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# Continuous optimization of an trajectory - A non-convex optimization problem

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Abstract—In this paper, we present the implementation and tests of a continuous trajectory planning algorithm, used in an autonomous vehicle from Mercedes-Benz (BERTHA). The algorithm is based on non-linear optimization, which objective function can be designed changed to the wished circumstances as driving fast or very safe. En contraire to the algorithm of BERTHA, there is no guarantee tho a single, global optimum in our algorithm, as we defined our constraints differently, because we use the commonroad scenarios as our environment.

#### I. Introduction

In the last years, autonomous driving became a growing topic in Informatics as the computing power increased that we can compute dificult problems in an agreeable time. With this increase in hardware technology, many companies, like Google, Tesla, BMW or Mercedes-Benz, as well as Universities started to invest in autonomous driving. As autonomous driving may become the solution for urban mobility, investing in a safe and optimal trajectory just becomes pressing. In this Practical Course we investigated an algorithm for a trajectory planning task of an IEEE paper written by Julius Ziegler, Philipp Bender, Thao Dang and Christoph Stiller. The trajectory planning problem is a nonlinear optimization problem with nonlinear inequality constraints. The objective function is quadratic. A Newton Type method was used to solve for the trajectory. In this paper we show what we have to change in commonroad to run the solver, as well as the different constraints and different problems we have to solve regarding the algorithm and the scenario.

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#### II. THE OBJECTIVE FUNCTION AND IT'S CONSTRAINTS

#### A. Prelude

The scenario of the optimization task is provided by the commonroad model. In the model data for the lanelets, geometry, dynamic and static obstacles, speed limit and vehicle properties are given. The trajectory is computed in the scenarios coordinate frame. No sensory data has to be provided. The bounds of the problem are declared by the scenarios maximal and minimal coordinates, while the driving corridor depends on the definition. As commonroad provides highway scenarios, the driving corridor is large, most of the time over more than four lines. Later we will see, why this is important. The initial trajectory is some kind of handcrafted line with n points, while n equals the scenarios time t devided by the timestep  $\nabla t$ .

#### B. Objective function

The non convex minimization is done by the python library scipy.optimize. It returns the local minimum of the Objective function in the form of  $\mathbf{x}(t) = (x(t), y(t))^T$  for the centerpoint of the vehicle. The orientation of the vehicle  $\psi(t)$  and the curvature  $\kappa(t)$  of the trajectory are defined as

$$\psi(t) = \arctan \frac{\dot{y}(t)}{\dot{x}(t)} \tag{1}$$

$$\kappa(t) = \frac{\dot{x}(t)\ddot{y}(t) - \dot{y}(t)\ddot{x}(t)}{\sqrt[3]{\dot{x}^2(t) + \dot{y}(t)}} \tag{2}$$

The oobjectiv function for the optimal trajectory is defined as the one that minimzes the integral

$$J\left[\mathbf{x}(t)\right] = \int_{t_0}^{t_0+T} L(\mathbf{x}, \dot{\mathbf{x}}, \ddot{\mathbf{x}}, \ddot{\mathbf{x}},) dt$$
 (3)

with the summand L:

$$L = \mathbf{w}^{T}(j_{offs}, j_{vel}, j_{acc}, j_{jerk}, j_{jawr})$$
 (4)

$$\mathbf{w} = (w_{offs}, w_{vel}, w_{acc}, w_{jerk}, w_{jawr}) \tag{5}$$

The time  $t_0$  is the starting time of the scenario, while the time  $t_0+T$  equals the length in time of the scenario. The vector  ${\bf w}$  contains the different weighting factors of the individual summands, which have to be handchosen for different weightings of the summands (given, not optimized). Following the summands of the integrand L will be discussed.

$$j_{offs}(\mathbf{x}(t)) = \left| \frac{1}{2} (d_{left}(\mathbf{x}(t)) + (d_{right}(\mathbf{x}(t))) \right|^2$$

pulls the trajectory to the center of the driving corridor.  $d_{left}$  and  $d_{right}$  are the distance functions to the left and to the right of the driving corridor. One of those has to be negative and one has to be positive, so that the ego vehicle passes in the center of the driving corridor. If the obstacles and the driving corridor are convex, its possible to use the euclidian distane, if the obstacles and driving corridor are non convex, the usage of a pseudo distance function is recommended. In section (adkfjeo) a pseudo distance function is introduced.

$$j_{vel}(\mathbf{x}(t)) = |v_{des}(\mathbf{x}(t) - \dot{\mathbf{x}}(t))|^2$$

describes the error of the velocity vector of the trajectory with respect to a dsired velocity vector. The desired velocity can be handcrafted or is related to the speed limits of the scenario. If the pseudo distance function is used, the derivative of the function is orthogonal to the desired velocity, so it has to be shifted in the right direction.

$$\mathbf{v}_{des}(\mathbf{x}) = v_{des} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \left( \nabla d_{left}(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla d_{right}(\mathbf{x}) \right)$$

These two terms describe the behavior of the trajectory, by developing the position and direction of the velocity. The last 3 terms are smoothness terms, which generate the driving dynamics and comfort.

$$j_{acc}(\mathbf{x}(t)) = |\ddot{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{t})|^{2}$$
$$j_{jerk}(\mathbf{x}(t)) = |\ddot{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{t})|^{2}$$
$$j_{jawr}(\mathbf{x}(t)) = \dot{\psi}^{2}(t)$$

By minimizing  $j_{acc}$ ,  $j_{jerk}$ ,  $j_{jawr}$  the forces to the passengers get minimized and the trajectory gets further smoother, by minimizing the jawrate and changes in acceleration.

#### C. Constraint functions

In the real world, the car is constaint to some physical bounds and as a human, we also would like to not crash into an other vehicle or a wall. So the objective function has to be optimized with respect to some constraints. The constraints for the vehicle are the steering geometry, the maximal acceleration and the maximal velocity. The maximal velocity is determined by,

$$|\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t)| \leq v_{max}$$

and the maximal acceleration by,

$$|\ddot{\mathbf{x}}(t)| \leq a_{max}$$

For low velocities, the curvature of the trajectory is limited to the steering angle,

$$-\kappa_{max} < \kappa(t) < \kappa_{max}$$

at higher velocities to the friction limit of the tires, which can be reduced to a circle of forces at any time

$$||\ddot{\mathbf{x}}(t)||^2 \le a_{max}^2$$

We can reduce the external constraint for "not crashing" to a constraint that the distance of the trajectory at time t has to be larger than zero plus some safety- and the vehicle shape( $0+d_s+r_v$ ) distances to every obstacle. Therefore both distance functions can be used.

$$\mathbf{d}(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{o}(t)) \ge 0 + d_s + r_v$$

where  $\mathbf{0}(t)$  is the position of the obstacle at time t.

As part of the practical course, we used different definitions to stay in the driving corridor. As the soft constraint of the objective function should pull the ego vehicle in the middle of the driving corridor, we have to make sure it's not finding a local optimum outside the driving corridor. There are 2 methods to guarantee this. Either we set the boundaries of the problem to the driving corridor boundaries, or we use some

distance constraint for example if the car drives from left to right,

$$p_{ego} \geq bound_{left}$$
 
$$p_{ego} \leq bound_{right}$$

or

$$dist(p_{ego}, bound_{left}) \le 0$$
  
 $dist(p_{ego}, bound_{right}) \le 0$ 

The second set of constraints just work with the signed distance function, as the euclidean distance does not distinguish between being left or right of an object.

#### III. EGO VEHICLE SHAPING

The ego vehicle is modeled by circles along the longitudinal axis. There are two parameters for ego vehicle shaping; First: radius of circles and Second: K as the number of circles which we use to model our vehicle. In our model k=4 because for large value of k, computation cost would increase and for small k we will dismiss some area around vehicle. Based on the radius of circles and width of car we will calculate the first and the last center point of circles along the the longitudinal axis. Then based on the center point distance of two circles we will calculate center points for the remaining circles. After computing 4 circles center points we will transform those points based on the midpoint of vehicle. In 1 we can see how



Fig. 1. A vector graphic loaded from a PDF file

the vehicle is modeled on the trajectory. If we choose the time step to big, our model may crash due to the first circle of the timestep t-1 and the last circle of t do not intersect anymore, so there might be the option that a car can drive between the timesteps t and t-1 into the trajectory. The timestep in the simulation is chosen so small, that this will never happen.

# IV. SOLVER DESIGN

#### A. Solver

For optimization with constraints, the problem looks like

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}) \tag{6}$$

w.r.t.

$$a(\mathbf{x}) \ge 0$$

$$b(\mathbf{x}) = 0$$

The Lagrangian with the Lagrange multipliers  $\lambda, \alpha$  looks like:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}, \lambda, \alpha) = f(x) - \lambda^T a(\mathbf{x} - \alpha^T b(\mathbf{x})) \tag{7}$$

The solver has to be chosen so that a non convex problem can be solved. The objective function and constraints are two times continuously differentiable (as long as we use convex polygon shaping this also holds for the euclidean distance). The scipy.optimize-toolbox of python has a lot of options. Also there is the nlopt library which has a python wrapper. In this case the scipy.optimize-toolbox offers itself because of the detailed documentation. As this is a minimization problem, scipy.optimize.minimize was chosen. Constraints are just defined for the 'COBYLA'( Constrained Optimization BY Linear Approximation) and 'SLSQP'( Sequential Least Squares Programming) methods. Further the algorithm 'SLSQP' was chosen, as 'COBYLA' just supports non equality constraints. To lead our vehicle to the goal region of commonroad, we sometimes used equality constraints.

#### B. Constraint Equations

For the solver there have to be six different inequality constraint vectors. Lets define the amount of trajectory points as t, the amount of points which discretice the ego vehicle as  $n_e$ , the amount of (dynamic) obstacles as  $c_d$ , the amount of points discreticing the (dynamic) obstacle as  $n_d$  and finally for the points discreticing the driving corridor  $n_{DC}$ . The notation of acceleration, velocity and curvature is a, v,  $\omega_T$  and  $\omega_l$ . The amount of distance constraints to the (dynamic) obstacles is  $A_d = t n_e c_d n_d$  the amount of distance constraints to the driving corridor (as there are distance constraints to the left and right) is  $A_{DC} = t n_e * 2 n_{DC}$ . Considering the acceleration velocity and curvature constraints for the trajectory, there are  $A_g = t_a + t_v + t_{\omega l} + t_{\omega r}$  more equations. Concluding there are  $A_{total} = A_q + A_{DC} + A_d$  inequality constraints.

Equality constraints can be used for the commonroad planning task. If they are used, there is just one for the start- and one for the goal position (if the goal position is no uncertainty area). So they are not really contributing to the amount of constraints equations needed.

#### V. DISTANCE FUNCTION

As the Euclidean distance to a non convex polygon is not differentiable twice. As paper suggested we use a pseudo distance function which guarantees the continuously differentiability. A line of a polygon is defined by two adjacent corner points  $\mathbf{p}_1$  and  $\mathbf{p}_2$  with  $\mathbf{t}_1$  and  $\mathbf{t}_2$  as corresponding tangent vectors. A pseudo tangent vector is created by interpolating the corner tangent vectors along the segment  $p_1\bar{p}_2$ 

$$\mathbf{t}_{\lambda} = \lambda \mathbf{t}_2 + (1 - \lambda) \mathbf{t}_1$$

which corresponds to the point

$$\mathbf{p}_{\lambda} = \lambda \mathbf{p}_2 + (1 - \lambda) \mathbf{p}_1$$

for  $\lambda \in [0,1]$ . For projecting  ${\bf x}$  we determine  $\lambda$  such that the pseudo tangent is perpendicular to the pseudo normal

$$\mathbf{n}_{\lambda}\mathbf{t}_{\lambda}=0$$

In general, to determine  $\lambda$ , following quadratic equation has to be solved.

$$\lambda \mathbf{x} \mathbf{t}_2 + (1 - \lambda) \mathbf{x} \mathbf{t}_1 -$$

$$(\lambda^2 \mathbf{p}_2 \mathbf{t}_2 + (\lambda - \lambda^2)(\mathbf{p}_2 \mathbf{t}_1 + \mathbf{p}_1 \mathbf{t}_2) + (1 - \lambda)^2 \mathbf{p}_1 \mathbf{t}_1) = 0$$

this equation has maximum 2 answer thus: if lambda has two value, we always choose positive lambda. However, if lambda has not any value, we will use euclidean distance to find the distance. Also for computing distance to driving corridor the starting point of driving corridor and last point of driving corridor which we do not have the tangent we use euclidean distance too. As paper suggested the signed pseudo distance d to the segment is  $||n_{\lambda}||$  if y > 0 and  $-||n_{\lambda}||$  else. For the sake of simplicity, instead of using the true gradient of d, we use the vector  $\frac{n_{\lambda}}{|d|}$  as the pseudo gradient of d. To determine the distance to a complete polygon, we compute distance to every linear segment in the polygon and pick the smallest one. Since we use ego vehicle shaping for modeling our vehicle, we use euclidean distance to compute distance to dynamic obstacle. Because, our dynamic vehicles shape are convex polygon so they are continuously differentiability. Also with euclidean distance our computation overhead would decrease dramatically.

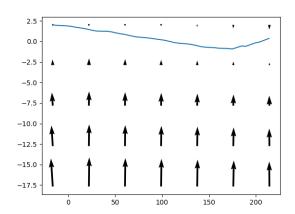


Fig. 2. Vectorfield with the normal  $n_\lambda$  of the pseudo distance function to the left boundary of the NGSIM\_US101\_1 commonroad scenario

#### VI. DRIVING CORRIDOR AND COMMONROAD

#### A. Driving corridor

An important point for the objective function is, how to choose the driving corridor. If the driving corridor is wide, the ego vehicle can overtake slow cars and leave the lane, if the driving corridor is narrow, it stays on it's given lanelet and it's hard to overtake slow cars, because the objective function will increase due to  $j_{offs}$ . Nevertheless, if the driving corridor is wide,  $j_{offs}$  is going to pull the car in the middle of the driving corridor, which might be between two or more lanelets, depending on the scenario. In figure 3 the optimal trajectory

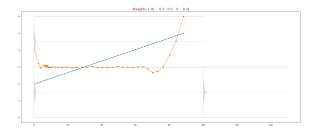


Fig. 3. A trajectory with a wide driving corridor

would just be a straight line from the start point to the goal, while the offsetpart of the objective function pulls the ego vehicle into the middle of the trajectory. In figure 4 the driving corridor is chosen as the lanelet boundaries. So the ego vehicle drives in the middle of the lanelet, as expected. So the main difficulty is how to chose the driving corridor in the simulation, as we work with multi lane scenarios most of the time.

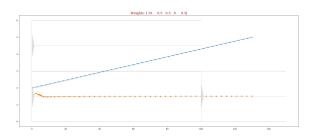


Fig. 4. A trajectory with a narrow driving corridor

# B. Commonroad

Commonroad is a project of the Technical University Munich, providing realistic data for motion planning on roads. It includes models of streets, traffic scenarios and tasks an ego vehicle has to perform. This paper focus on the US highway scenarios and simple models of roads. The algorithm does not pay attention to traffic rules, safety rules or behavior of other traffic participants. It's just optimizing the ego trajectory with the given data. There are no probabilistic predictions if the traffic participants trajectories. They will be treated as given by the commonroad scenario, as seen in figure 5 the trajectories of the dynamic obstacles are given as point representations of the midpoint of the obstacle.

The commonroad scenario provides the lanelet coordinates and the direction of the lanelets. We decided to generate the driving corridor as all adjacent lanelets, which points into

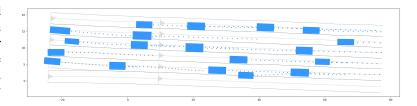


Fig. 5. The NGSIM\_US101\_1 commonroad scenario

the same direction. The dynamic obstacles are represented by oriented rectangles at each timestep in the commonroad scenario. For the optimization, the dynamic obstacles have the shape of an matrix. in each row is are the four corner points of the orientated rectangle at a specific timestep. So the algorithm can build the constraint functions for each timestep. The algorithm do not distinguish between static and dynamic obstacles, as static obstacles can be represented as dynamic obstacles with constant position.

Therefore static and dynamic obstacles share properties and functions.

#### VII. EXPERIMENTS

In the previous section was a brief introduction to the parameters we have to take into account. In the following sections we will compare the different distance functions, different collision models to dynamic obstacles, discuss the vehicle shaping, test cases with different outcomes and also the weighting problem.

# A. Collision models

For the different distance functions there are two different collision models. Once the commonroad scenario was used, and polygones were created for the pseudo distance function. The other one is for the euclidean distance function and is derived by [2]. In figure 6 there is the NGSIM\_US101\_4 com-

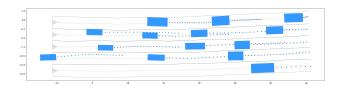


Fig. 6. The NGSIM\_US101\_4 commonroad scenario with polygones as collision model

monroad scenario with its dynamic obstacles. The obstacles are simple RectOBB obstacles from the commonroad scenario. If the pseudo distance function is used, the polygonial shape does not matter. To compare the different distance functions, an other collision model is needed for the dynamic obstacles.

In figure 7 the other collision model is shown. It consist of multiple points on the longitudonal axis of the obstacle. These points are midpoints of circles, so that we got a similar shape like our ego vehicle. Depending on how much computing power is available, one can choose how much points characterize the obstacle.

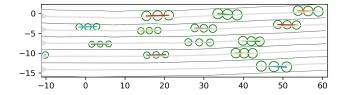


Fig. 7. The NGSIM\_US101\_4 commonroad scenario witch a reduced collision model

- B. Comparison of Euclidean- and Pseudo Distance
  Some Pics
- C. Problematic cases compare cases
- D. Weighting Problem sjadhka

# VIII. CONCLUSION

The conclusion goes here.

### REFERENCES

 H. Kopka and P. W. Daly, A Guide to ETEX, 3rd ed. Harlow, England: Addison-Wesley, 1999.