

# ECE276B: Planning & Learning in Robotics

## Lecture 6: Configuration Space

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# Outline

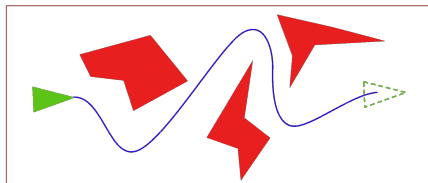
Motion Planning

Configuration Space

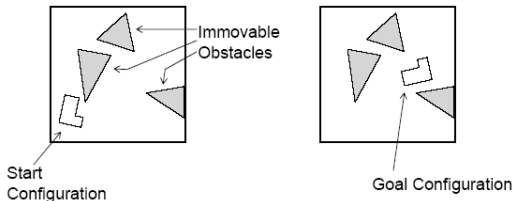
Graph Construction for Motion Planning

# Motion Planning

- ▶ **Motion planning** is a deterministic shortest path (DSP) problem with continuous state space (infinite number of nodes) and state constraints (missing edges) introduced by obstacles

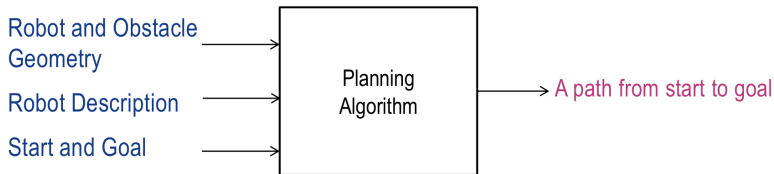


- ▶ The problem is also known as the **Piano Movers Problem**

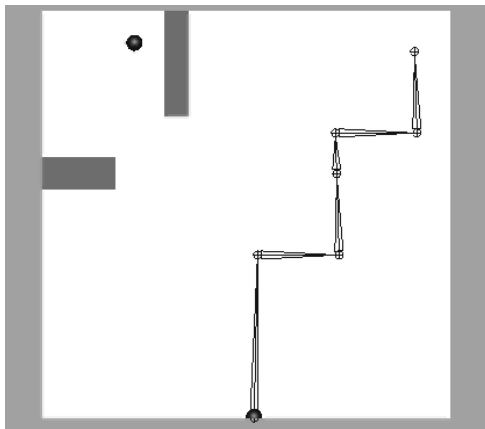


# Motion Planning

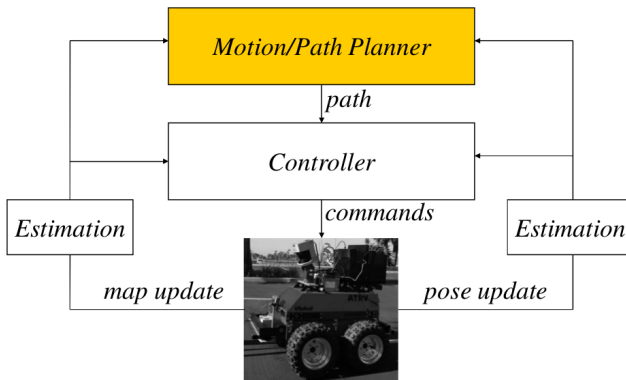
- ▶ Objective: find a feasible and cost-minimal path from an initial state to a goal region
- ▶ Cost function: distance, time, energy, risk, etc.
- ▶ Constraints:
  - ▶ environment constraints (e.g., obstacles)
  - ▶ kinematics/dynamics of the robot



## Example: Six-Joint Robot Arm



# Planning vs Control



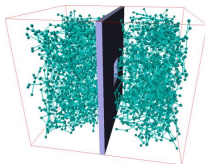
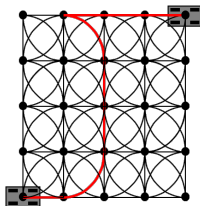
- ▶ Distinction between planning and control
  - ▶ **Planning:** automatic generation of global collision-free trajectories (global reasoning)
  - ▶ **Control:** automatic generation of control inputs for local reactive trajectory tracking (local reasoning)

# Analyzing Motion Planning Algorithms

- ▶ **Completeness:** a planning algorithm is called complete if it:
  - ▶ returns a feasible solution, if one exists,
  - ▶ returns FAIL in finite time, otherwise.
- ▶ **Optimality:**
  - ▶ a planning algorithm is optimal if it returns a path with shortest length  $J^*$  among all possible paths from start to goal
  - ▶ a planning algorithm is  $\epsilon$ -**suboptimal** if it returns a path with length  $J \leq \epsilon J^*$  for  $\epsilon \geq 1$  where  $J^*$  is the optimal length
- ▶ **Efficiency:** a planning algorithm is efficient if it finds a solution with the least possible computation operations across all inputs
- ▶ **Generality:** a planning algorithm is general if it can handle high-dimensional robots or environments and various obstacle or kinematic/dynamic constraints

# Motion Planning Approaches

- ▶ **Exact algorithms** in continuous space
  - ▶ Computationally expensive and unsuitable for high-dimensional spaces
- ▶ **Search-based planning algorithms**
  - ▶ discretize the state space into a regular grid
  - ▶ construct a graph incrementally
  - ▶ solve a DSP problem via label correcting
  - ▶ inefficient in high-dim spaces without heuristic function guidance due to the regular discretization
  - ▶ resolution complete with finite-time (sub)optimality guarantees
- ▶ **Sampling-based planning algorithms**
  - ▶ discretize the state space irregularly by sampling states
  - ▶ construct a graph incrementally
  - ▶ solve a DSP problem via label correcting
  - ▶ efficient in high-dim spaces but problems with “narrow passages”
  - ▶ probabilistically complete with asymptotic (sub)optimality guarantees





# Outline

Motion Planning

Configuration Space

Graph Construction for Motion Planning

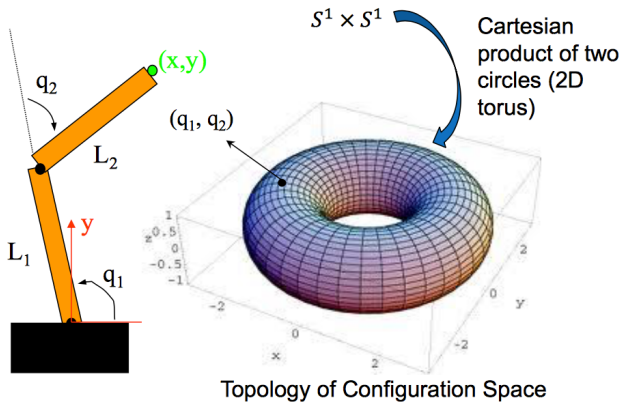
# Configuration Space

- ▶ A **configuration** is a specification of the position of **every** point on a robot body
- ▶ A configuration  $\mathbf{q}$  is expressed as a vector of the degrees of freedom (DOF) of the robot:

$$\mathbf{q} = (q_1, \dots, q_n)$$

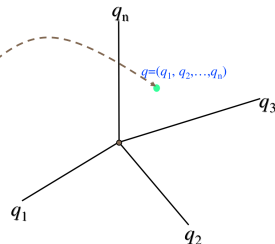
- ▶ 3 DOF: differential drive robot  $(x, y, \theta) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \times [-\pi, \pi)$
  - ▶ 6 DOF: rigid body with pose  $T \in SE(3)$
  - ▶ 7 DOF: 7-link manipulator (humanoid arm):  $(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_7) \in [-\pi, \pi)^7$
- ▶ **Configuration space**  $C$ : set of all possible robot configurations
- ▶  $\dim(C)$ : min DOF needed to completely specify a robot configuration
- ▶ **Work space**  $W$ : 2D or 3D Euclidean space where the robot operates

## Example: C-Space of a Two Link Manipulator



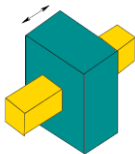
# Degrees of Freedom for Robots with Joints

- ▶ An **articulated object** is a set of rigid bodies connected by joints.
- ▶ Examples of articulated robots: arms, humanoids



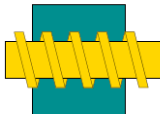
Revolute

1 Degree of Freedom



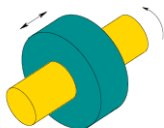
Prismatic

1 Degree of Freedom



Screw

1 Degree of Freedom



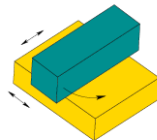
Cylindrical

2 Degrees of Freedom



Spherical

3 Degrees of Freedom

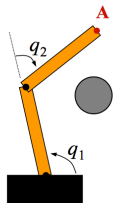
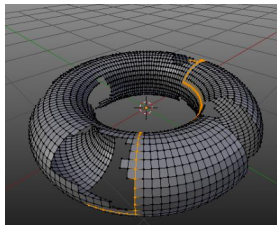


Planar

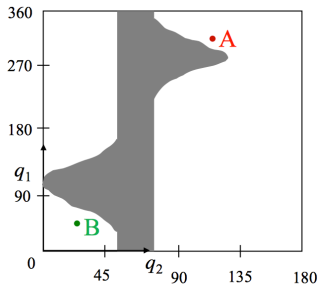
3 Degrees of Freedom

# Obstacles in C-Space

- ▶ A configuration  $\mathbf{q} \in C$  is collision-free, or **free**, if the robot placed at  $\mathbf{q}$  does not intersect any obstacles in the work space  $W$
- ▶ The **free space**  $C_{free} \subseteq C$  is the set of all free configurations
- ▶ The **obstacle space**  $C_{obs} \subseteq C$  is the set of all configurations in which the robot collides either with an obstacle or with itself (self-collision)



B

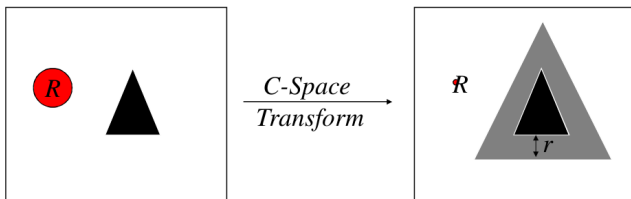


An obstacle in the robot's workspace

The C-space representation

## How do we compute $C_{obs}$ ?

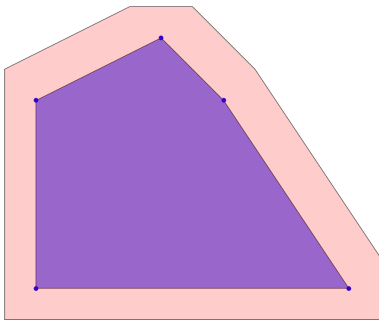
- ▶ **Input:** polygonal robot body  $R$  and polygonal obstacle  $O$  in environment
- ▶ **Output:** polygonal obstacle  $CO$  in configuration space
- ▶ **Assumption:** the robot translates only
- ▶ **Idea:**
  - ▶ Circular robot: expand all obstacles by the radius of the robot
  - ▶ Symmetric robot: Minkowski (set) sum
  - ▶ Asymmetric robot: Minkowski (set) difference



## $C_{obs}$ for Symmetric Robots

- The obstacle  $CO$  in C-Space is obtained via the **Minkowski sum** of the obstacle set  $O$  and the robot set  $R$ :

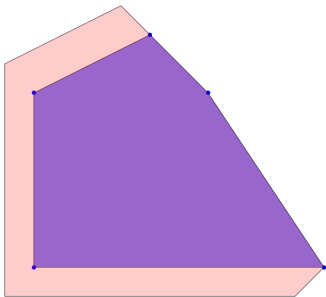
$$CO = O \oplus R := \{a + b \mid a \in O, b \in R\}$$



## $C_{obs}$ for Asymmetric Robots

- When the robot is not symmetric about the origin, we need to flip the robot set  $R$  before adding it to the obstacle set  $O$ :

$$CO = O \oplus (-R) = \{a - b \mid a \in O, b \in R\}$$

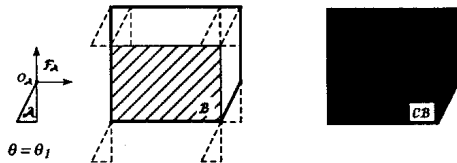




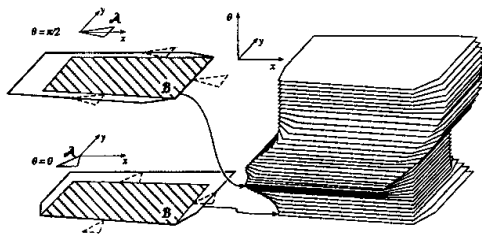
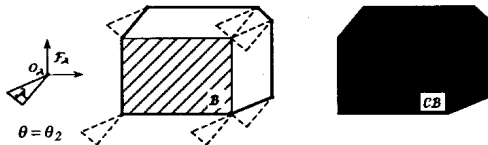
# Properties of $C_{obs}$

- ▶ Properties of  $C_{obs}$ 
  - ▶ If  $O$  and  $R$  are **convex**, then  $C_{obs}$  is **convex**
  - ▶ If  $O$  and  $R$  are **closed**, then  $C_{obs}$  is **closed**
  - ▶ If  $O$  and  $R$  are **compact**, then  $C_{obs}$  is **compact**
  - ▶ If  $O$  and  $R$  are **algebraic**, then  $C_{obs}$  is **algebraic**
  - ▶ If  $O$  and  $R$  are **connected**, then  $C_{obs}$  is **connected**
- ▶ After a C-Space transform, planning can be done for a point robot
  - ▶ **Advantage**: collision checking for a point robot is very efficient
  - ▶ **Disadvantage**: need to transform the obstacles every time the map is updated (e.g.,  $O(n)$  methods exist to compute distance transforms for circular robots)
  - ▶ **Disadvantage**: expensive to compute in higher dimensions
  - ▶ **Alternative**: plan in the original space and only check configurations of interest for collisions

# Minkowski Sums in Higher Dimensions

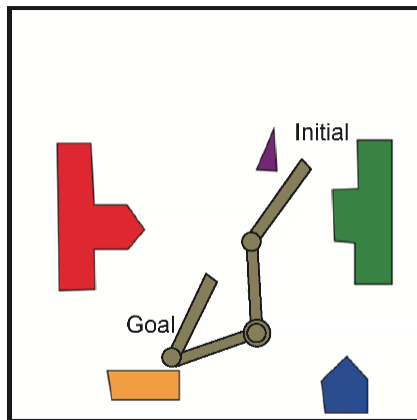


- The configuration space for a rigid non-circular robot in a 2D world is 3 dimensional (2D position + orientation)

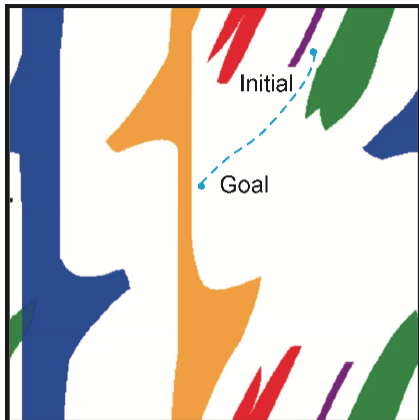


## Configuration Space for Articulated Robots

- ▶ The configuration space for a  $N$ -DOF robot arm is  $N$ -dimensional
- ▶ Computing exact C-Space obstacles becomes complicated



Workspace



Configuration space

Interactive visualization: <https://robotics.cs.unc.edu/C-space/>

# Outline

Motion Planning

Configuration Space

Graph Construction for Motion Planning

# Motion Planning as Graph Search Problem

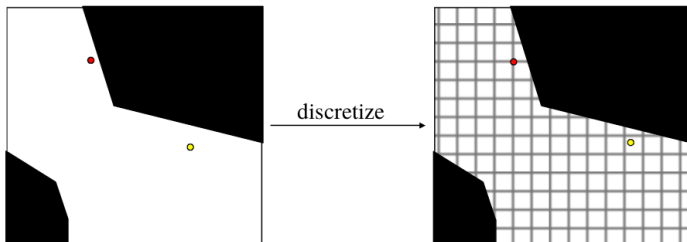
- ▶ Motion planning as a deterministic shortest path problem on a graph:
  1. Decide:
    - a) pre-compute the C-Space (e.g., inflate the obstacles with the robot radius)
    - b) perform collision checking on the fly
  2. Construct a graph representing the planning problem
  3. Search the graph for a (close-to) optimal path
- ▶ Often collision checking, graph construction, and planning are all interleaved and performed on the fly

# Graph Construction Methods

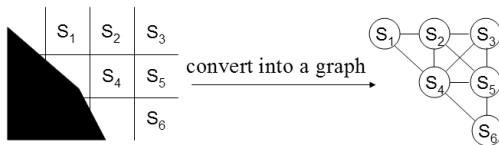
- ▶ **Cell decomposition:** decompose the free space into simple cells and represent its connectivity by the adjacency graph of these cells
  - ▶ X-connected grids
  - ▶ Tree decompositions
  - ▶ Lattice-based graphs
- ▶ **Skeletonization:** represent the connectivity of free space by a network of 1-D curves:
  - ▶ Visibility graphs
  - ▶ Generalized Voronoi diagrams
  - ▶ Other Roadmaps

# X-Connected Grid

1. Overlay a uniform grid over the C-space

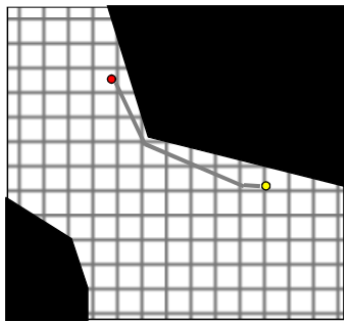
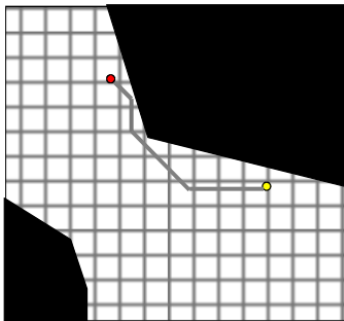


2. Convert the grid into a graph:



# X-Connected Grid

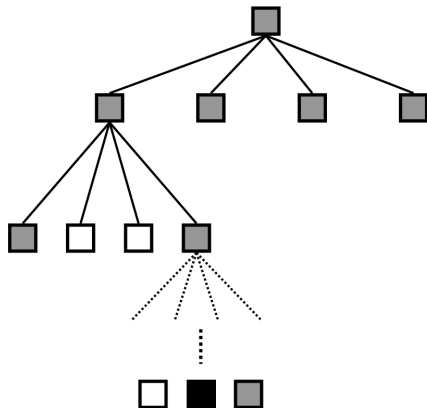
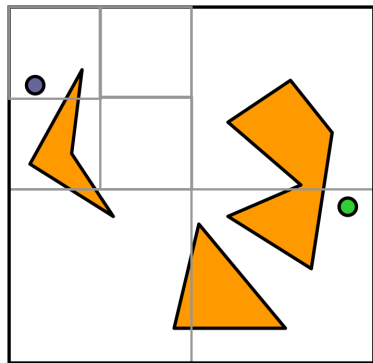
- ▶ How many neighbors?
  - ▶ 8-connected grid: paths restricted to  $45^\circ$  turns
  - ▶ 16-connected grid: paths restricted to  $22.5^\circ$  turns
  - ▶ 3-D  $(x, y, \theta)$  discretization of  $SE(2)$



- ▶ Problems:
  1. What should we do with partially blocked cells?
  2. Discretization leads to a very dense graph in high dimensions and many of the transitions are difficult to execute due to dynamics constraints



# Adaptive Quadtree Decomposition

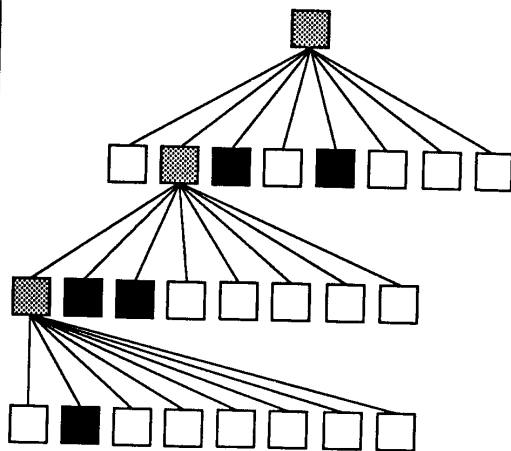
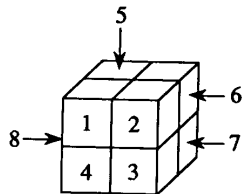
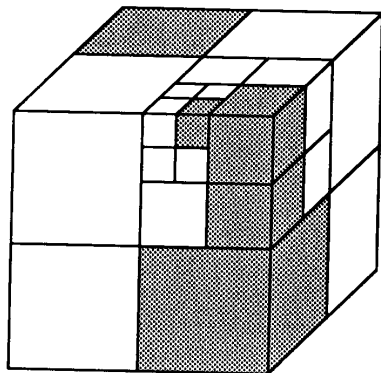


 empty

 mixed

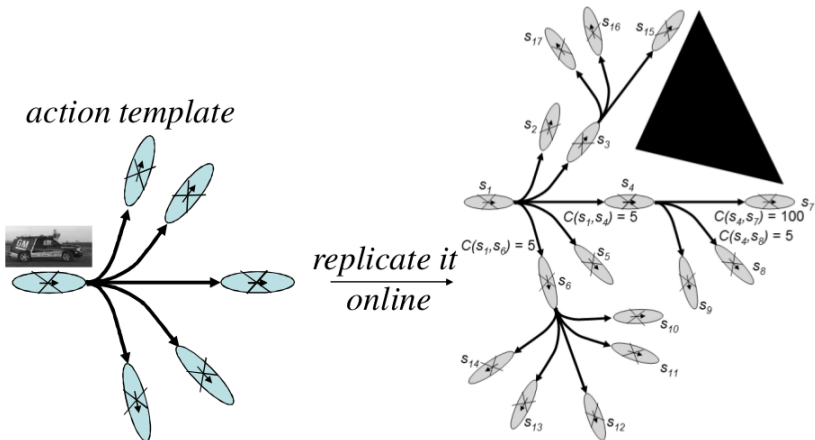
 full

# Adaptive Octree Decomposition



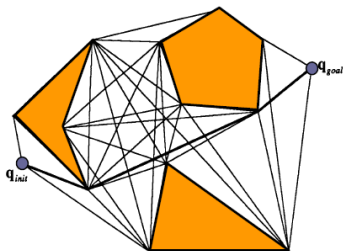
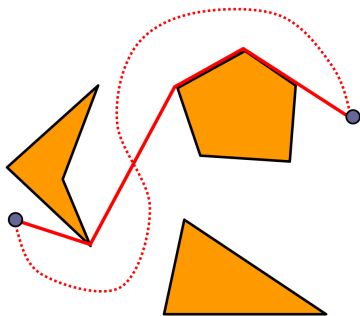
## Lattice-Based Graph

- ▶ Instead of dense discretization, construct a graph by a recursive application of a finite set of dynamically feasible motions (e.g., action template, motion primitive, movement primitive, macro action, etc.)
- ▶ **Pros:** sparse graph, feasible paths
- ▶ **Cons:** possibly incomplete



# Visibility Graph

- ▶ Visibility graphs introduced in Shakey Project, SRI [Nilsson, 1969]
- ▶ Also called **shortest path roadmap**
- ▶ **Shortest paths are like rubber-bands:** if there is a collision-free path between two points, then there is a piecewise linear path that bends only at the obstacle vertices
- ▶ **Visibility graph:**
  - ▶ **Nodes:** start, goal, and all obstacle vertices
  - ▶ **Edges:** between any two vertices that “see” each other, i.e., the edge does not intersect obstacles or is an obstacle edge



# Visibility Graph Construction

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**Algorithm** Visibility Graph Construction

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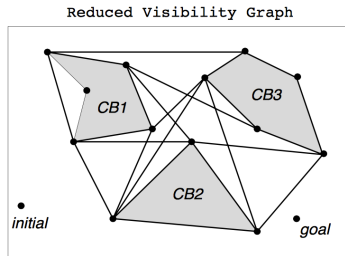
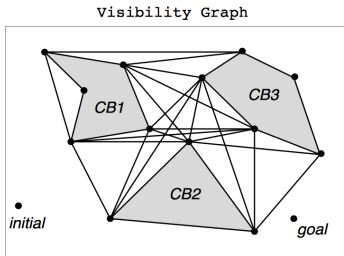
```
1: Input:  $\mathbf{q}_I, \mathbf{q}_G$ , polygonal obstacle vertices  $\mathcal{P}$ 
2: Output: visibility graph  $G$ 
3: for every pair of vertices  $u, v$  in  $\mathcal{P} \cup \{\mathbf{q}_I, \mathbf{q}_G\}$  do                                 $\triangleright O(n^2)$ 
4:   if segment( $u, v$ ) is an obstacle edge then                                        $\triangleright O(n)$ 
5:     insert edge( $u, v$ ) into  $G$ 
6:   else
7:     for every obstacle edge  $e$  do                                                 $\triangleright O(n)$ 
8:       if segment( $u, v$ ) intersects  $e$  then
9:         break and go to line 3
10:    insert edge( $u, v$ ) into  $G$ 
```

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- ▶ **Time complexity:**  $O(n^3)$  but can be reduced to  $O(n^2 \log n)$  with rotational sweep or even to  $O(n^2)$  with an optimal algorithm
- ▶ **Space complexity:**  $O(n^2)$

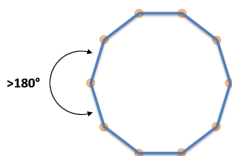
## Reduced Visibility Graph

- ▶ Not all edges are needed
- ▶ **Reduced visibility graph** – keep only edges between consecutive **reflex vertices** and **bitangents**
- ▶ A vertex of a polygonal obstacle is **reflex** if the exterior angle (computed in  $C_{free}$ ) is larger than  $\pi$
- ▶ A **bitangent edge** must touch two **reflex vertices** that are mutually visible from each other, and the line must extend outward past each of them without poking into  $C_{obs}$

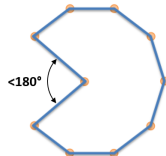


## Reflex Vertices and Bitangents

- ▶ A vertex of a polygonal obstacle is **reflex** if the exterior angle (computed in  $C_{free}$ ) is larger than  $\pi$

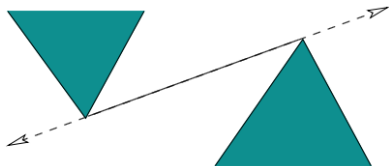


(a) 10 reflex vertices



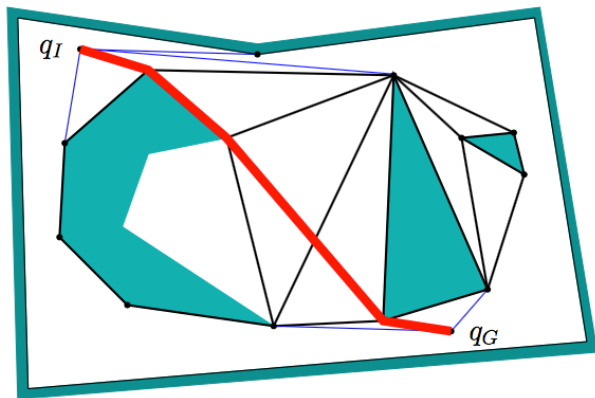
(b) 9 reflex vertices

- ▶ A **bitangent edge** must touch two **reflex vertices** that are mutually visible from each other, and the line must extend outward past each of them without poking into  $C_{obs}$



## Reduced Visibility Graph

- ▶ Reduced visibility graph: includes edges between consecutive reflex vertices on  $C_{obs}$  and bitangent edges
- ▶ The shortest path in a reduced visibility graph is the shortest path between start  $q_I$  and goal  $q_G$





# Reduced Visibility Graph

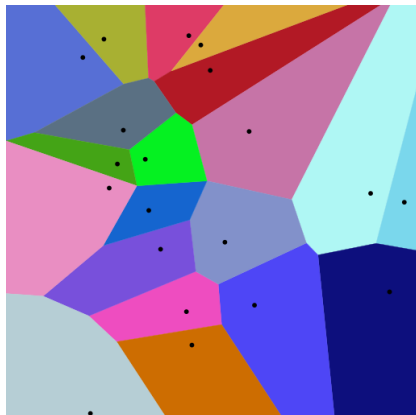
- ▶ What do we need to construct a reduced visibility graph?
  - ▶ Subroutine to check if a vertex is reflex
  - ▶ Subroutine to check if two vertices are visible
  - ▶ Subroutine to check if there exists a bitangent
- ▶ Pros:
  - ▶ independent of the size of the environment
  - ▶ can make multiple shortest path queries for the same graph, i.e., the environment remains the same but the start and goal change
- ▶ Cons:
  - ▶ shortest paths always graze the obstacles
  - ▶ hard to deal with a non-uniform cost function
  - ▶ hard to deal with non-polygonal obstacles
  - ▶ can get expensive in high dimensions with a lot of obstacles

# Voronoi Diagram

- ▶ Suppose there are  $n$  point obstacles  $\mathbf{o}_k$  for  $k = 1, \dots, n$
- ▶ **Voronoi diagram:** a collection of Voronoi cells  $V_k$  for  $k = 1, \dots, n$
- ▶ **Voronoi cell of  $\mathbf{o}_k$ :** a set  $V_k$  of points  $\mathbf{x}$  such that:

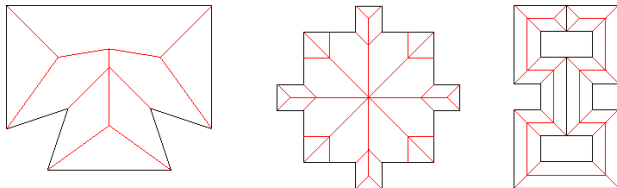
$$d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{o}_k) \leq d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{o}_j), \text{ for all } j \neq k$$

- ▶ Example: the points may represent fire stations and the Voronoi cells specify their serving areas

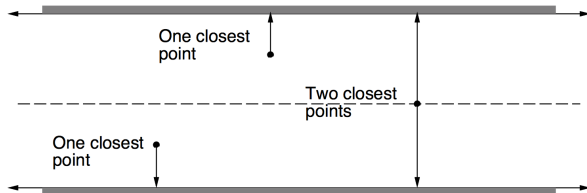


## Maximum Clearance Roadmap

- ▶ Maximize clearance instead of minimizing travel distance
- ▶ Maintains a set of points that are equidistant to two nearest obstacles



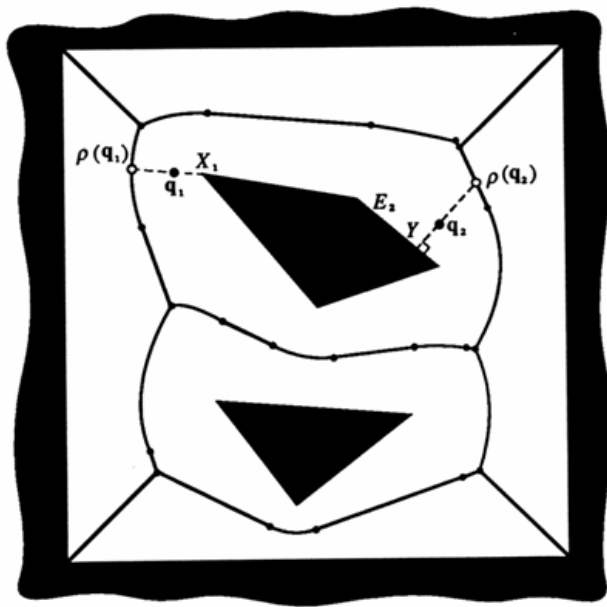
- ▶ Suppose we have just two line obstacles. What is the set of points that keeps the robots as far away from the obstacles as possible?



# Maximum Clearance Roadmap

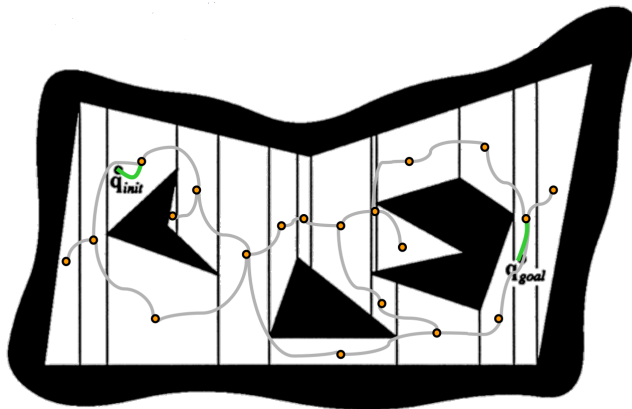
- ▶ Construction:
  - ▶ Naive implementation: take every pair of obstacle features, compute locus of equally spaced points, and take the intersection
  - ▶ Efficient algorithms available, e.g., CGAL, distance transform + skeletonization (e.g., Zhang-Suen or Guo-Hall algorithms)
- ▶ Motion Planning:
  - ▶ Add a shortest path from start to the nearest segment of the diagram
  - ▶ Add a shortest path from goal to the nearest segment of the diagram
- ▶ Complexity:
  - ▶ Time complexity for  $n$  points in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ :  $O(n \log n + n^{\lceil d/2 \rceil})$
  - ▶ Space complexity:  $O(n)$
- ▶ Pros:
  - ▶ paths tend to stay away from obstacles
  - ▶ independent of the size of the environment
- ▶ Cons:
  - ▶ difficult to construct in higher dimensions
  - ▶ can result in highly suboptimal paths

## Maximum Clearance Roadmap



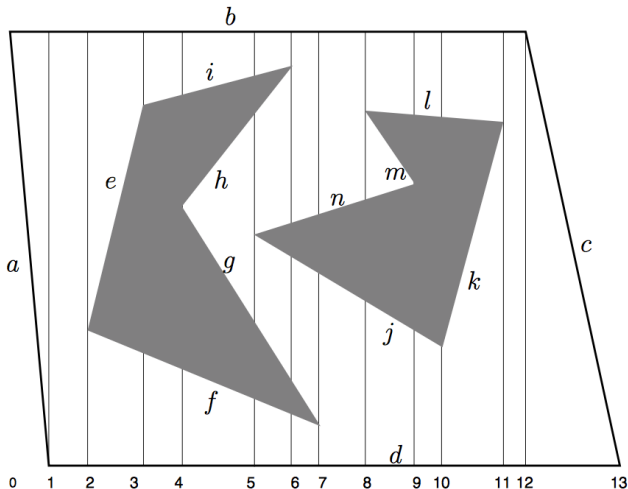
# Trapezoidal Decomposition

- ▶ The free space  $C_{free}$  is represented by a collection of non-overlapping trapezoids whose union is exactly  $C_{free}$
- ▶ Draw a vertical line from every vertex until you hit an obstacle
  - ▶ **Nodes:** trapezoid centroids and line midpoints
  - ▶ **Edges:** between every pair of nodes whose cells are adjacent

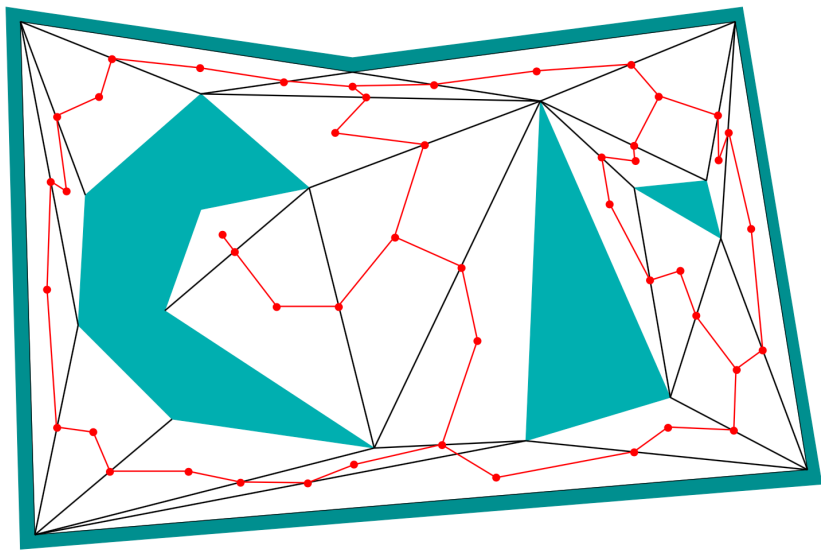


## Cylindrical Decomposition

- ▶ Similar to trapezoidal decomposition, except the vertical lines continue after obstacles
- ▶ Generalizes better to high dimensions and complex configuration spaces



## Triangular Decomposition

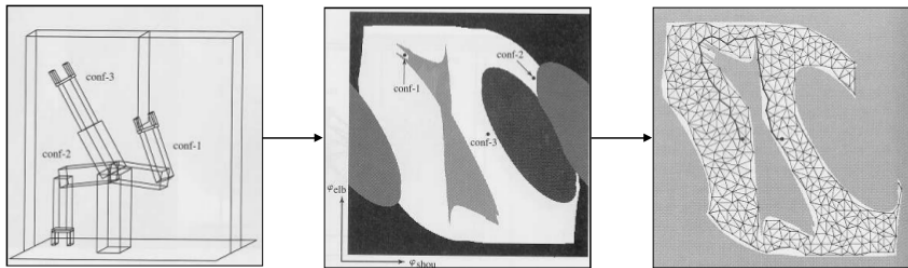




# Probabilistic Roadmap

## ► Construction:

- Randomly sample valid configurations
- Add edges between samples that are easy to connect with a simple local controller (e.g., straight line controller)
- Add start and goal configurations to the graph with appropriate edges



## ► Pros and Cons:

- Simple and highly effective in high dimensions
- Can result in suboptimal paths, no guarantees on suboptimality
- Difficulty with narrow passages