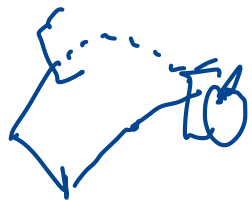


PRM

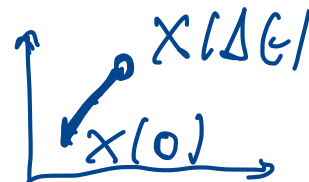
RRT

Overview of Motion Planning

- **Motion planning** is the problem of finding a robot motion from start state to a goal state that avoids obstacles in the environment
- Recall the **configuration space or C-space**: every point in the C-space $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ corresponds to a unique configuration q of the robot
 - E.g., configuration of a robot arm is $q = (\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_n)$
- The **free C-space** $\mathcal{C}_{\text{free}}$ consists of the configurations where the robot neither collides with obstacles nor violates constraints

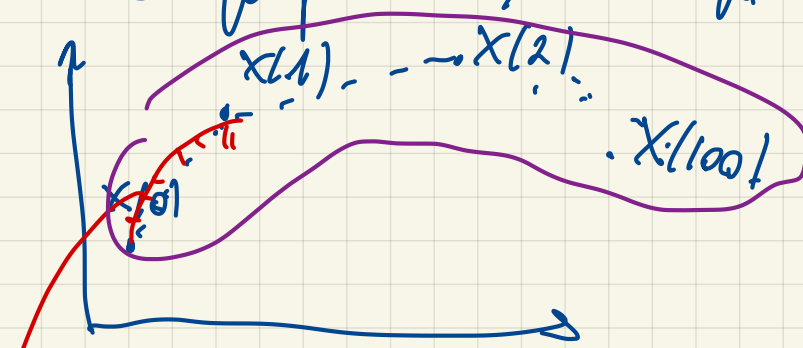


trajectory generation
IK.



$T(t) \rightarrow \theta(t)$
 $T(t+1)$
 $x(1) = x_0 \exp[\int_0^1 \dot{x}_0 x_1]$

Configuration / Workspace



trajectory generation



1k. over 10 points

Motion planning

- obstacles
- geometry of robot
- (dynamic)

Motion Planning

not dealing with
control here

Given an initial state $x(0) = x_{start}$ and a desired final state x_{goal} , find a time T and a set of controls $u: [0, T] \rightarrow \mathcal{U}$ such that the motion satisfies $x(T) = x_{goal}$ and $q(x(t)) \in \mathcal{C}_{free}$ for all $t \in [0, T]$

Assumptions:

1. A feedback controller can ensure that the planned motion is followed closely
2. An accurate model of the robot and environment will evaluate $\mathcal{C}_{free}$ during motion planning

Properties of Motion Planners

- **Multiple-query versus single-query planning** *
- **"Anytime" planning**
 - Continues to look for better solutions after first solution is found

- **Computational complexity**

- Characterization of the amount of time a planner takes to run or the amount of memory it requires

↳ amount of memory & computation needed.

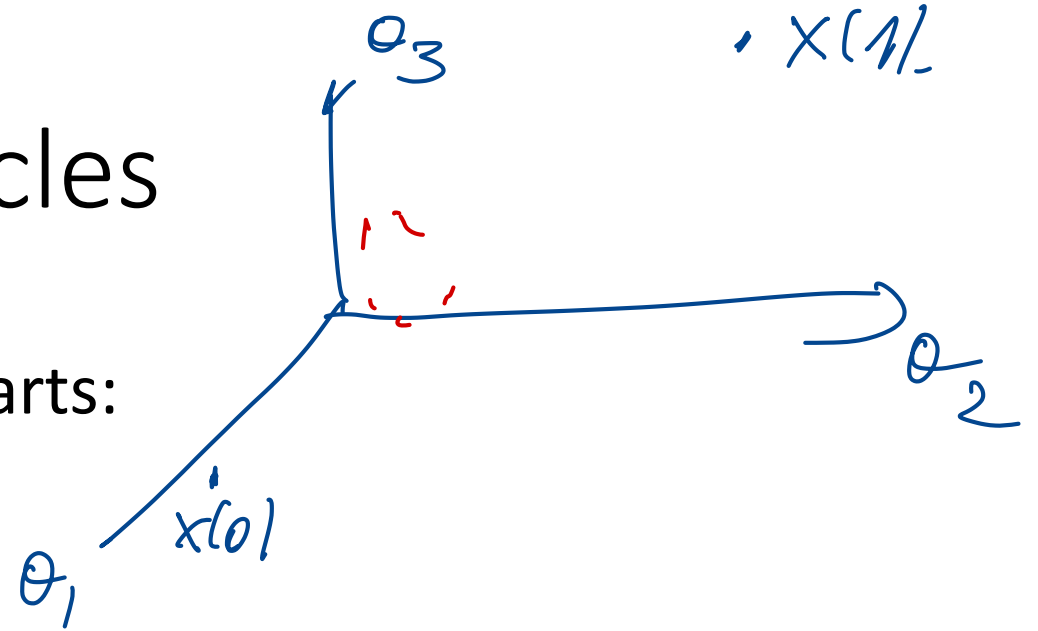
{ optimal [problem dependent] solution
vs a solution *

∴ limited data
+ get a solution fast
[self driving]

∴ get optimal solutions
[planner is expensive
time]

Configuration Space Obstacles

- We want to partition our C-space into parts:



obstacles in workspace

- If obstacles break C_{free} into separate components and q_0 and q_1 are not in the same connected components, then there is no collision free path

part I: transfer

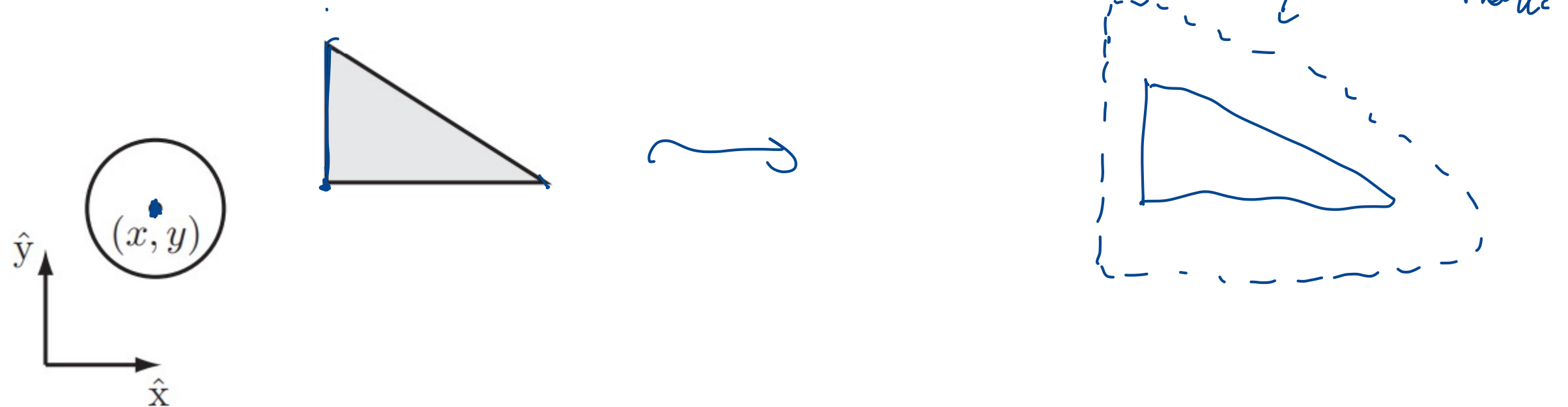
1. geometry of robot

2. obstacles in workspace

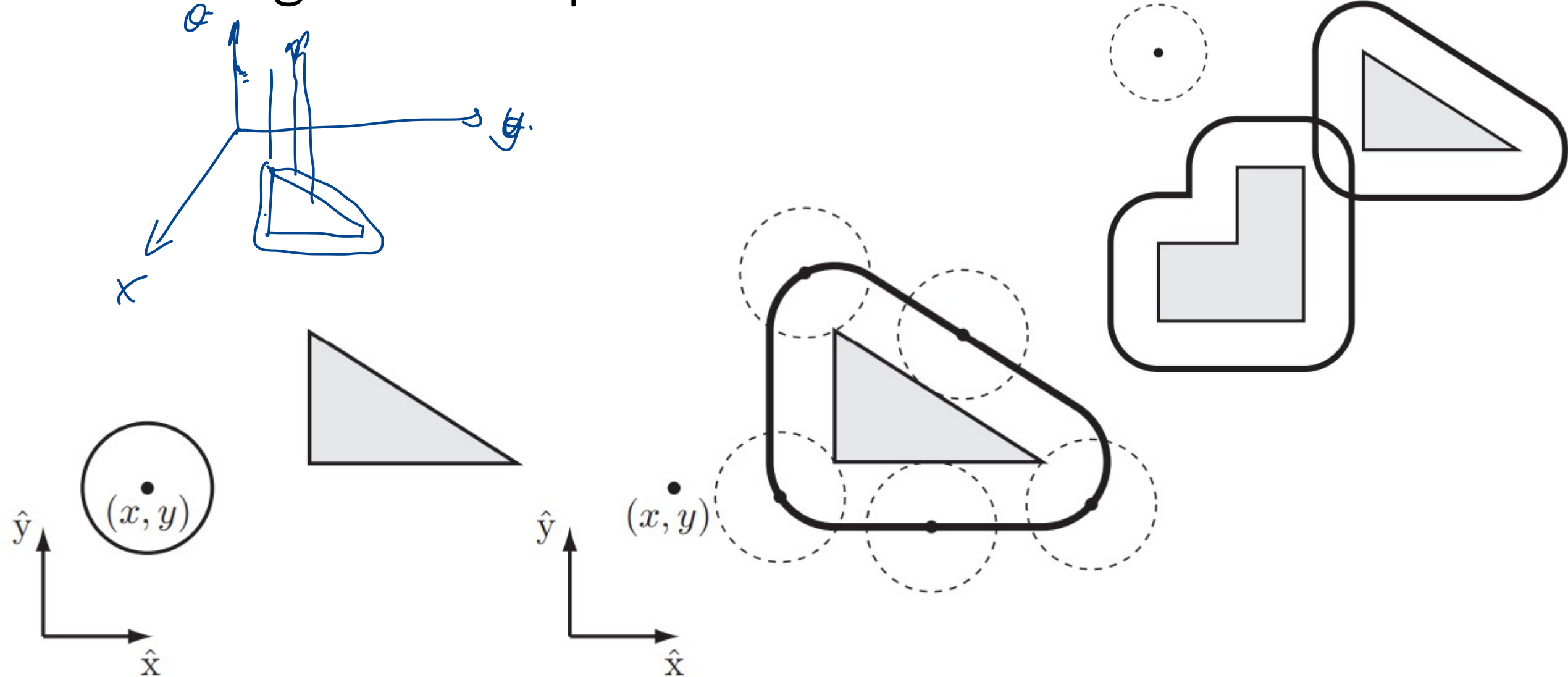
ie configuration space.

Configuration Space: Circular Mobile Bot

[geometry of robot $\rightsquigarrow$ obstacles in workspace]



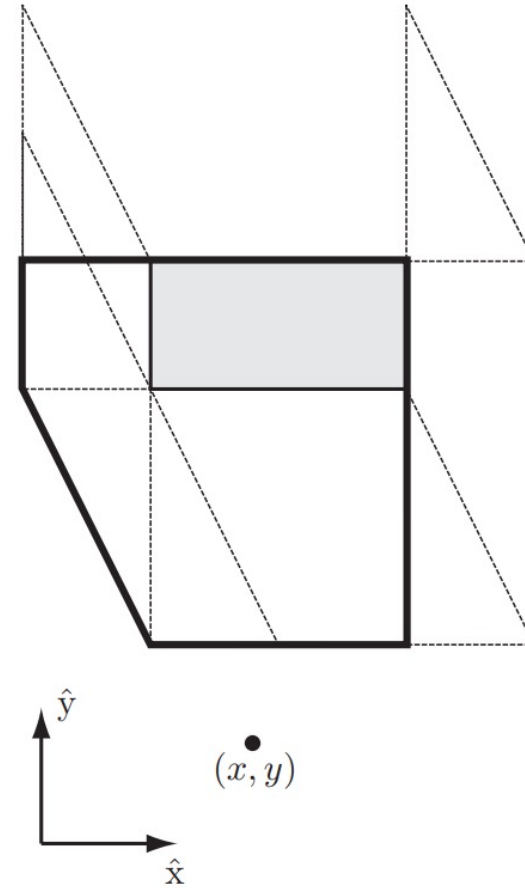
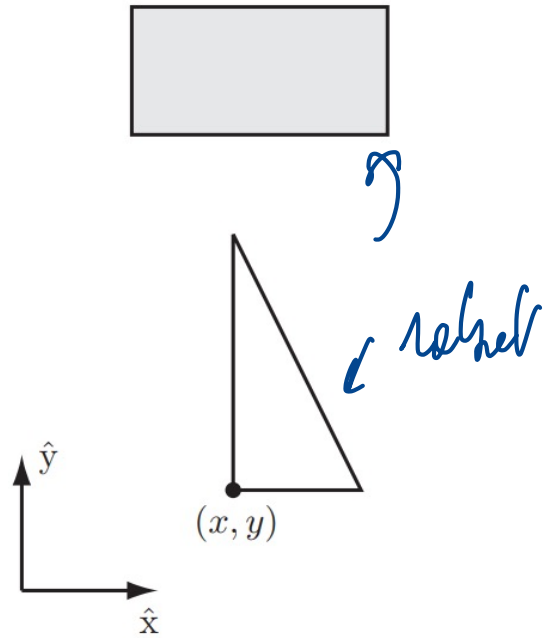
Configuration Space: Circular Mobile Bot





Configuration Space: bot that translates + rotates

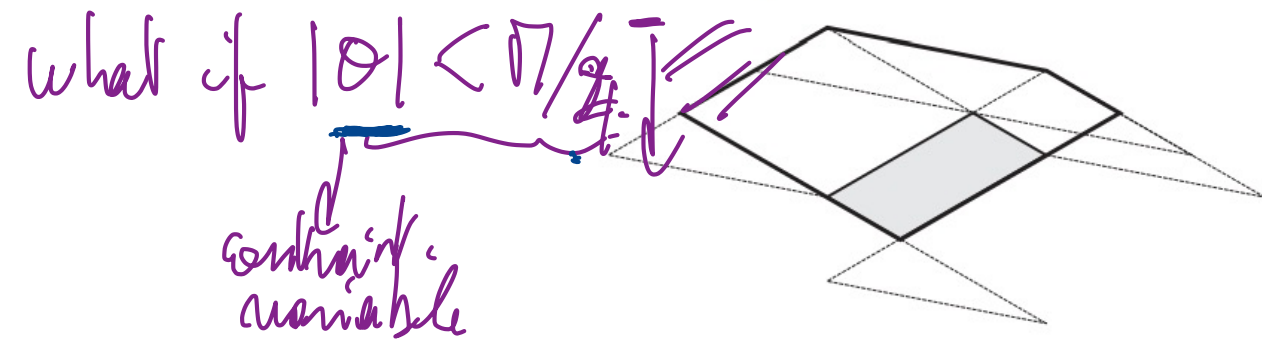
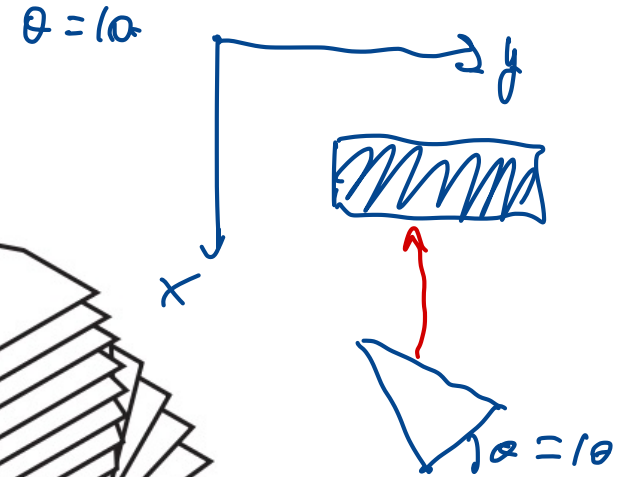
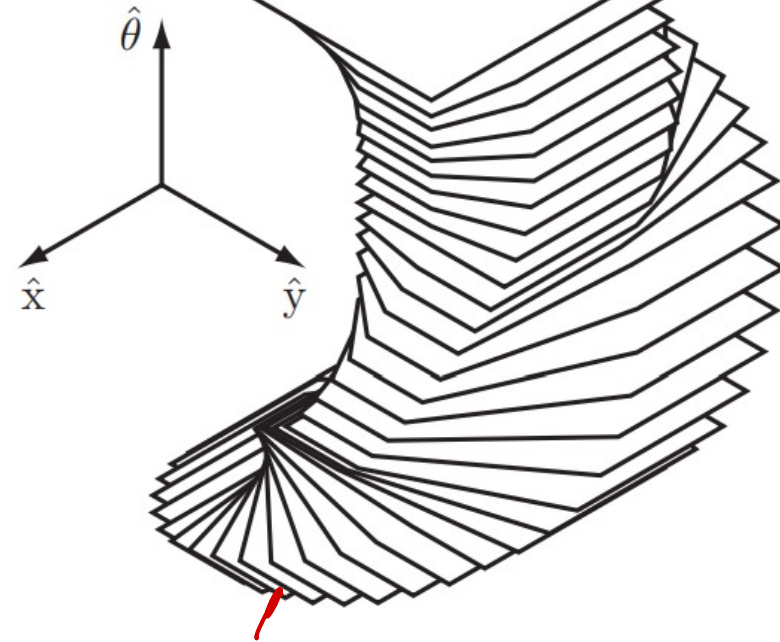
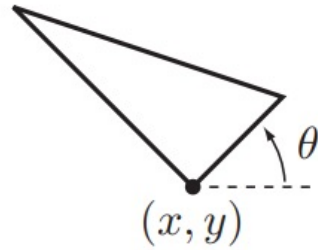
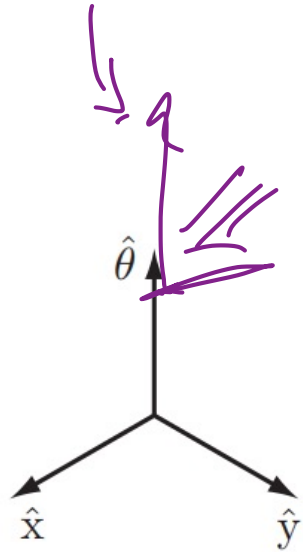
this case & previous one
→ robot only translated!



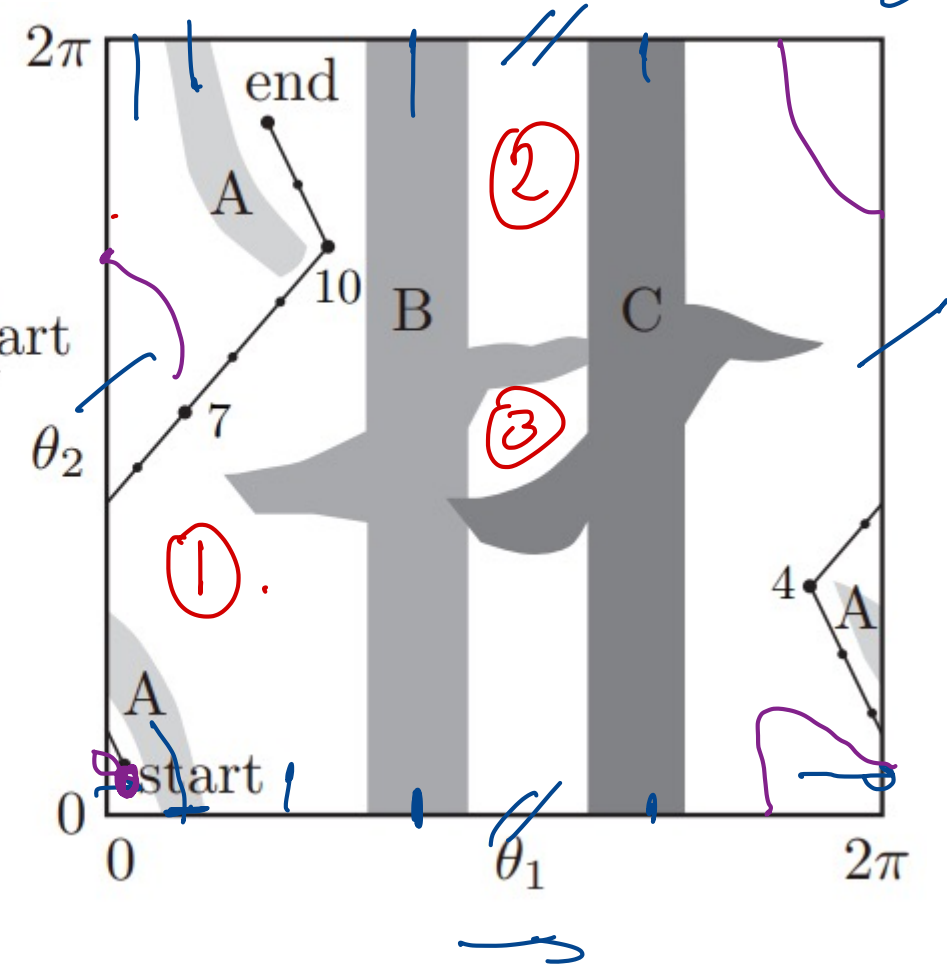
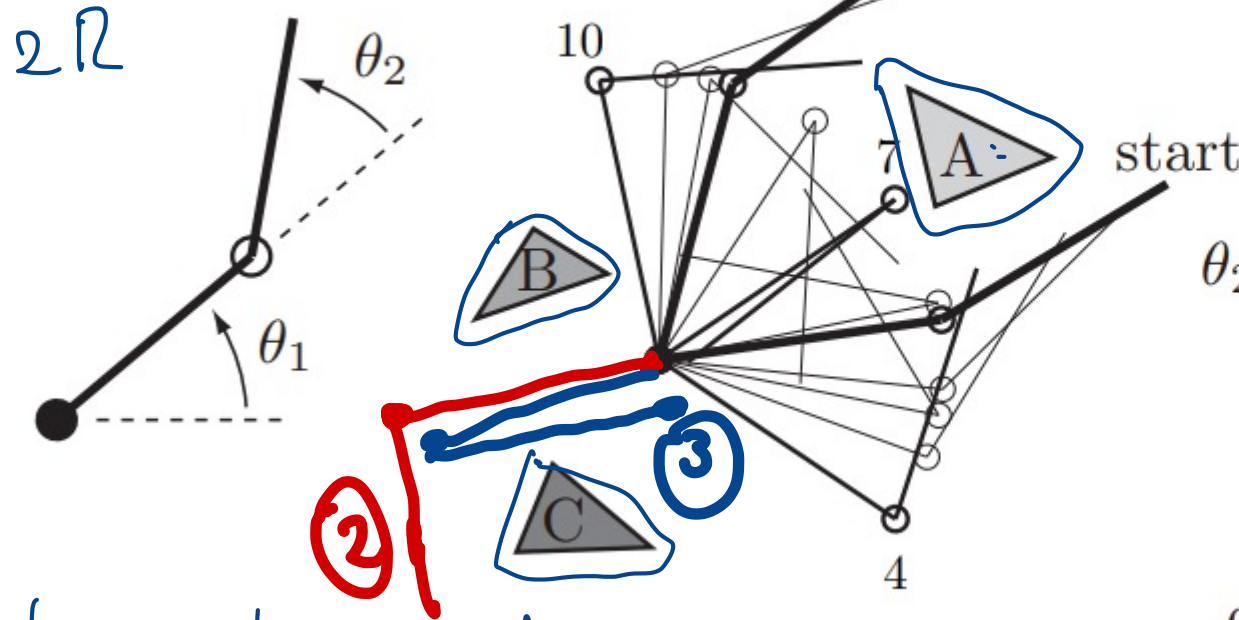
Configuration Space: bot that translates + rotates

(x, y, θ)
 pos. orient.

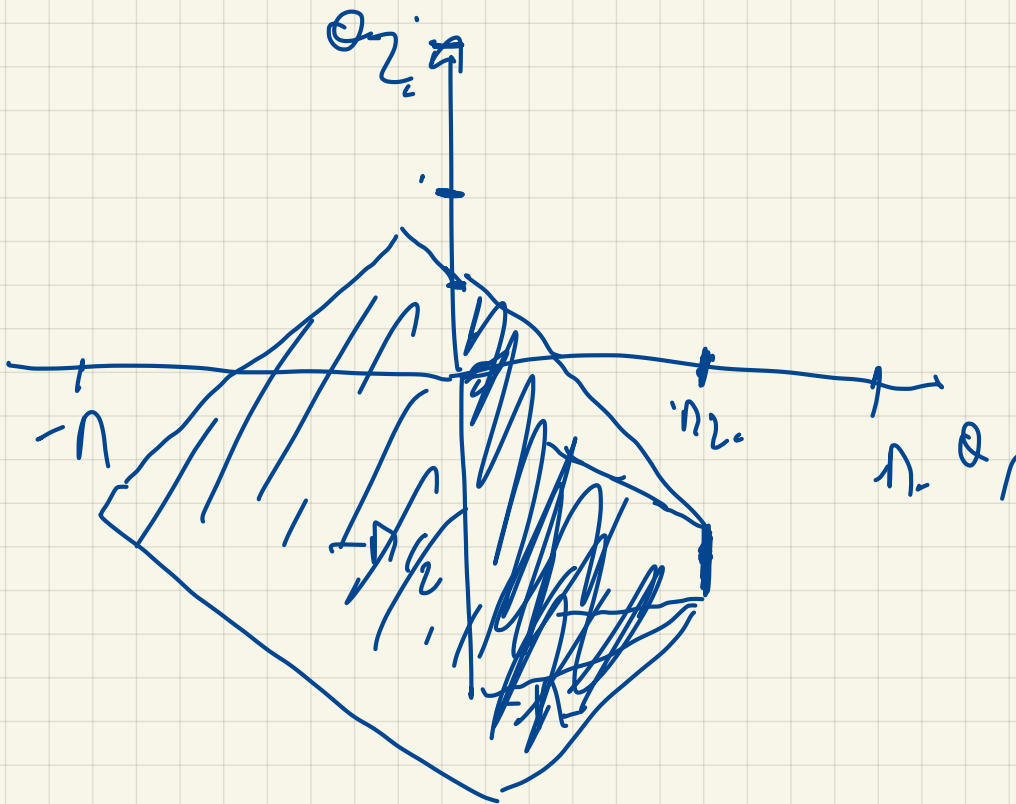
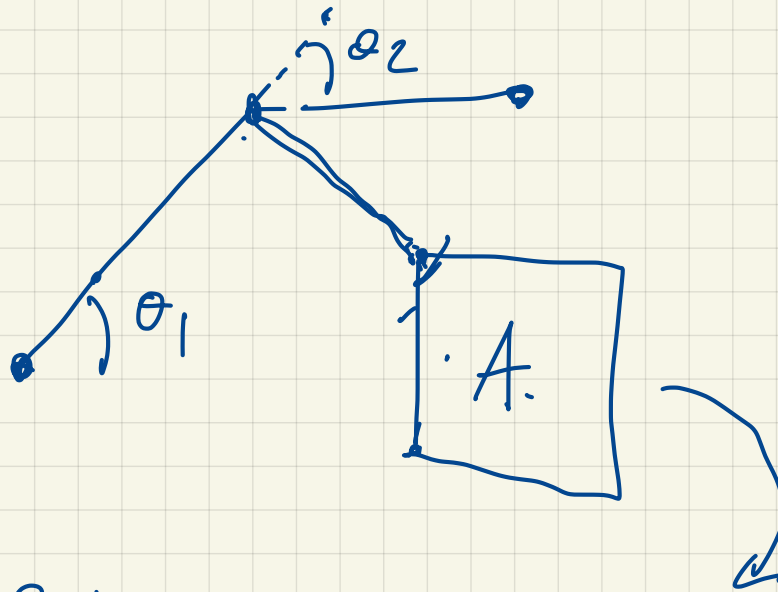
$\{x \in \mathbb{R}^3$
 $\} R \in \text{SO}(2)$



Configuration Space: 2R Planar Arm



⌊ this not connected.



Spherical Approximations

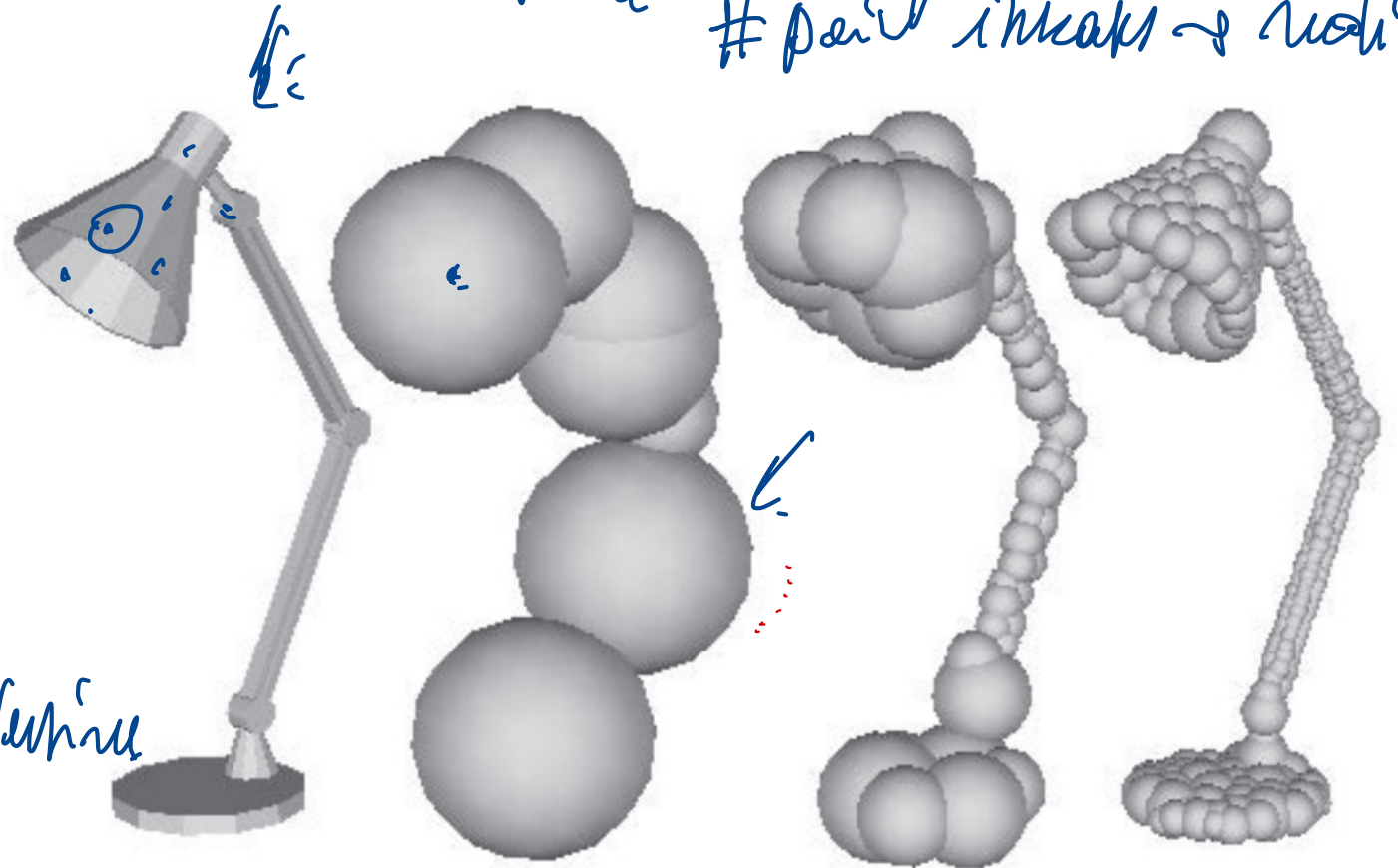
One simple method is to approximate the robot and obstacles as unions of overlapping spheres

why: high def models
~ computationally intensive

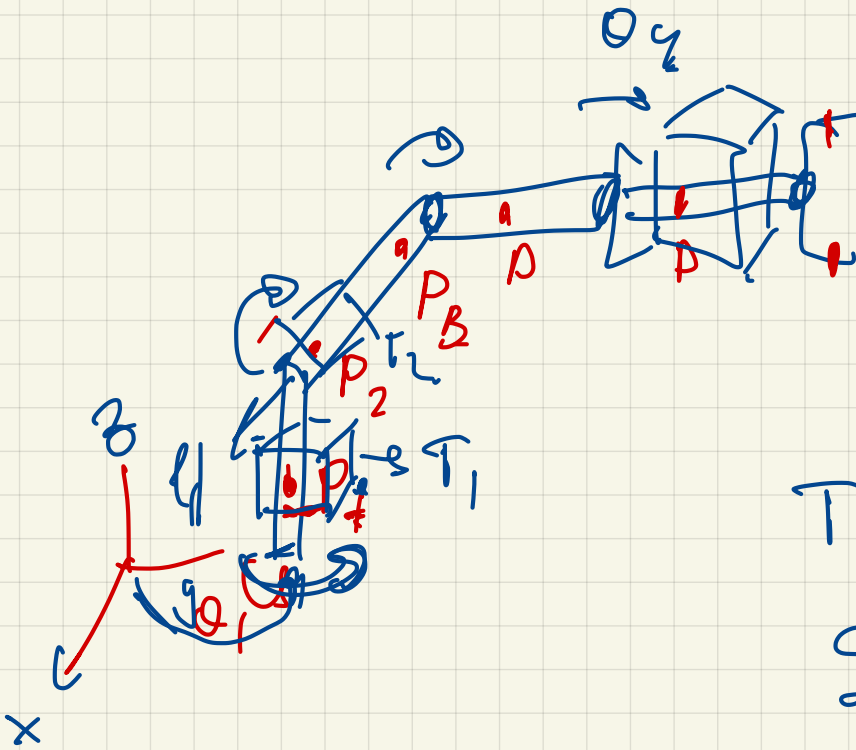
but, better if narrow passages

spheres allow for fast intersection computations

A approximate geometry of
obstacle. # part means ~ radius



~~Coars.~~



$$T_1 = ?$$

$$S_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$e^{[S_1]\theta_1} = \text{pen}$$

$$S_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Distance Measures

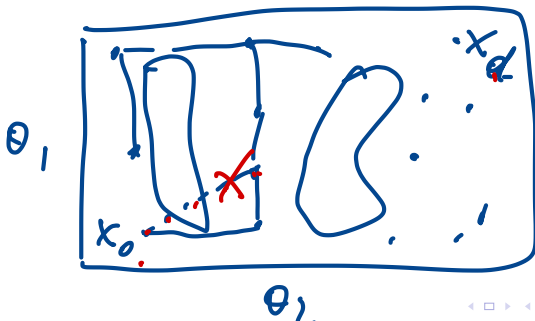
Given a robot at q represented by k spheres of radius R_i centered at $r_i(q)$, and an obstacle $\mathcal{B}$ represented by l spheres of radius B_j centered at b_j , the distance can be calculated as:

Summary

- Defined and discussed concepts relating to **motion planning**
- Discussed configuration space components $\mathcal{C}_{\text{free}}$ and $\mathcal{C}_{\text{obs}}$
- Gave example distance measurement approaches to check **collision detection**
- **Next time:** Learn about graphs, searching, and RRT

Motion Planning II: Probabilistic Road Maps and A* search

Introduction to Robotics, SP25



$\theta_i = \text{rand}$
 $[0, 2\pi]$

Introduction

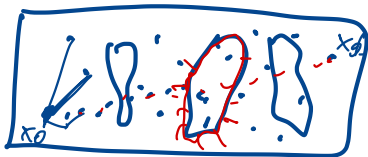
- ▶ Motion planning involves finding a path from a start to a goal configuration.
- ▶ Challenges include high-dimensional spaces and obstacles.
- ▶ Probabilistic Roadmaps (PRM) are a sampling-based method to solve motion planning problems.

Probabilistic Roadmaps (PRM) *Subtle work.*

1000 points

how many pairs?

$$\frac{1000 \cdot 999}{2}$$



► PRM consists of two phases:

1. **Construction Phase:** Build a roadmap by randomly sampling the configuration space and connecting nearby nodes.
2. **Query Phase:** Find a path from start to goal using the roadmap.

check if 5 close points to each point.
→ 5000

Construction Phase: Milestones and Graph Construction

- ▶ **Milestones:** The randomly sampled points in the configuration space are called milestones.
- ▶ **Graph Construction:**
 - ▶ Each milestone is a node in the graph.
 - ▶ Edges are added between milestones if:
 - ▶ They are close to each other (e.g., within a certain distance).
 - ▶ The straight-line path between them is collision-free.
- (▶ The result is a graph (roadmap) that captures the connectivity of the free space.

Construction Phase: Example

mn: half in roadmap

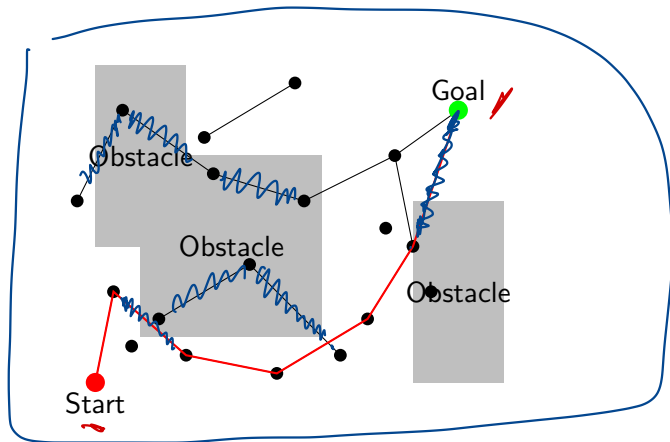
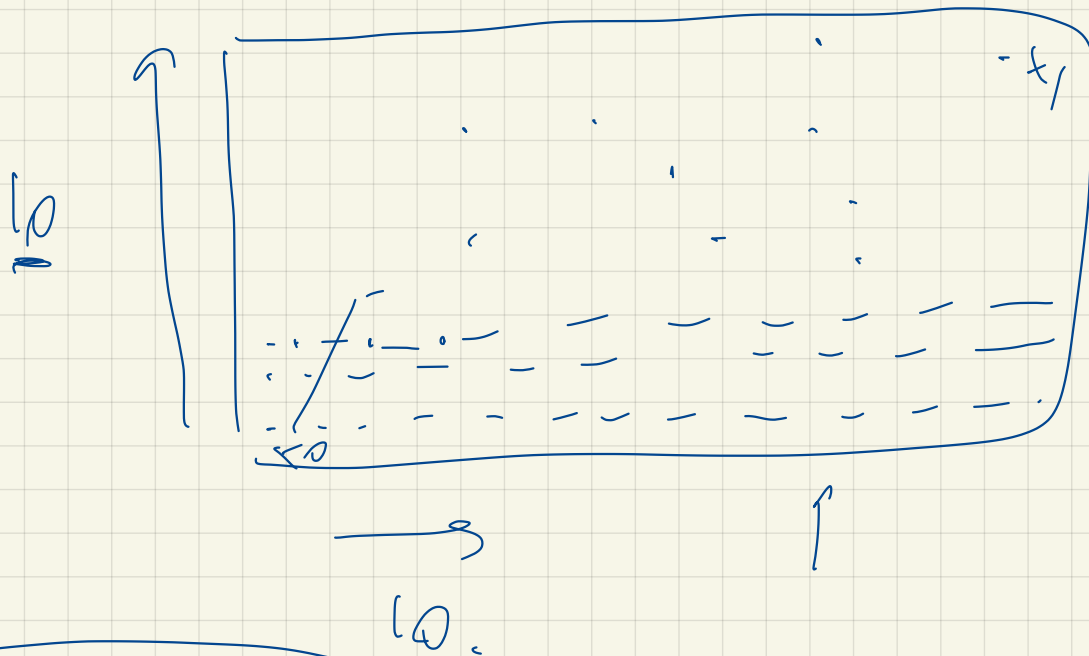


Figure: Example of a roadmap with milestones, obstacles, and a single path (in red) from start to goal.



multiresolution or.

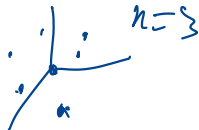
Curse of dimensionality:

points scales
as $\frac{n}{h} \sim n \text{ is } \# \text{ dofs}$

$n = 32$ dofs.
 $\downarrow$
 $\S 32$
 ~~$\S 32$~~
 $\S 2^{32}$

$\rightarrow$
 $\S \rightarrow \infty$

Advantages of PRM



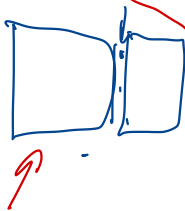
8 points

$n=10$



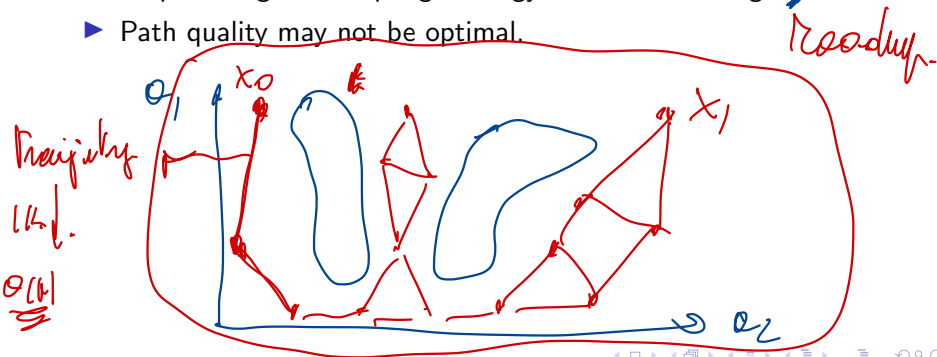
- ▶ Efficient in high-dimensional spaces. 
- ▶ Can handle complex obstacle geometries. 
- ▶ Probabilistically complete: probability of finding a path approaches 1 as the number of samples increases. 

Limitations of PRM



Termin 4.30 - 6.
online, revolut
A* - search.

- ▶ May not perform well in narrow passages.
- ▶ Requires a good sampling strategy to ensure coverage.
- ▶ Path quality may not be optimal.



Introduction to A* Search

- ▶ A* is a widely used algorithm for finding the shortest path between two nodes in a graph.
- ▶ It combines the advantages of Dijkstra's algorithm (guaranteed shortest path) and Greedy Best-First Search (efficiency).
- ▶ A* uses a heuristic function to estimate the cost from the current node to the goal, guiding the search.

A* Algorithm: Key Concepts

- ▶ **Heuristic Function ($h(n)$):** Estimates the cost from node n to the goal.
- ▶ **Path Cost ($g(n)$):** The cost from the start node to node n .
- ▶ **Total Cost ($f(n)$):** $f(n) = g(n) + h(n)$.
- ▶ A* prioritizes nodes with the lowest $f(n)$ value.

A* Algorithm: Steps

1. Initialize:

- ▶ Open set: Contains nodes to be evaluated (start with the start node).
- ▶ Closed set: Contains nodes already evaluated.
- ▶ $g(n)$ and $f(n)$ values for each node.

2. While the open set is not empty:

- ▶ Select the node with the lowest $f(n)$ from the open set.
- ▶ If this node is the goal, reconstruct the path and return it.
- ▶ Otherwise, move the node to the closed set and expand its neighbors.
- ▶ For each neighbor, update $g(n)$ and $f(n)$ if a better path is found.

A* Example: Graph Setup

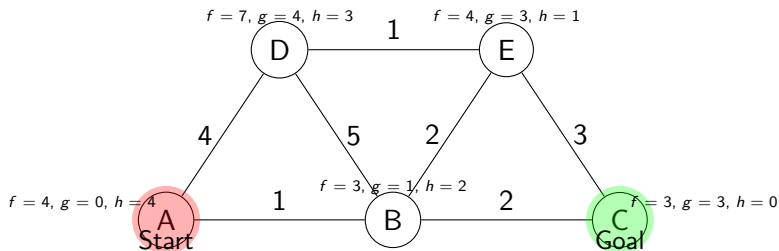


Figure: Example graph with edge weights. Start at A, goal at C.

A* Example: Step-by-Step

- **Heuristic Values:** Assume $h(n)$ is the straight-line distance to C (for simplicity).
- $h(A) = 4$, $h(B) = 2$, $h(C) = 0$, $h(D) = 3$, $h(E) = 1$.

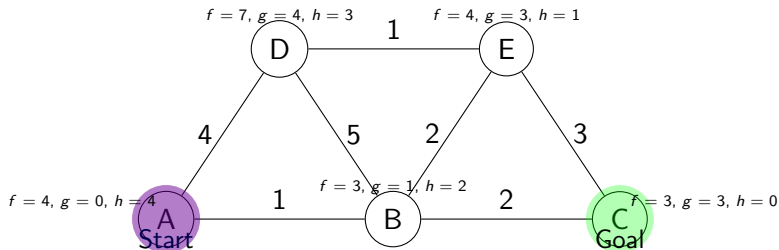


Figure: Step 1: Start at A. $f(A) = g(A) + h(A) = 0 + 4 = 4$.

A* Example: Step-by-Step (Continued)

- ▶ Expand A: Neighbors are B ($g(B) = 1$, $f(B) = 1 + 2 = 3$) and D ($g(D) = 4$, $f(D) = 4 + 3 = 7$).
- ▶ Select B (lowest $f(n)$).

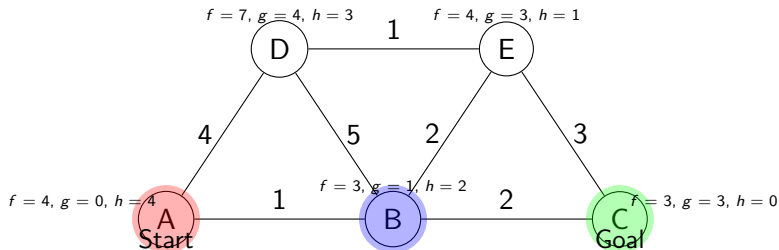


Figure: Step 2: Expand B. $f(B) = 3$.

A* Example: Step-by-Step (Continued)

- ▶ Expand B: Neighbors are C ($g(C) = 1 + 2 = 3$, $f(C) = 3 + 0 = 3$), D ($g(D) = 1 + 5 = 6$, $f(D) = 6 + 3 = 9$), and E ($g(E) = 1 + 2 = 3$, $f(E) = 3 + 1 = 4$).
- ▶ Select C (lowest $f(n)$).
- ▶ C is the goal. Path found: $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$.

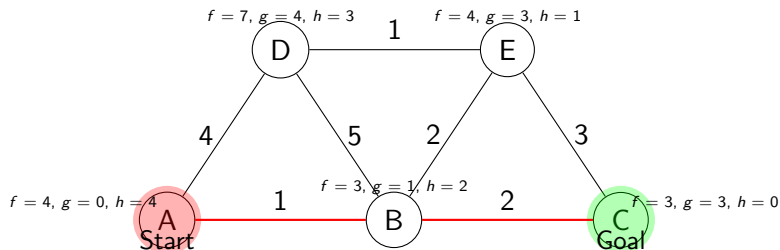


Figure: Step 3: Path found: $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$.

Advantages of A*

- ▶ Guaranteed to find the shortest path if the heuristic is admissible (never overestimates the cost).
- ▶ More efficient than Dijkstra's algorithm due to the heuristic.
- ▶ Widely used in pathfinding applications (e.g., robotics, games).

Limitations of A^*

- ▶ Requires a good heuristic function for optimal performance.
- ▶ Memory usage can be high for large graphs.
- ▶ Not suitable for dynamic environments where the graph changes frequently.

Conclusion

- ▶ A* is a powerful and efficient algorithm for finding shortest paths in graphs.
- ▶ It balances optimality and efficiency using a heuristic function.
- ▶ Future work includes improving heuristics and adapting A* for dynamic environments.