EN.530.678: Nonlinear Control and Planning in Robotics

Lecture# 12 Sampling-based Motion Planning

April 20, 2015

The trajectory planning problem

design a reference trajectory x(t) ∈ ℝⁿ and control inputs u(t) ∈ ℝ^m by solving the constrained optimal control problem:

$$\min_{x(\cdot),u(\cdot),t_f} J = \phi(x(t_f),t_f) + \int_{t_0}^{t_f} L(x(t),u(t),t)dt, \qquad (1)$$

subject to:

$$x(t_0) = x_0, \quad x(t_f) \text{ and } t_f \text{ free}$$
 (2)

$$\dot{x}(t) = f(x(t), u(t), t) \tag{3}$$

$$c(x(t), u(t), t) \le 0$$
, for all $t \in [t_0, t_f]$ (4)

$$\psi(\mathbf{x}(t_f), t_f) \le 0, \tag{5}$$

where

- [t₀, t_f] time horizon, x₀-initial state
- L trajectory cost: e.g. control effort, energy, time, distance
- ϕ terminal cost: e.g. reaching a desired region
- c trajectory constraints: e.g. control bounds, forbidden regions in X
- $\blacktriangleright \ \psi$ terminal constraint defines algebraically a goal region ($\Box \succ \langle \mathcal{D} \succ \langle \mathbb{T} \rangle \leftarrow \mathbb{T}$

Generally, it's a hard problem:

no closed-form solution in general (beyond the linear-quadratic case)

infinite dimensional; numerically NP-complete

Generally, it's a hard problem:

no closed-form solution in general (beyond the linear-quadratic case)

infinite dimensional; numerically NP-complete

Solution Techniques

- nonlinear optimization (over finite trajectory parameterization)
 - could be slow, might not converge, only locally optimal

Generally, it's a hard problem:

no closed-form solution in general (beyond the linear-quadratic case)

infinite dimensional; numerically NP-complete

Solution Techniques

- nonlinear optimization (over finite trajectory parameterization)
 - could be slow, might not converge, only locally optimal
- stochastic trajectory optimization
 - cannot handle complex constraints, e.g. narrow passages

Generally, it's a hard problem:

- no closed-form solution in general (beyond the linear-quadratic case)
- infinite dimensional; numerically NP-complete

Solution Techniques

- nonlinear optimization (over finite trajectory parameterization)
 - could be slow, might not converge, only locally optimal
- stochastic trajectory optimization
 - cannot handle complex constraints, e.g. narrow passages
- linearize/convexify the problem
 - might become too conservative or not realizable; might not scale to complex constraints

Generally, it's a hard problem:

- no closed-form solution in general (beyond the linear-quadratic case)
- infinite dimensional; numerically NP-complete
- Solution Techniques
 - nonlinear optimization (over finite trajectory parameterization)
 - could be slow, might not converge, only locally optimal
 - stochastic trajectory optimization
 - cannot handle complex constraints, e.g. narrow passages
 - linearize/convexify the problem
 - might become too conservative or not realizable; might not scale to complex constraints

- discretize the space and use discrete search
 - not scalable: exponential in state dimension and time
 - dynamic constraints difficult to handle

Generally, it's a hard problem:

- no closed-form solution in general (beyond the linear-quadratic case)
- infinite dimensional; numerically NP-complete
- Solution Techniques
 - nonlinear optimization (over finite trajectory parameterization)
 - could be slow, might not converge, only locally optimal
 - stochastic trajectory optimization
 - cannot handle complex constraints, e.g. narrow passages
 - linearize/convexify the problem
 - might become too conservative or not realizable; might not scale to complex constraints
 - discretize the space and use discrete search
 - not scalable: exponential in state dimension and time
 - dynamic constraints difficult to handle
 - sampling-based methods
 - randomized approximation of the space of trajectories (e.g. as a graph with randomly sampled nodes) and then search
 - By law of large numbers it approaches the optimal solution but typically at a very slow rate

Example: Tree-based Sampling Motion Planning



kinodynamic planning



- ► A node is the tuple $\eta_i = (x_i, p_i, J_i) \in \mathcal{N} = \mathcal{X} \times \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{R}_+$ where
 - $x_i \in \mathcal{X}$ is the state
 - ▶ $p_i \in \mathbb{N}$ is the index of the *parent* node of *i*, i.e. η_{p_i} is the parent of η_i
 - J_i is the cumulative cost from the start η_0 to η_i
- \blacktriangleright A tree $\mathcal{T} \subset \mathcal{N}$ is a particular arrangement of nodes



- ► A node is the tuple $\eta_i = (x_i, p_i, J_i) \in \mathcal{N} = \mathcal{X} \times \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{R}_+$ where
 - $x_i \in \mathcal{X}$ is the state
 - ▶ $p_i \in \mathbb{N}$ is the index of the *parent* node of *i*, i.e. η_{p_i} is the parent of η_i
 - J_i is the cumulative cost from the start η_0 to η_i
- \blacktriangleright A tree $\mathcal{T} \subset \mathcal{N}$ is a particular arrangement of nodes

Key ingredients

- sampling routine Sample
- distance function $\rho(x_a, x_b) \ge 0$ for determining Nearest (\mathcal{T}, η)

- steering method Steer (η_a, η_b)
- collision detection ObstacleFree(x)

Key ingredients: sampling routine Sample

- Baseline: uniform sampling
 - *low-dispersion*: reduce largest unsampled space between all samples

 $\delta(P) = \sup_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \{\min_{x' \in P} \{\rho(x, x')\}\},\$

where P is a set of sampled points

Iow-discrepancy: # of samples inside a set are consistent with the volume of the set

$$D(P,\mathcal{R}) = \sup_{R\in\mathcal{R}} \{ \| \frac{|P\cap R|}{k} - \frac{\mu(R)}{\mu(\mathcal{X})} \| \},\$$

where ${\cal R}$ are all subsets of ${\cal X}$ and μ measures the volume of a set



dispersion



discrepancy

・ロト ・聞 ト ・目 ト ・目

Key ingredients: sampling routine Sample

- Baseline: uniform sampling
 - *low-dispersion*: reduce largest unsampled space between all samples

$$\delta(P) = \sup_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \{ \min_{x' \in P} \{ \rho(x, x') \} \},\$$

where P is a set of sampled points

Iow-discrepancy: # of samples inside a set are consistent with the volume of the set

$$D(P,\mathcal{R}) = \sup_{R \in \mathcal{R}} \{ \| \frac{|P \cap R|}{k} - \frac{\mu(R)}{\mu(\mathcal{X})} \| \},\$$

where ${\cal R}$ are all subsets of ${\cal X}$ and μ measures the volume of a set

non-uniform sampling: exploiting problem structure (more later)



dispersion



discrepancy

・ロ・・雪・・曲・・曲

7

Key ingredients: distance function

Distance function $\rho(x_a, x_b) \geq 0$ for determining Nearest (\mathcal{T}, η)

• ideal distance is the true cost-to-go from x_a to x_b , i.e. $\rho(x_a, x_b) = J(\bar{x}_{a \to b}, \bar{u}_{a \to b})$

Key ingredients: distance function

Distance function $\rho(x_a, x_b) \geq 0$ for determining Nearest (\mathcal{T}, η)

- ideal distance is the true cost-to-go from x_a to x_b , i.e. $\rho(x_a, x_b) = J(\bar{x}_{a \to b}, \bar{u}_{a \to b})$
- which typically unavailable or expensive to compute so use a lower bound *heuristic cost*, e.g.

$$\rho(x_a, x_b) = \sqrt{(x_b - x_a)^T W(x_b - x_a)},$$

i.e. a weighted Euclidean distance (for some matrix W > 0)

Key ingredients: distance function

Distance function $\rho(x_a, x_b) \geq 0$ for determining Nearest (\mathcal{T}, η)

- ideal distance is the true cost-to-go from x_a to x_b , i.e. $\rho(x_a, x_b) = J(\bar{x}_{a \to b}, \bar{u}_{a \to b})$
- which typically unavailable or expensive to compute so use a lower bound *heuristic cost*, e.g.

$$\rho(x_a, x_b) = \sqrt{(x_b - x_a)^T W(x_b - x_a)},$$

- i.e. a weighted Euclidean distance (for some matrix W > 0)
- Nearest (\mathcal{T}, η) can be set by:
 - $\rho(x_a, x_b)$: local distance ordering, i.e. standard RRT
 - J_a + ρ(x_a, x_b): cost-to-come to parent + local distance ordering, i.e. RRT with optimal cost-to-come

Key ingredients: steering method Steer (η_a, η_b)

- Structured models (assume controllability)
 - open-loop trajectory generation: exploit nonholonomy, flatness, symmetries, if possible
 - employ efficient closed-form local methods, e.g. polynomial boundary value solutions

Key ingredients: steering method Steer (η_a, η_b)

- Structured models (assume controllability)
 - open-loop trajectory generation: exploit nonholonomy, flatness, symmetries, if possible
 - employ efficient closed-form local methods, e.g. polynomial boundary value solutions
- Complicated / Black box models:
 - only possible to sample control space
 - observe/simulate generated trajectories
 - must be *resolution complete*: i.e. reach infinitely close to any state
 - typically implies a regularity condition: that small change in u result in small change in x

Key ingredients: steering method Steer (η_a, η_b)

- Structured models (assume controllability)
 - open-loop trajectory generation: exploit nonholonomy, flatness, symmetries, if possible
 - employ efficient closed-form local methods, e.g. polynomial boundary value solutions
- Complicated / Black box models:
 - only possible to sample control space
 - observe/simulate generated trajectories
 - must be *resolution complete*: i.e. reach infinitely close to any state
 - typically implies a regularity condition: that small change in u result in small change in x
- Steering using a finite set of primitives
 - primitives must be carefully chosen to satisfy controllability
 - in this case controllability is equivalent to resolution completeness

Key ingredients: collision checking $ObstacleFree(\bar{x}_{new})$

- ► ensure constraints c(t, x, u) ≤ 0 are satisfied
- often the free configuration space is difficult to compute
- easiest to use a black-box collision checking package
- simulate controls u(t) and check collision

Example: Proximity Query Package (PQP) http://gamma.cs.unc.edu/SSV/





PQP collision checking PQP distance and direction

Tree-based planners

Various tree-based planners are possible (LaValle, 2006)



It is critical to solve the boundary value (steering) problem (BVP)

- a) standard planning to a goal set X_G
- b) reaching a specific goal
- c) tree grown backwards from goal
- d) bidirectional tree: forward from start and backward from goal (=) = on

Key challenges in motion planning

- achieving efficiency even in high dimensions
- handling complicated constraints, e.g. narrow passages
- finding optimal not just feasible solutions
- hybrid and non-smooth systems
- distributed systems planning, parallel processing
- dealing with uncertainty
 - partially known system dynamics
 - unstructured dynamic uncertain environment
 - formal robustness guarantees
- holy grail: unifying planning, estimation, and control

< □ > < @ > < E > < E > < E > < E

Workspace Adaptivity in Sampling-based methods

- Complex planning problems can be addressed through adaptation
- Example: handling narrow passages



Constructing roadmaps adaptively



Roadmap Spanner

< ロ > < 同 > < 回 > < 回 >

- Toggle PRM: A Coordinated Mapping of C-free and C-obstacle in Arbitrary Dimension, Jory Denny, Nancy M. Amato, WAFR, 2012, Proceedings
- Marble J, Bekris KE. 2013. Asymptotically Near-Optimal Planning with Probabilistic Roadmap Spanners. IEEE Transactions on Robotics, 29(3)
- David Hsu, Tingting Jiang, John Reif, Zheng Sun, The Bridge Test for Sampling Narrow Passages with Probabilistic Roadmap Planners, ICRA, 2003
- many more: Kurniawati, Hsu; Ladd, Kavraki; Rickert, Brock, Knoll; etc...

From exploration to optimality

- Sampling-based methods are good at exploring the space to find "a path" but notoriously slow in converging to the "optimal" path.
- An important recent method: RRT* (Karaman, Frazzoli, 2011)
- Idea: rewire tree to maintain optimal cost-to-go
- Key result: only need to rewire by checking $\approx \log(n)$ neighbors
- Challenges: extend theory to complex dynamics; principled neighbor selection; CPU time?



The RRT* algorithm

Algorithm 3: $\mathcal{T} \leftarrow \operatorname{RRT}^*(\eta_0, \mathcal{X}_g)$

```
1 \mathcal{T} \leftarrow \text{InitializeTree}()
  2 \mathcal{T} \leftarrow \texttt{InsertNode}(\emptyset, \eta_0, \mathcal{T})
       for i = 1 : N do
                   \eta_{rand} \leftarrow Sample(i)
                   \eta_{\text{nearest}} \leftarrow \text{Nearest} (\mathcal{T}, \eta_{\text{rand}})
  5
                   (x_{\text{new}}, u_{\text{new}}, T_{\text{new}}) \leftarrow \text{Steer}(\eta_{\text{nearest}}, \eta_{\text{rand}})
  6
                   if ObstacleFree(xnew) then
  7
                              \mathcal{N}_{\text{near}} \leftarrow \text{Near}\left(\mathcal{T}, \eta_{\text{new}}, |V|\right)
  8
                              \eta_{\min} = \texttt{ChooseParent}(\mathcal{N}_{\texttt{near}}, \eta_{\texttt{nearest}}, x_{\texttt{new}})
  9
                              \mathcal{T} \leftarrow \texttt{InsertNode}(\eta_{\min}, \eta_{\mathsf{new}}, \mathcal{T})
10
                               \mathcal{T} \leftarrow \texttt{Rewire}\left(\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{N}_{\texttt{near}}, \eta_{\min}, \eta_{\mathsf{new}}\right)
11
```

(日)

12 return T

The RRT^{*} algorithm (cont.)

Algorithm 4: $\eta_{\min} \leftarrow$ ChooseParent($\mathcal{N}_{near}, \eta_{nearest}, x_{new}$)

10 return η_{min}

Algorithm 5: $\mathcal{T} \leftarrow \text{Rewire}(\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{N}_{\text{near}}, \eta_{\min}, x_{\text{new}})$

6 return ${\cal T}$

Towards optimal adaptive sampling

But still all these methods sample from the space of states: information about trajectory cost is not fully exploited

New method: Cross-entropy motion planning

- it is not necessary to sample everywhere uniformly
- adaptively sample nodes by exploiting cost information
- perform *density estimation* of low-cost regions in trajectory space
- "learn" regions in state space where "good" trajectories lie



Adaptive density discovers salient regions for obtaining samples

TCE Cross-entropy Planning

Algorithm Overview: Trajectory-Cross-Entropy (TCE) Motion Planning

- 0. Expand RRT/PRM and attempt to connect to goal region
- 1. Obtain all RRT/PRM trajectories $\{\pi_i\}_{i=1}^N$ reaching the goal
- 2. Construct parametrized trajectories $Z_i = \psi(\pi_i)$
- 3. Update p_Z using the elite subset of these parameters
- 4. Sample a trajectory $Z \sim p_Z$
- 5. Select one or more states $X = \varphi(Z, t)$ for a random t and add to RRT/PRM
- 6. Repeat from either (0) or (1) with some probability. Stop on a termination condition.



The density over trajectories $p_Z(Z)$ induces a density $p_X(X)$ over states:

$$p_{\mathcal{X}}(X) = \eta \cdot \max_{Z \in \mathcal{Z}_{\text{con}}} \{ p_{\mathcal{Z}}(Z) \mid X = \varphi_{X}(Z, t) \text{ for some } 0 < t < \tau(Z) \},$$
(6)

M. Kobilarov: Cross-Entropy Motion Planning, International Journal of Robotics Research, (2012)

SCE Cross-entropy Planning

Algorithm Overview: State-Cross-Entropy (SCE) Motion Planning

- 0. Expand RRT/PRM and attempt to connect to goal region
- 1. Obtain all RRT/PRM trajectories $\{\pi_i\}_{i=1}^N$ reaching the goal
- 2. Discretize each trajectory π_i into a set of states
- 3. Update $p_{\mathcal{X}}$ using the elite subset of all states of discretized trajectories
- 4. Sample a state $X \sim p_X$ and add to RRT/PRM
- 5. Repeat from either (0) or (1) with some probability. Stop on a termination condition.



SCE-RRT* with adaptive Gaussian Mixture Model sampling