

## Lecture 2: Motion Planning, Trajectory Optimization

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## 2.1 Motion Planning: Sampling Based Methods

The sampling based methods require:

- A collision checker: that checks if point in configuration space  $q$  collides with any obstacles  $C_{obs}$ :

$$\gamma(q) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } q \in C_{obs} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- A simple planner: that is fast, but not complete nor optimal.

$$B(q_1, q_2) = \begin{cases} A \text{ path from } q_1 \text{ to } q_2 \\ Failure \end{cases}$$

Sampling based methods are probabilistically complete. In the case we don't know the entire configuration space, we plan in horizon where we know the collision checker function.

### 2.1.1 Probabilistic Roadmaps (PRM)

In the PRM graph construction phase, random points are sampled from the configuration space, with only points lying in the free configuration space  $C_{free}$  kept. A local planner connects the sampled points to neighbors. A graph search algorithm attempts to find a path between start point  $q_s$  and end point  $q_g$  in the configuration space. The above steps are repeated until a path is found between  $q_s$  and  $q_g$ .

Algorithm:

```

Given  $q_s, q_g$ 
while  $q_s, q_g$  not in the same connected component do
  | Sample M points in configuration space
  | Remove points that collides with obstacles using collision checker  $\gamma$ 
  | Connect new points to existing points using fast planner B
end

```

### 2.1.2 Rapidly-exploring Random Trees (RRT)

Rapidly exploring random trees algorithm is similar to Probabilistic Roadmap, except that it only samples one point in  $C_{free}$  at a time. The sampling is done with bias toward area not yet sampled in the space. The sampled point is then connected to connected groups  $C_s$  or  $C_g$  using simple planner. Initially  $C_g =$

$q_g, C_s = q_s$ . One variant of RRT algorithm, Bi-directional RRT, attempts to build tree from both start and end of the configuration space. RRT is fast and scalable, but is not optimal given sampled nodes.

Algorithm:

```

 $C_g = q_g$ 
 $C_s = q_s$ 
while  $q_s, q_g$  not in the same connected component do
  | Sample one point in  $C_{free}$  space
  | Connect point to closest point in  $C_g$  or  $C_s$  using simple planner
end

```

### 2.1.3 Rapidly-exploring Random Trees Star (RRT\*)

RRT\* is the same as vanilla RRT, except that it include post-processing step after each iteration:

- Parent selection (figure 2.1): examine neighboring nodes (in radius according to some hyper parameter), if becomes parent, would result in shorter path
- Rewiring (figure 2.2): drop existing edge, if going through new node results in shorter path

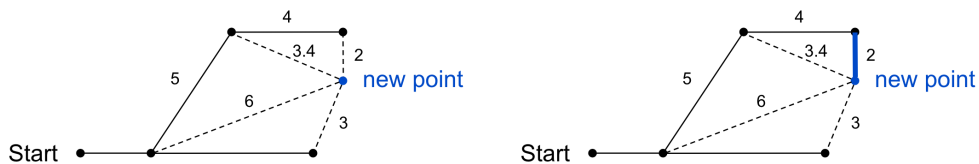


Figure 2.1: Parent selection step

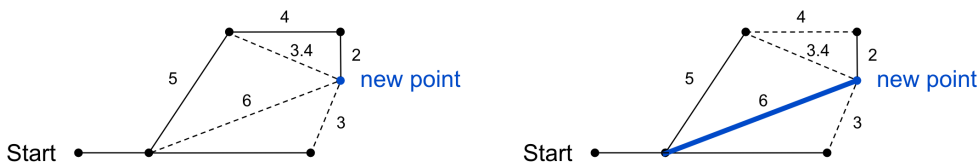


Figure 2.2: Rewiring step

RRT\* is optimal given sample nodes.

Algorithm:

```

 $C_g = q_g$ 
 $C_s = q_s$ 
while  $q_s, q_g$  not in the same connected component do
  | Sample one point in  $C_{free}$  space
  | Connect point to closest point in  $C_g$  or  $C_s$  using simple planner
  | Parent selection
  | Rewiring
end

```

## 2.2 Trajectory Optimization

**Trajectory** is a function which maps time to C-space configurations

$$\zeta : [0, T] \rightarrow \mathcal{C}, \zeta \in \Xi,$$

where  $\Xi$  is a set of all possible trajectories.

To distinguish different trajectories, we further define a cost functional  $\mathcal{U}$  that maps any trajectory to a non-negative value:

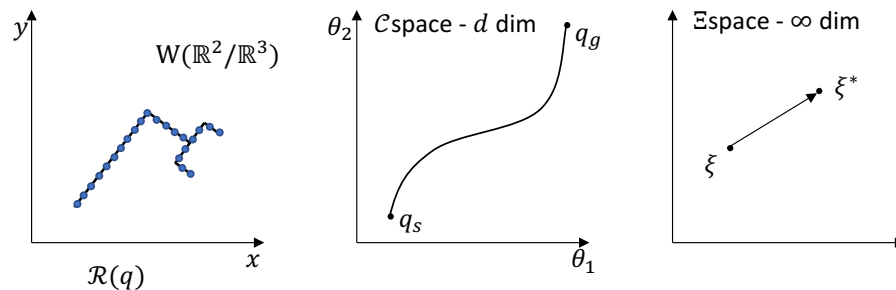
$$\mathcal{U} : \Xi \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$$

Our goal is to optimize  $\mathcal{U}$ .

Some example factors to consider when constructing the cost functionals are:

- path length
- efficiency
- obstacle avoidance
- uncertainty reduction
- predictability
- legibility/ intent expression
- human comfort
- naturalness

To better understand the trajectory optimization problem, let's take a look at the worlds where the robot, the robot's configuration and the trajectory live in. The robot configuration  $q$ , is a point in  $\mathcal{C}$ -space with dimension  $d$ , where  $d$  is the degree of freedom of the robot.  $R(q)$  maps the configuration of a robot to a set of points where the robot occupies in the world space (typically  $\mathbb{R}^2$  or  $\mathbb{R}^3$ ). A trajectory,  $\zeta$ , is a timed path in robot's configuration space.  $\Xi$  is a space of trajectory functions and thus is  $\infty$ -dimensional.



**Trajectory Optimization** is the process of finding an optimal trajectory  $\zeta^*$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \zeta^* &= \arg \min_{\zeta \in \Xi} \mathcal{U}[\zeta] \\ \text{s.t. } \zeta(0) &= q_s \\ \zeta(T) &= q_g \end{aligned}$$

One method to solve this trajectory optimization problem is Gradient Descent:

$$\zeta_{i+1} \leftarrow \zeta_i - \frac{1}{\alpha} \nabla_{\zeta} \mathcal{U}(\zeta_i)$$

To get an intuition why this works, consider we have a trajectory  $\zeta_i$  and want to minimize  $\mathcal{U}[\zeta]$ :

$$\zeta_{i+1} = \arg \min_{\zeta \in \Xi} \{ \mathcal{U}[\zeta_i] + \nabla_{\zeta_i} \mathcal{U}^T (\zeta - \zeta_i) + \frac{1}{2} \alpha \|\zeta - \zeta_i\|^2 \}$$

The first two terms approximate  $\mathcal{U}[\zeta]$  by first order Taylor expansion, and the third term penalizes if  $\zeta$  is far away from  $\zeta_i$ . Since the right-hand side is a convex function, we take the gradient of the right-hand side and set it to zero

$$0 + \nabla_{\zeta_i} \mathcal{U} + \alpha(\zeta - \zeta_i) = 0$$

Solve the above equation, we get

$$\zeta = \zeta_i - \frac{1}{\alpha} \nabla_{\zeta} \mathcal{U}(\zeta_i),$$

which is the same equation as Gradient Descent.

### Calculus Review:

In trajectory optimization, we care about vector calculus and multivariable calculus because the trajectory and the cost can be represented as vector valued function and multivariable functions respectively.

$$\begin{aligned} \zeta : [0, T] &\longrightarrow \mathcal{C} \\ \zeta(t) = q &= \begin{bmatrix} q_1(t) \\ \vdots \\ q_d(t) \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

where  $d$  is the dimension of the configuration space  $\mathcal{C}$ .  $\zeta$  is represented as a vector valued function. If we discretize time we can also write:

$$\zeta = \begin{bmatrix} q_1 \\ \vdots \\ q_N \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $N$  is the number of time steps. Then  $\mathcal{U}(\zeta) = \mathcal{U}(q_1, \dots, q_N)$ , it is a multivariable function.

**Note:** If the time is not discretized,  $\mathcal{U}$  is a different object called a functional ("function of functions").

### Derivatives and Gradients:

For single variable functions  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  the derivative is defined as follows:

$$f'(x) = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \epsilon) - f(x)}{\epsilon}$$

### Example:

$$f(x) = 2x$$

$$f'(x) = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{2(x + \epsilon) - 2x}{\epsilon} = 2$$

If  $f$  is a multivariable function:  $f(x_1, \dots, x_n) : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , we define the partial derivatives with respect to each variable  $x_i$  to be:

$$\frac{\partial f(x_1, \dots, x_n)}{\partial x_i} = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_1, \dots, x_i + \epsilon, \dots, x_n) - f(x_1, \dots, x_n)}{\epsilon}$$

The gradient of  $f$  is then given by  $\nabla_{x_1, \dots, x_n} f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$

**Example:**

$$f(x, y) = 2x + y + xy$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 2 + y, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 1 + x$$

$$\nabla_{x,y} f = \begin{bmatrix} 2 + y \\ 1 + x \end{bmatrix}$$

For vector valued function  $f : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}^n$ , the derivative is just the derivative of the components:

$$f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} f_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ f_n(x) \end{bmatrix} \quad f'(x) = \begin{bmatrix} f'_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ f'_n(x) \end{bmatrix}$$

When a function is multivariable and vector valued:  $f : \mathcal{R}^n \rightarrow \mathcal{R}^m$  we define the Jacobian (of size  $m \times n$ ):

$$\frac{df}{d(x_1, \dots, x_n)} = J = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

**Note:** For linear functions  $f$  such that  $f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = Ax$  where  $x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$  Then  $A$  is the jacobian of  $f$  evaluated at  $x$ .

**Example:**

$$f(x, y) = \begin{bmatrix} 2x + y \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$J = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Hilbert Space:**

The space  $\Xi$  of all the trajectories is a Hilbert Space. It is a complete vector space with an inner product defined over it. The inner product can be euclidean:

$$\zeta_1, \zeta_2 \in \Xi, \quad \langle \zeta_1, \zeta_2 \rangle = \int_0^T \zeta_1(t)^\top \zeta_2(t) dt$$

An inner product verifies the following properties:

- Symmetry:  $\langle \zeta_1, \zeta_2 \rangle = \langle \zeta_2, \zeta_1 \rangle$

- Linearity:

$$\langle \zeta_1 + \zeta_2, \zeta_3 \rangle = \langle \zeta_1, \zeta_3 \rangle + \langle \zeta_2, \zeta_3 \rangle$$

$$\langle a\zeta_1, \zeta_2 \rangle = a\langle \zeta_1, \zeta_2 \rangle \text{ where } a \in \mathbb{R}$$

- Positive Definite:

$$\forall \zeta \langle \zeta, \zeta \rangle \geq 0 \tag{2.1}$$

$$\langle \zeta, \zeta \rangle = 0 \text{ if and only if } \zeta = 0 \tag{2.2}$$