

Learning Agile Paths from Optimal Control

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1 **Abstract:** Efficient motion planning algorithms are of central importance for de-
2 ploying robots in the real world. Unfortunately, these algorithms often drastically
3 reduce the dimensionality of the problem for the sake of feasibility, thereby fore-
4 going optimal solutions. This limitation is most readily observed in agile robots,
5 where the solution space can have multiple additional dimensions. Optimal con-
6 trol approaches partially solve this problem by finding optimal solutions without
7 sacrificing the complexity of the environment, but do not meet the efficiency de-
8 mands of real-world applications. This work proposes an approach to resolve
9 these issues simultaneously by training a machine learning model on the outputs
10 of an optimal control approach.

11 **Keywords:** Legged Robots, Imitation Learning, Optimal Control

12 1 Introduction

13 Autonomous robotic systems are of particular interest for many fields, especially those that can be
14 dangerous for human intervention like search and rescue, and maintenance on rigs. However, motion
15 planning in unstructured environment is still a hard problem for legged robots and their success de-
16 pends largely on their ability to plan their paths robustly. Moreover, the method in which a controller
17 deals with obstacles has great consequences on the planned trajectory, and these optimizations are
18 quintessential in generating agile motions for real-world robots.

19 Trajectory optimization is a common practice for generating motion for legged systems [1, 2, 3],
20 since it can produce optimal trajectories which satisfy the physical and environmental constraints of
21 the robot. However, the solution from trajectory optimization is only valid for a particular pair of
22 initial and target positions, and one needs to re-plan if the pair changes. Due to high-dimensionality
23 and complexity, solving such an optimization problem for legged robots is infeasible in real-time.

24 Previous work simplified the problem by using a reduced-order model [4] and refining the trajectory
25 using model predictive control [5]. However, the issue is exacerbated in the presence of obstacles,
26 since collision avoidance constraints are non-linear algebraic constraints and so harder to solve.

27 In recent years, imitation learning [6, 7] and reinforcement learning [8, 9] have become the dominant
28 focus in the research community. The data-driven approach offers a global solution and removes the
29 hurdle of re-planning. On the other hand, collecting data for imitation learning is labour intensive
30 work, which can be done by using motion capture [10] or using animal data [11], which is extremely
31 difficult on legged robots. Reinforcement learning does not require any data, but it is extremely time-
32 consuming to learn a policy.

33 For planning with obstacles, most work focuses on modelling the environment as a 2-dimensional
34 grid that represents the height of the obstacles [12]. The collision avoidance method finds the
35 traversable paths in the plane [13]. However, the paths may be sub-optimal, since completely cir-
36 cumventing an obstacle is time consuming at best, and completely impossible at worst.

37 To mitigate the limitations of optimal control and imitation learning, we propose a self-supervised
38 learning approach for efficient 3D collision avoidance in real-time. Specifically, we generate a set

39 of motion data from optimal control with a reduced model to create a rough plan and learn a policy
 40 that reproduces the motion data. The learned policy is refined through whole-body model predictive
 41 control which satisfies the physical constraints of the robot.

42 2 Background

43 Let $\mathbf{x}_k, \mathbf{u}_k$ represent the states and actions of the robot at time-step k , the goal of optimal control is
 44 to find a trajectory, a set of \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u} , such that a given cost function is minimized. Assuming that $\mathbf{x}^i, \mathbf{x}^f$
 45 are the initial and target state of the robot specified by the user, a typical problem can be formulated
 46 as the following

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \min_{\mathbf{x}_0, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N, \mathbf{u}_0, \mathbf{u}_N} \sum \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}_k, \mathbf{u}_k) && \text{cost function} \\
 & \text{subject to } \mathbf{x}_0 = \mathbf{x}^i && \text{initial condition} \\
 & \mathbf{x}_N = \mathbf{x}^f && \text{terminal condition} \\
 & \mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x}_k, \mathbf{u}_k) && \text{forward dynamics} \\
 & \vdots && \text{other constraints}
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

47 For legged robots, motion planning is normally done through optimization. It is well-known that
 48 the states of legged robots drift, and predicting a long trajectory is not ideal. In addition, trajectory
 49 optimization, especially for long horizon, is not feasible in real-time. This is particularly an issue in
 50 the presence of obstacles, since collision constraints are generally non-linear and thus require non-
 51 linear solvers. Most people combine trajectory optimization for long horizon planning with model
 52 predictive control for short horizon planning real time planning and control.

53 In the proposed work, we will use trajectory optimization to plan a rough path for the robot torso
 54 while avoiding collisions with the environment. The outcome of trajectory optimization is generated
 55 using an approximated model, which may not be realistic for the robot. Therefore, we use model-
 56 predictive control to refine the path from the reduced model.

57 3 Methods

58 Let $\mathbf{q}, \dot{\mathbf{q}}, \ddot{\mathbf{q}} \in \mathbb{R}^{12}$ denote the joint positions, velocities, and accelerations of a 12 degree-of-freedom
 59 quadruped robot. We assume that the target position of the robot torso is given, and the environment
 60 constraints are fully provided. Our goal is find the control torques $\boldsymbol{\tau} \in \mathbb{R}^{12}$ that can reach the given
 61 target while avoiding the obstacles. The objective of the proposed framework is to enable robots to
 62 learn a novel skill from self-labelled data.

63 3.1 Autonomous Data Generation

64 Our approach is to formulate the problem as an optimal control problem. We simplify the problem
 65 by focusing on the trajectory of the robot torso.

$$\mathbf{s} = [x, y, z, \theta_z]^T \in \mathbb{R}^4 \tag{2}$$

66 where x, y, z denote the translation of the torso, θ denotes the rotation about its local z-axis, and roll
 67 and pitch are fixed during the optimization. Given the initial position of the robot state \mathbf{s}^i , the task is
 68 to find the a sequence of states $\{\mathbf{s}_k\}_{k=1}^N$ that guides the robot from its initial pose $\mathbf{s}^i \in \mathbb{R}^4$ to its target
 69 pose $\mathbf{s}^f \in \mathbb{R}^4$ while minimizing the time \mathcal{T} and avoiding the obstacles at position \mathbf{s}^o .

70 We formulate this as a trajectory optimization problem, where the state is the positions and velocities
 71 $\mathbf{x} = [\mathbf{s}, \dot{\mathbf{s}}]^T \in \mathbb{R}^8$, and the command is the acceleration $\mathbf{u} = \ddot{\mathbf{s}} \in \mathbb{R}^4$. The decision variables are the
 72 sequences of N states and commands, as described in Equation 3.

$$\begin{array}{lll}
\min_{\mathbf{x}_0, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N, \mathbf{u}_0, \dots, \mathbf{u}_N,} & \mathcal{J} & \text{minimum time} \\
\text{subject to} & \mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x}_k, \mathbf{u}_k), \quad \forall k = 0, \dots, N-1 & \text{forward dynamics} \\
& \mathbf{x}_0 = [\mathbf{s}^i, \mathbf{0}]^T, \mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{0} & \text{initial condition} \\
& \mathbf{x}_N = [\mathbf{s}^t, \mathbf{0}]^T, \mathbf{u}_N = \mathbf{0} & \text{terminal condition} \\
& \mathbf{x}_{min} \leq \mathbf{x}_k \leq \mathbf{x}_{max}, \quad \forall k = 0, \dots, N & \text{state boundary conditions} \\
& \mathbf{u}_{min} \leq \mathbf{u}_k \leq \mathbf{u}_{max}, \quad \forall k = 0, \dots, N & \text{action boundary conditions} \\
& \mathcal{D}(\mathbf{p}_k, \mathbf{p}^o) \geq \varepsilon, \quad \forall k = 0, \dots, N & \text{collision constraints}
\end{array} \tag{3}$$

73 where \mathcal{F} defines the dynamic equation of the system, \mathbf{x}_{min} , \mathbf{x}_{max} , \mathbf{u}_{min} , \mathbf{u}_{max} are the lower and upper
74 bounds of states and actions, and $\mathcal{D}(\mathbf{p}_k, \mathbf{p}^o)$ denotes the distance between the robot and the obstacles.
75 This problem is transcribed into a direct collocation problem [14] and solved using CasADi [15].

76 3.2 Learning a Predictive Model

77 Assume that data are generated using the formal section as a set of positions \mathbf{p} and velocities $\dot{\mathbf{p}}$, our
78 goal is to learn a mapping $\boldsymbol{\pi}(\cdot) \in \mathbb{R}^4 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^4$ that predicts the most suitable velocity given the current
79 state $\tilde{\mathbf{p}}_k = \boldsymbol{\pi}(\mathbf{p}_k)$.

80 We use a neural network to encode this relationship. The architecture consists of six fully connected
81 layers, each separated by a tanh activation function. The network is trained using stochastic gradient
82 descent to optimize the mean squared error between the generated $\tilde{\mathbf{p}}_k$ and the predicted velocity $\dot{\mathbf{p}}_k$.

83 3.3 Whole-Body Model Predictive Control

84 Assuming that \mathbf{x}_k^{ref} is the reference state produced by the learnt model in Sec. 3.2, the whole-body
85 model predictive control [16] computes the torques $\boldsymbol{\tau} \in \mathbb{R}^{12}$ that track the desired inputs \mathbf{x}_k^{ref} . This
86 component minimizes the ground reaction force $\mathbf{F} = [\mathbf{f}_1, \dots, \mathbf{f}_K]^T$ for K stance legs while satisfying
87 the physical constraints of the robot and the friction cone constraints, which prevent slippage.

$$\begin{array}{lll}
\min_{\mathbf{F}_1, \mathbf{F}_2, \dots, \mathbf{F}_M} & \sum \|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}_k^{ref}\| + \|\mathbf{F}_k\| & \text{loss function} \\
\text{subject to} & \mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x}_k, \mathbf{u}_k) & \text{forward dynamics} \\
& \mu \lambda_z \geq \sqrt{\lambda_x^2 + \lambda_y^2} & \text{friction cone constraints} \\
& \boldsymbol{\tau}^{min} \leq \boldsymbol{\tau}_k \leq \boldsymbol{\tau}^{max} & \text{torque limit constraints} \\
& \mathbf{q}^{min} \leq \mathbf{q}_k \leq \mathbf{q}^{max} & \text{joint limit constraints}
\end{array} \tag{4}$$

88 Here, the horizon M is a relatively small number. Once the \mathbf{F} is found, the first solution \mathbf{F}_0 is taken
89 and the rest are discarded. The ground reaction forces are converted into the equivalent torques.

90 The swing leg motion is independent from the model predictive control. Given the desired base
91 velocity, we use a simple footstep planner which reads the desired base velocity and generate the
92 next footstep position [17]. A simple interpolation is applied between the current footstep position
93 and the next footstep position. Then, this is tracked by standard PD control.

94 Finally, a flowchart of the proposed framework is summarized in Fig. 1.

95 4 Experiments

96 The experiments were carried out on a quadruped robot in PyBullet [18]. We created a simulated
97 world where the robot needs to move from its initial position to its target position with an obstacle
98 between them. The nominal height of the robot torso is 28 cm, and the height of the table is 25 cm.
99 The robot can crawl under the obstacle only if it lowers its torso height.

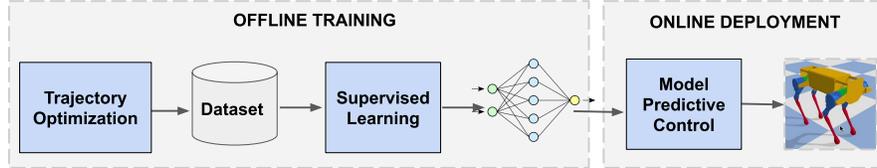


Figure 1: The pipeline of self-supervised collision avoidance planning

100 Fig. 2 illustrates the simulated setup. The robot starts at the origin and must move to the black arrow
 101 at $(3,0)$. The red curve shows the path generated by planning the 2D motion, and the green curve
 102 shows the path generated by the 3D optimal control approach.

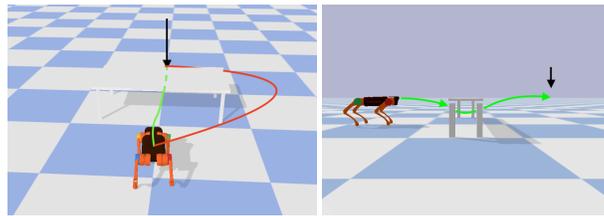


Figure 2: The experimental setup from the front and the side view. The robot starts at the origin and must move to the target (black arrow). The red curve shows the path generated by planning motion in 2D, and the green curve shows the path generated via 3D optimal control.

103 The target position is $(3,0)$, the table is placed at $(1.5,0)$, and the initial positions of the robot are
 104 randomly drawn from $\mathbf{p}^i \sim \mathcal{N}([0.5, 0.066, 0.026], [0.5, 0.66, 0.02])$. We use the trajectory optimiza-
 105 tion method discussed in Sec. 3.1 to generate a path for each initial position, which yields 10000
 106 trajectories, each with ≈ 100 data points.

107 We use the methods from Sec. 3.2 for learning a predictive model. The network architecture is
 108 $[256, 1024, 1024, 1024, 1024, 256]$ in the hidden layers, and it took 80 seconds to train a model. This
 109 was done with batch sizes of 1024 data points for 20 epochs with the stochastic gradient descent
 110 optimizer and an initial learning rate of 0.5. The train-validate-test size proportions were 80% –
 111 10% – 10%. The results of the model can achieve average mean squared error of 10^{-5} .

112 Fig. 3 shows the snapshot of an example trajectory generated using the proposed method. We can
 see that the robot lower its body in order to crawl under the table.

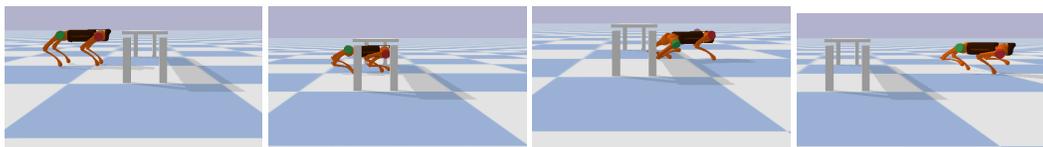


Figure 3: A snapshot of motion generated from learned model

113

114 5 Conclusion

115 This work proposes a self-supervised learning approach to learn a rough plan for a quadruped robot
 116 maneuver around obstacles. We use optimal control to generate a rough plan and then use supervised
 117 learning to learn a predictive model. The learned model provides the desired base motion and then
 118 it is refined using model predictive control for whole-body control. Further improvements include
 119 relaxing more control variables to include the pitch and roll of the base and incorporating cameras
 120 and LiDARs for perceiving the environment.

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