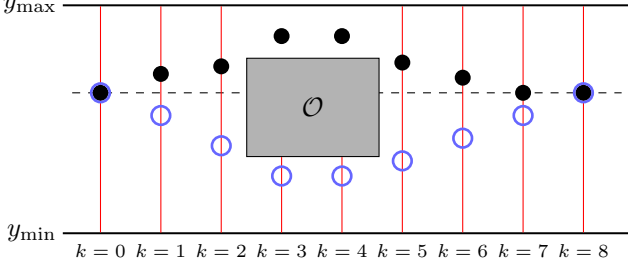


Fig. 1. The idea of obstacle avoidance by using time-varying output constraints. At each step of the prediction horizon the convex output constraints \mathcal{Y}_k (red lines) are updated as not to collide with the obstacle \mathcal{O} . Solid circles denote the optimal avoidance based on Section 3.1, empty blue circle denote a (possibly suboptimal) trajectory obtained via time-varying constraints. The dashed line represents the reference to be tracked.

4. MOANTOOL MINI USER'S GUIDE

In this section we introduce MOANTOOL's user interface and illustrate how it automates various tasks related to the MPC design, simulation and visualization. By providing a simple, user-friendly interface, the tools allows the engineer to focus on controller tuning rather than on tedious mathematical and technical details.

From a technical point of view, MOANTOOL is written in Matlab using object-oriented programming. Under the hood, it uses YALMIP to formulate the MPC optimization problem (4) and interfaces with many popular solvers (e.g. GUROBI, CPLEX, MOSEK) to solve such problems. Installation instructions can be found on the project's website at <https://bitbucket.com/kvasnica/moantool>. To access the tool's interface, the user imports the package into his/her Matlab workspace by

```
import moantool.*
```

In a way, MOANTOOL can be viewed at as a high-level language that allows to describe various components of the MPC problem in an easy fashion, to solve the optimization problem, to perform closed-loop simulations, and to visualize its results. From the user point of view, MOANTOOL exposes four main classes:

- **Agent** - defines the agent's dynamics, physical dimensions, and constraints;
- **Obstacle** - specifies properties of the obstacle(s);
- **Planner** - represents the MPC optimization problem (4) with obstacle avoidance constraints modeled per Section 3;
- **Simulator** - carries on closed-loop simulations and visualizes results.

In what follows we provide a brief overview of available functionality. Although all examples listed here are in 2D, MOANTOOL supports control of agents in arbitrary dimensions.

4.1 The Agent Class

Instances of this class define the agent's dynamics (cf. (1)), constraints (cf. (2)), physical dimensions (cf. Remark 2.1), and parameters of the cost function in (4a).

Dynamics: MOANTOOL supports three types of prediction models in (4b)–(4c). The first one is a linear dynamics (possibly time-varying) of the form $x_{k+1} = A_k x_k + B_k u_k$, $y_k = C_k x_k + D_k u_k$ (we remind that the output y is implicitly assumed to correspond to the agent's position). An agent with linear dynamics can be created by instantiating the **LinearAgent** subclass:

```
agent = LinearAgent('nx', nx, 'nu', nu, ...
    'ny', ny, 'PredictionHorizon', N);
```

Here, the user provides state, input, and output dimensions, respectively, along with the prediction horizon (required if the dynamics and/or constraints are time-varying). The values for the A, B, C, D matrices can then be specified as follows:

```
agent.A.Value = A; agent.B.Value = B;
agent.C.Value = C; agent.D.Value = D;
```

If the dynamics should be time-varying, one sets

```
agent.A.Value = 'parameter'; % also for B,C,D
```

The parametric setting means that the MPC problem in (4) will be formulated for a symbolic value of the matrices and their value only needs to be provided at the time the problem will be solved.

The second type of dynamics is represented by generic nonlinear state-update and output equations in (1). This is achieved by instantiating the **NonlinearAgent** class:

```
agent = NonlinearAgent('nx', nx, 'nu', nu, ...
    'ny', ny, 'PredictionHorizon', N);
```

followed by providing the $f(\cdot, \cdot)$ and $g(\cdot, \cdot)$ functions as function handles, e.g.:

```
agent.StateEq = @(x,u,~) x+(x^2+u);
agent.OutputEq = @(x,u,~) x*u;
```

Note that by using nonlinear dynamics, the MPC problem (4) becomes non-convex and thus difficult to solve to global optimality.

This limitation is abolished, to some extent, by using a *linearizing agent*. Here, the nonlinear dynamics is automatically linearized by MOANTOOL along the trajectory, resulting in a time-varying linear system that is updated at every sampling instant. Linearized dynamics is defined by

```
agent = LinearizedAgent('nx', nx, 'nu', nu, ...
    'ny', ny, 'PredictionHorizon', N);
```

followed by setting `agent.StateEq` and `agent.OutputEq` as in the case of a nonlinear agent.

Constraints: MOANTOOL allows to create the constraint sets \mathcal{X}, \mathcal{U} , and \mathcal{Y} as hyperboxes by specifying the

min/max bounds on corresponding signals. For instance, to set state constraints, the user provides

```
agent.X.Min = x_min;
agent.X.Max = x_max;
```

Similarly, `agent.U.Min`, `agent.U.Max` specify input bounds, and `agent.Y.Min`, `agent.Y.Max` set the output bounds. Constraints, too, can be time-varying. In such a case the user sets the corresponding property to `'parameter'` and MOANTOOL will formulate the problem for symbolic bounds. Their value needs only be specified when the problem is actually solved (see Sections 4.3 and 4.4).

Physical dimensions: The physical dimensions of the agent, provided it can be represented by a hyper-rectangle with a known width and height (in 2D) is set via

```
agent.Size.Value = [width; height];
```

These quantities will be used to provide collision-free trajectories according to Remark 2.1.

Parameters of the cost function (4a): Here, MOANTOOL lets the user to specify the penalty matrices Q_y , Q_u that penalize the tracking error in (4a), along with respective reference values. The former is defined by

```
agent.Y.Penalty = Q_y; agent.U.Penalty = Q_u;
```

and the latter by

```
agent.Y.Reference = y_ref;
agent.U.Reference = u_ref;
```

If a reference is not provided, a zero vector is assumed instead. Time-varying reference signals can be specified by

```
agent.Y.Reference = 'parameter';
agent.U.Reference = 'parameter';
```

and they only need to be provided when the problem is solved numerically.

4.2 The Obstacle Class

In the initial version of MOANTOOL described here, the tool supports rectangular obstacles. To create a total of n_{obs} obstacles of the form (3), the user instantiates the `Obstacle` class:

```
obstacles = Obstacle(agent, n_obs);
```

Then, for each obstacle the user can set its size:

```
obstacles(i).Size.Value = [width_i; height_i];
```

along with its position:

```
obstacles(i).Position.Value = [xpos_i; ypos_i];
```

Alternatively, MOANTOOL allows for moving obstacles by setting `Position.Value = 'parameter'`.

4.3 The Planner Class

With the agent and the obstacle(s)² defined, MOANTOOL can automatically set up the MPC optimization problem in (4) by instantiating the `Planner` class as follows:

```
planner = Planner(agent, obstacles, ...
    'solver', 'gurobi', 'MixedInteger', flag);
```

Here, we tell MOANTOOL to use the GUROBI solver³. Finally, the `MixedInteger` true/false flag specifies how to formulate the obstacle avoidance constraints in (4e). If set to `true`, then the procedure of Section 3.1 will be used, otherwise the obstacles will be avoided using time-varying constraints as described in Section 3.2.

With the planner in hand, the MPC problem (4) can be solved for a given value of the initial condition x_0 by calling

```
[u, feasible, openloop] = planner.optimize(x0);
```

The first output, u , is the optimal feedback control action u_0^* . The second output is a true/false flag indicating whether the optimization problem was feasible. Finally, `openloop` is a structure that contains information about the optimal open-loop trajectories of the states (in `openloop.X`), inputs (in `openloop.U`), and outputs (in `openloop.Y`).

As a side note we remark that it is straightforward to include such a planner as a feedback controller into Simulink schemes. All that needs to be done is to use the `Interpreted Matlab Function` Simulink block and feed it with state measurements. Then the block will automatically output the optimal control actions.

If any properties of the agent and/or of the obstacles were previously declared as parameters, one needs to specify their values before the optimization can commence. For instance, value of the parametric output reference is specified by

```
planner.Parameters.Agent.Y.Reference = yref;
```

followed by calling `planner.optimize()`. Here, `yref` can either be a vector (which corresponds to no preview of the output reference in (4a), i.e., $y_{\text{ref},k} = y_{\text{ref}} \forall k \in \mathbb{N}_0^{N-1}$), or a $n_y \times N$ matrix whos k -th column specifies $y_{\text{ref},k-1}$. Such an approach allows the user to easily change the parametric values “on-the-fly” without having to re-construct the optimization problem from scratch.

4.4 The Simulator Class

MOANTOOL excels at providing a simple, yet powerful way of performing closed-loop simulations under MPC control. To use the simulator, the user first instantiates the `Simulator` class and provides a planner as the input:

```
psim = Simulator(planner);
```

The closed-loop simulation over N_{sim} steps, starting from a given initial condition x_0 is performed by

² In case of no obstacles, set `obstacles=[]`.

³ See <https://yalmip.github.io/allsolvers/> for the complete list of supported QP/MIQP/nonlinear solvers.

```
psim.run(x0, Nsim);
```

Various options can be specified as key/value pairs, e.g.

```
psim.run(x0, Nsim, ...
    'Preview', true/false, ...
    'RadarDetector', detector);
```

Here, the **Preview** option controls whether the future input/output references and position of obstacles will be known to the MPC problem in (4). Clearly, the more knowledge does the controller have, the better the control performance gets.

The **RadarDetector** extends MOANTOOL to the following scenario: obstacles are only avoided if they are detected by the agent's radar. The input to this option is a function handle that takes three inputs: (i) the current agent's position y_0 , (ii) the current position of the obstacle(s), and (iii) the obstacle size (in width/height pairs). The function must return an array of true/false values for each obstacle (true if the obstacle is inside of the radar's range, false otherwise). A simple circular radar detector can be created by

```
rad = @(ap,op,os) psim.circularRadar(R,ap,op,os);
```

with R specifying the radar's range.

Finally, the **Simulator** class provides various helpers to synthesize time-varying reference trajectories. For example, to generate a circular trajectory of a known radius, call

```
trajectory = psim.circularTrajectory(Nsim, ...
    'Radius', R, 'Loop', nloops);
```

Alternatively, a polygonic reference passing through given waypoints can be obtained by

```
trajectory = psim.pointwiseTrajectory(Nsim, ...
    waypoints);
```

where the waypoints are stored column-wise.

Once the simulation was ran, the obtained closed-loop profiles over N_{sim} simulation steps can be plotted by calling







```
psim.plot('option1', v1, 'option2', v2, ...);
```

with key/value pairs specifying individual options. These include, but are not limited to:

- **Reference** - true/false whether to plot the output reference;
- **Trail** - true/false whether to plot the agent's trail (think comet in Matlab);
- **Predictions** - true/false whether future predicted positions should be plotted;
- **RadarDetector** - same as described above;
- **RadarPlotter** - handle to a function that plots the radar's range; for the case of circular radar, use `@(p) viscircles(p', R)` to plot a circle of radius R centered at the current agent's position p .

Important to note is that once `psim.run()` was executed, the closed-loop simulation profiles are stored in the object. Therefore multiple visualizations with different options

Table 1. Symbols used in simulation pictures

symbol	meaning
	green filled square agent
	red filled square obstacle
	thin green dotted line reference trajectory
	purple line actual trajectory
	thin black squares predicted positions of the agent
	thick black rectangle time-varying constraints

can be performed without having to run the whole closed-loop simulation over and over again.

5. EXAMPLES

In this section we illustrate the results obtained by MOANTOOL for two test cases involving linear and nonlinear dynamics of the agents. All illustrations were generated directly by the `Simulator/plot()` method as described in Section 4.4 and use the nomenclature of Table 1. The source code of all examples considered here is available at <https://bitbucket.com/kvasnica/moantool/wiki/ifac17>. The page also links youtube videos that show individual examples in motion. All computations were run using MOANTOOL 1.0 in Matlab R2015b on a 2.9 GHz machine with 8 GB of RAM.

5.1 Linear Dynamics and Multiple Obstacles

Consider an agent that moves in a two-dimensional Euclidian space whose dynamics in each axis is driven, independently, by a frictionless double-integrator dynamics with the x - and y -axis accelerations as the inputs, and x -axis, y -axis positions as the outputs. To quickly generate such an agent, the user calls

```
agent = ...
    LinearAgent.demo2D('PredictionHorizon', N, ...
        'SamplingTime', Ts);
```

and specifies the prediction horizon ($N=30$ was used here) and the sampling time ($T_s=0.25$ in our examples). The `demo2D` command automatically sets $-2 \leq u \leq 2$ as the input constraints, $-20 \leq y \leq 20$ as the output constraints, $-2 \leq v \leq 2$ as the constraints on the agent's speed (the state vector is composed of the speed and the position in respective axes), along with $Q_y = Q_u = I_{2 \times 2}$ and $u_{\text{ref}} = 0$ in (4a). The output reference is declared as parametric via and its value will be provided during the closed-loop simulation:

```
agent.Y.Reference = 'parameter';
```

Subsequently, four rectangular obstacles are defined by

```
n_obs = 4;
obs = Obstacle(agent, n_obs);
obs(1).Position.Value = [ 10; 0];
obs(2).Position.Value = [-10; 0];
obs(3).Position.Value = [ 0; 10];
obs(4).Position.Value = [ 0; -10];
for i=1:4, obs(i).Size.Value = [3; 2]; end
```

Finally, the planner is constructed by

```
planner = Planner(agent, obs, ...
```

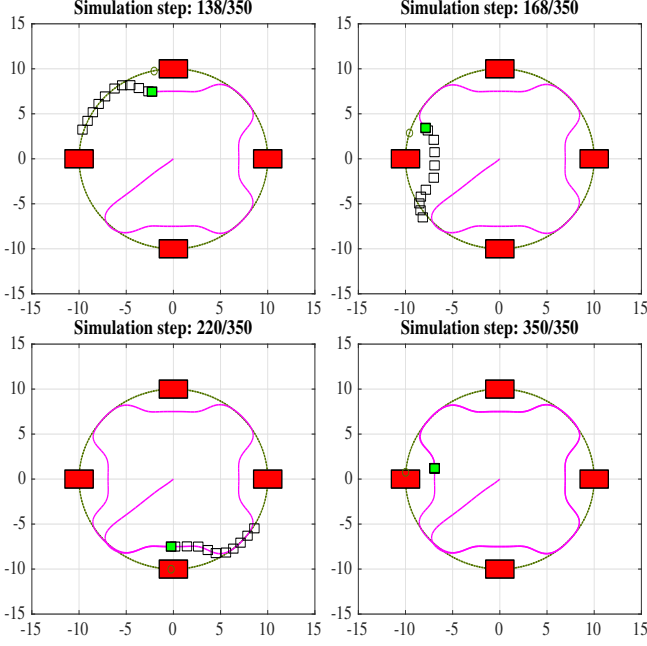



Fig. 2. Collision avoidance with static obstacles using the mixed-integer formulation. Avoiding the obstacles from the left is the optimal decision. See Table 1 for the legend.

```
'solver', 'gurobi', ...
'MixedInteger', flag)
```

where `flag` will be true/false depending on the type of obstacle avoidance formulation (cf. Sections 3 and 4.3). Finally, a closed-loop simulation is executed by

```
psim = Simulator(planner);
psim.Parameters.Agent.Y.Reference = yref;
psim.run(x0);
```

where at this point we will assume a circular trajectory centered at the origin with a radius of 10, generated by

```
yref = psim.circularTrajectory(Nsim, ...
    'Radius', 10, 'Loops', 2);
```

with `Nsim=350` as the number of simulation steps. At the beginning of the simulation the agent is positioned at the origin, i.e., `x0 = zeros(4, 1)`.

The simulation results as generated by the `sim.plot()` command are depicted in Fig. 2 for the mixed-integer formulation of obstacle avoidance constraints of Section 3.1 (this corresponds to `flag=true` in the construction of the planner), and in Fig. 3 for the time-varying formulation of Section 3.2, enabled by `flag=false`. As can be seen from the figures, both problem formulations manipulate the control inputs such that the vehicle avoids obstacles. However, they differ in the induced computational load. The non-convex mixed-integer formulation of Section 3.1 required a total of 31.9 seconds to run the whole simulation with 350 steps (i.e., 0.091 seconds per step), while the convex formulation using time-varying constraints only took 4.9 seconds (or 0.014 seconds per step). The price to be paid is a deteriorated tracking quality, which is about 6 % worse compared to the mixed-integer formulation.

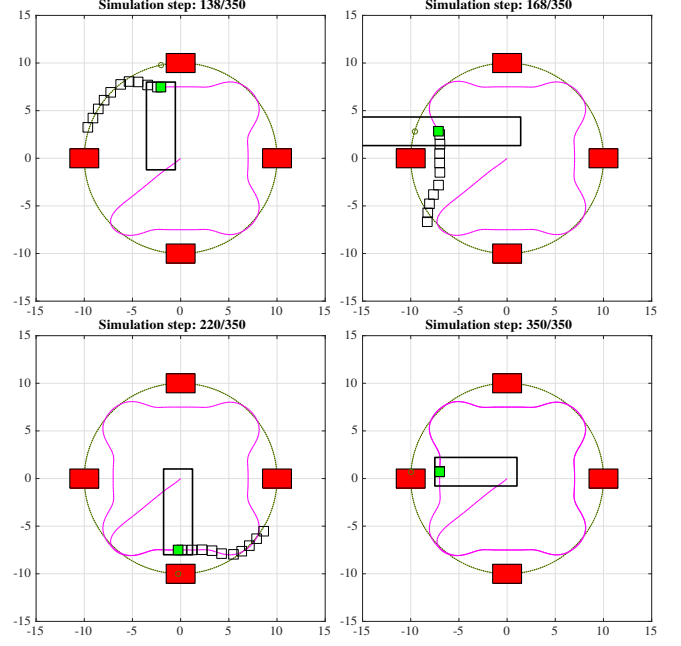


Fig. 3. Collision avoidance with static obstacles using time-varying constraints. Here, the avoidance heuristics was set such that the obstacles are avoided from the left. See Table 1 for the legend.

5.2 Nonlinear Dynamics and Multiple Obstacles

Next we consider a differential drive two-wheel robot whose dynamics is

$$\dot{x}_1 = r/2 \cos(\theta)(\omega_L + \omega_R), \quad (9a)$$

$$\dot{x}_2 = r/2 \sin(\theta)(\omega_L + \omega_R), \quad (9b)$$

$$\dot{\theta} = r/L (\omega_R - \omega_L), \quad (9c)$$

where x_1, x_2 are the positions in the 2D Euclidian space, θ is the angle, ω_R and ω_L are the manipulated angular speeds of the right and the left wheel, respectively, $r = 0.03$ m is the wheel radius, and $L = 0.1$ m is the distance between wheels. Such a dynamics is defined by

```
% continuous state-update equation
f = @(x, u) [r/2*cos(x(3))*(u(1)+u(2)); ...
    r/2*sin(x(3))*(u(1)+u(2)); ...
    r/L*(u(1)-u(2))];

% output equation
g = @(x, u) x(1:2);
```

and discretized using forward Euler by

```
state_eq = @(x, u, ~) x+Ts*f(x, u);
output_eq = @(x, u, ~) g(x, u);
```

with sampling time `Ts=1`. The nonlinear agent is then constructed as

```
agent = NonlinearAgent('nx',3,'nu',2,'ny',2,...
    'PredictionHorizon', 10)
agent.StateEq = state_eq;
agent.OutputEq = output_eq;
```

The same four obstacles as in the previous examples were considered here. Since the dynamics is nonlinear and in the absence of good-quality mixed-integer NLP solvers, only the time-varying constraint formulation of obstacle avoidance constraints per Section 3.2 is considered:

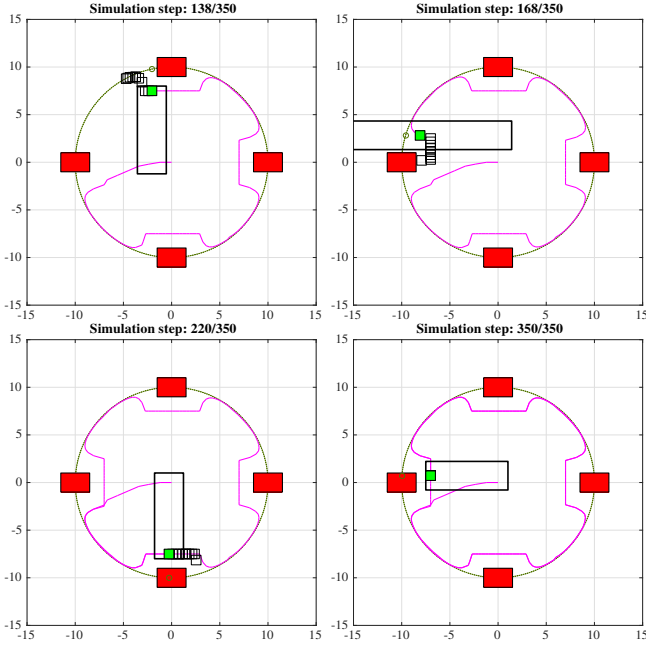


Fig. 4. Trajectories at different phases of the simulation for the nonlinear example in Section 5.2.

```
planner = Planner(agent, obs, ...
    'solver', 'fmincon', ...
    'MixedInteger', false)
```

where we use the `fmincon` solver. Simulation results are shown in Fig. 4. Here, since the optimization problem is nonlinear due to the dynamics in (9), the average time need to solve (4) at each sampling instant was 1.61 seconds. Faster runtimes could be obtained by using a high-quality commercial solver such as BARON, or a tailored nonlinear solver generated by ACADO.

6. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE STEPS

We have presented MOANTOOL as an easy-to-use, yet versatile Matlab-based toolbox to design MPC controllers for autonomous vehicles with obstacle avoidance. Although the underlying mathematical concepts are well known, they are often not straightforward to implement for an average control engineer. MOANTOOL aspires to abolish the tedious tasks of designing MPC controllers with collision avoidance constraints by hand and instead replace them by automated procedures. By using a simple, yet powerful user interface, even complex setups (such as moving obstacles, radar detection, etc.) can be formulated in few lines of code. The obtained MPC controller (represented by the `Planner` class) can be used from Matlab's command line and even included into Simulink schemes. The built-in simulator, along with its visualization capabilities, allows to quickly verify the performance of a given MPC setup.

For the future, we plan to extend the toolbox in several ways. First and foremost, we plan to add code generation capabilities that will export a tailored optimization solver to C and to Python. This will allow to apply procedures of this paper to real-time control in embedded hardware. Second, we will extend the user interface by allowing for polytopic and circular obstacles (currently only rectan-

gular ones are supported). Finally, support for multiple agents will be added by considering the fellow agents as obstacles for the current one. Addressing these tasks is, from both theoretical as well as practical point of view, not trivial and goes beyond the scope of this paper.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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