Time-optimal Smoothing of RRT-given Path for Manipulators

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Abstract: Trajectory planning is one of the most studied topics in robotics. Among several methods, a sampling-based method, Rapidly-exploring Randomized Tree (RRT) algorithm, has become popular over the last two decades due to its computational efficiency. However, the RRT method does not suggest an exact way to obtain a smooth trajectory along the viapoints given by itself. In this paper, we present an approach using a time-optimal trajectory planning algorithm, specifically for robotic manipulators without using inverse kinematics. After the trajectory smoothing with cubic splines in an environment with obstacles considering not only velocity and acceleration but also jerk constraints; the study is simulated on a six degrees of freedom humanoid robot arm model and always finds a solution successfully if there is a feasible one.

1 INTRODUCTION

Path planning is frequently encountered as one of the problems of robotics. It is difficult to talk about a definite and optimum planning solution for mobile robots, autonomous vehicles, or manipulators. The same applies in the presence of obstacles. Even just considering geometric constraints, finding a path in an environment where there are obstacles is usually a grueling job. Additionally, trajectory planning also dealing with dynamic constraints, i.e. kinodynamic planning, requires working with higher dimensional state vectors.

A wide range of studies exists in path planning including both deterministic and stochastic approaches. Deterministic ones such as evaluating all possible configurations in discretized configuration space, are available and they are mostly complete which means they give an exact solution in finite amount of time. However, these methods are usually computationally inefficient for high-dimensional spaces (Canny et al., 1988) and as a matter of fact, they often fail since they generally give one possible solution which can be infeasible. On the other hand, sampling-based heuristic approaches like Randomized Potential Fields (Barraquand et al., 1991), Probabilistic Roadmap Method (Kavraki et al., 1996) and Rapidly-exploring Randomized Tree (RRT) (LaValle and Kuffner, 1999) have become popular in the last two decades since they are able to give alternative solutions in addition to their low computational costs. RRT distinguishes itself on planning with nonholonomic constraints. As having Voronoi bias RRT (ibid.) is capable of exploring the space where obstacles are predefined in task space, and if a solution exists, the algorithm commits to finding that as the number of samples goes to infinity, which is called probabilistic completeness. Both kinodynamic RRT and basic RRT construction algorithms give jerky paths to user and do not suggest a definite method for smoothing after having defined viapoints. The connectivity path which is the connection of viapoints with straight lines is not practical unless the motion is slow enough. Otherwise, the dynamic system will be mechanically forced in vain. On the other hand, a smoothing done by using viapoints has to be in conformity with velocity, acceleration and jerk constraints. In the remaining of the paper, these constraints will be called as kinematic constraints. Hauser and Ng-Thow-Hing’s study does not only smooth the manipulator trajectories, but also compensates the computation time of smoothing procedure by using shortcuts respecting velocity and acceleration bounds (2010). Based on that study, a recent study, Smooth RRT-Connect method (Lau and Byl, 2015), is also able to give reliable solutions, especially in high-dimensional planning spaces, when RRT fails.

The determination of the space where planning is done is a controversial issue. While classical RRT algorithm (Kuffner and LaValle, 2000) recommends...
sampling and planning in configuration space, Shkolnik and Tedrake were able to plan in a computation time less than 1 minute for 1500 degrees of freedom due to their pioneer TS-RRT algorithm planning in the task space (2009). Unfortunately, this algorithm suggests using Jacobian pseudoinverse to overcome the inverse kinematic problem, which is not always able to give feasible solutions. The authors of this paper also used task space for planning with a known inverse kinematic model (2015). Inspired by RRT-Connect (Kuffner and LaValle, 2000) which explores the configuration space with two trees based on start and goal configuration, BiSpace Planning (Diankov et al., 2008) combines both planning options, i.e. uses both spaces; configuration space to grow a tree from initial configuration and task space to grow another one from goal configuration.

In manipulator applications, although planning in the task space makes collision checking easier which is out of scope of this paper, inverse kinematic comes up as a problem. In the literature, there are various approaches to this issue. One of them, Bertram et al.'s study (2006), as having no need of inverse kinematic solution including the goal configuration’s, also inspired this paper. This is discussed in detail further in this paper. This study was followed by JT-RRT algorithm (Weghe et al., 2007), which goes further and promises to path plan with goal bias by using Jacobian transpose controller for the goal configuration; in other words there is a possibility of suffering from local minima. On the other hand, BiSpace Planning presents inverse kinematic not as an obligation but just as an option by sampling the neighborhood of configurations (Diankov et al., 2008). Finally, it is worth mentioning the 7, 12 and 14 degrees of freedom manipulation planning scenarios realized on the PR2 experimental platform by the optimized RRT algorithm, RRT* (Perez et al., 2011).

In our study, we put forward a time-optimal solution specific to manipulators, taking into consideration viapoints determined by RRT without using inverse kinematics. Since we call RRT, the path is obstacle avoiding. While planning the trajectory, the required initial and final velocity and acceleration information with kinematic constraints including those of the jerk are respected and the path is smoothed by cubic splines. After explicitly presenting the methodology in the paper, smoothing of an RRT-given path is simulated for a 6 degrees of freedom robot arm designed by Güleç and Ertugrul (2014).

## 2 Trajectory Planning

### 2.1 RRT Algorithm

Original RRT (LaValle and Kuffner, 1999; Kuffner and LaValle, 2000) aims to find a path between initial ($q_i$) and goal ($q_{goal}$) states by growing a tree ($T$) from one of these, according to the algorithm in Figure 1. For this first algorithm, assuming that configuration space ($C$) is the same as state space ($Q$), $Q_{free}$ is defined as obstacle free space, i.e. $Q\setminus Q_{obs}$. Here, it is a necessity to predefine $Q_{obs}$, $q_i$ and $q_{goal}$. The randomized point in $Q$, $q_{rand}$, finds its nearest point from the set of vertices, $q_{near}$. If the distance between these two points is less than some constant distance $\epsilon$, then $q_{rand}$ becomes $q_{new}$ and directly connects to $q_{near}$. If not, a new $\epsilon$-long edge is generated between $q_{near}$ and $q_{new}$ in the direction of $q_{rand}$. This expansion visualized in Figure 2 continues until an added new state gets close enough to $q_{goal}$. In case of there is no solution computation time or number of iterations must be restricted. As algorithm works randomly, it could be given a second chance to find a path, or if there is a possibility of processing, the code can be run at the same time for more than one tree independent of each other. The NEAREST-NEIGHBOR function in the algorithm searches the closest vertex from the set of vertices to the random point according to an appropriate distance metric, e.g. Euclidean, Manhattan and Minkowski distances (Amato et al., 2000). This process can be accelerated by using approximate nearest neighbor (ANN) algorithms.

### RRT BUILD($q_i$, $q_{goal}$)

1. $T$ := initial($q_i$)
2. from $k$ = 1 to $k$=$K$
3. $q_{near}$ := NEAREST-NEIGHBOR($T_q$)
4. if $|q_{near}$ - $q_{rand}| < \epsilon$ then
5. $q_{new}$ := $q_{rand}$
6. $T$.vertex add($q_{new}$);
7. $T$.edge add($q_{near}$, $q_{new}$);
8. if $|q_{goal}$ - $q_{near}| < \mu$ then
9. Reached
10. else
11. Give Connectivity Path
12. Advanced

### EXPAND($T_q$

1. $q_{new}$ := NEAREST-NEIGHBOR($T_q$);
2. if $|q_{near}$ - $q_{rand}| < \epsilon$ then
3. $q_{new}$ := $q_{rand}$
4. else
5. $q_{new}$ := $q_{rand}$ - $\epsilon$
6. $T$.vertex add($q_{new}$);
7. $T$.edge add($q_{near}$, $q_{new}$);
8. if $|q_{goal}$ - $q_{near}| < \mu$ then
9. Reached
10. else
11. Give Connectivity Path
12. Advanced

---

Figure 1: Basic RRT algorithm.
2.2 Time-optimal Cubic Polynomial Joint Trajectories

Should the viapoints belonging to a path be obtained in one way or another, a post-processing is necessary for the movement to be smooth. There are several methods for smoothing that is supposed to support continuity not only for position but also for velocity and acceleration. If the position were to be obtained by cubic functions, obviously, velocity will be expressed with quadratic, and acceleration with linear functions. Jerk, on the other hand, will be constant. If the position and time of the viapoints, and the velocity and acceleration of the first and last positions, i.e. boundary conditions, are known, smoothness can be achieved in the trajectory by defining a cubic position function, that is piecewise cubic polynomial between consecutive viapoints. For this to happen, the position, velocity and acceleration values of the cubic functions defined in the two consecutive time intervals should be the same at the viapoint where they intersect. Based on this fact, before the emergence of RRT, a methodology for the formulation and optimization of cubic polynomial joint trajectories is described in (Lin et al., 1983) which calls Nelder-Mead Method (Nelder and Mead, 1965), a direct search method of optimization.

Nelder-Mead Method gets to work by suggesting \( m+1 \) number of possible vertices for a cost function dependent on \( m \) variables. Then, those vertices are sorted according to their cost, and the vertex with the greatest cost is called \( X_g \). The \( X_g \) at each iteration is replaced by a vertex of less cost. The process described in Figure 3 continues until the cost of \( X_g \) becomes nearly equal to the smallest cost of the current vertices.

For trajectory planning, let’s take a situation for one joint, where we have the boundary conditions in the time interval \( [t_i, t_{i+1}] \), and the information of the position \( [q_1, q_2, ..., q_{n-1}] \) and time \( [t_1, t_2, ..., t_{n-1}] \) at the \( n \) number of knots. There are \( n-1 \) known time intervals, \( [h_1, h_2, ..., h_{n-1}] \) where \( h_i = t_{i+1} - t_i \). On the other hand, \( n-2 \) accelerations, \( \{\ddot{q}_2, ..., \ddot{q}_{n-1}\} \), are unknown. A piecewise linear acceleration function, \( Q_i''(t) \), which is the second derivative of trajectory function \( Q_i(t) \) can be written as in (1) for every time interval \( h_i \). Clearly, \( Q_i''(t_{i+1}) = Q_i''(t_i) \) for \( i = 1, ..., n-2 \) which are also the unknown accelerations. With the equations from initial and final accelerations, there will be \( n \) linear equations for \( n-2 \) unknowns.

\[
Q_i''(t) = \frac{Q_i''(t_{i+1}) - Q_i''(t_i)}{h_i} \text{ for } t_i \leq t \leq t_{i+1} \tag{1}
\]

Lin et al. (1983) suggest adding two free knots, \( q_2 \) and \( q_{n-1} \) where they reuse \( n \) to express the total number of knots including the extra ones. This approach provides enough freedom to solve the system of equations and promises solution uniqueness.

Later in the same paper (ibid.), assuming time intervals as cost variables, Nelder-Mead Method is called. Here, the objective function is the total time, i.e. sum of time intervals. For the given joint positions, \( n \) feasible trajectories are suggested where a feasible trajectory respects the kinematic constraints. Initial vectors of time intervals, \( X_0^1, ..., X_0^n \) can be derived from \( X' \) as indicated in (3) where \( X' \) is the lower bound of the vector of time intervals, \( X_0^1 \) is the feasible vertex converted from \( X' \) and \( d_i 's \) are some distance vectors. An estimation for \( X' \) is given in (2) where \( j \) is the joint number, \( V C_j \) is the velocity constraint for joint \( j \) and \( q_{ij} \) is the position at \( t_i \).

\[
X' = [h'_1, h'_2, ..., h'_{n-1}] = \left[ \max_j \frac{|q_{j2} - q_{j1}|}{VC_j}, ..., \frac{|q_{jn} - q_{j(n-2)}|}{VC_j} \right] \tag{2}
\]

\[
X'_i = X_0^i + d_i \tag{3}
\]
Lastly, the paper (ibid.) introduces the feasible solution converter (FSC) which converts an infeasible vector of time intervals to a feasible one. After obtaining $\lambda$ from (4)-(7) where $AC_j$ and $JC_j$ are the acceleration and jerk constraints for joint $j$, respectively, FSC replaces time intervals by $[\Delta_1 h_1, \Delta_2 h_2, ..., \Delta_N h_{n-1}]$ and accelerations by $[\dot{Q}''_{j1}/\lambda^2, \dot{Q}''_{j2}/\lambda^2, ..., \dot{Q}''_{j(n-1)}/\lambda^2]$, for $j = 1, 2, ..., N$ where $N$ is the number of joints. What we do here is just scaling the trajectory.

$$
\lambda_1 = \max_j \left[ \max_{\|v_i\|} \left| \frac{Q'_{ji}(t)}{AC_j} \right| \right] \tag{4}
$$

$$
\lambda_2 = \max_j \left[ \max_{\|v_i\|} \left| \frac{\dot{Q}''_{ji}(t)}{AC_j} \right| \right] \tag{5}
$$

$$
\lambda_3 = \max_j \left[ \max_{\|v_i\|} \left| \frac{\ddot{Q}''_{ji}(t)}{JC_j} \right| \right] \tag{6}
$$

$$
\lambda = \max(1, \lambda_1^{1/2}, \lambda_2^{1/2}, \lambda_3^{1/3}) \tag{7}
$$

### 2.3 Smoothing RRT Results with Cubic Splines

As mentioned above, while the basic RRT algorithm gives a path from an initial point to a goal point, another study (ibid.) can fit a smooth curve for a given path with boundary conditions and kinematic constraints. We first suggest using the basic RRT planner in the configuration space. The state vector, $Q$, consists of joint variables. Instead of transferring the goal point to the configuration space, $\mu$ is defined which is the position tolerance for the goal position and calculated as the Euclidean norm of deviations in 3 axes. The distance tolerance creates a spherical goal region with a radius of $\mu$. If the randomized tree extends into the tolerance region, the exploring stops. Traditionally, Euclidean distance is selected as the metric for the nearest neighbor algorithm.

For the curve fitting, as suggested by (ibid.), $d_i = [d_{i,1}, d_{i,2}, ..., d_{i,n-1}]$ is calculated as in (8) where $\delta_1$, $\delta_2$, and $D$ are determined according to (9-11). Here, $[h_1^i, h_2^i, ..., h_{n-1}^i]$ are the elements of $X^0$.

$$
d_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 
\delta_1, & i = j + 1 \\
\delta_2, & i \neq j + 1 
\end{cases} \tag{8}
$$

$$
\delta_1 = \frac{D}{\sqrt{2} (n - 1)} (\sqrt{n} + n - 2) \tag{9}
$$

$$
\delta_2 = \frac{D}{\sqrt{2} (n - 1)} (\sqrt{n} - 1) \tag{10}
$$

$$
D = 10 \min \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \left( h_i - h_{i+1} \right), \left( h_i^2 \right) \right\} \tag{11}
$$

During the process summarized in Figure 4, the newly calculated vertices will replace the costly ones. The criteria for the searching to be found adequate and to stop is determined heuristically.

**SMOOTHING_RRT(q杲g 모습, VC, AC, JC)
1) RRT_BUILD(\|q杲g\|
2) Xₜ,..., Xₘ (Connectivity Path VC, AC, JC)
3) NELDER-MEAD(Xₜ,..., Xₘ) considering VC, AC, JC
4) Give Trajectory**

### 3 SIMULATION AND RESULTS

The code for the RRT algorithm and optimization of a given path with cubic splines is written in Matlab. As a manipulator, ITECH humanoid robot arm which has the six revolute joints given in Figure 5(a), has been dealt with. Denavit-Hertenberg (D-H) parameters and link limits of the robot are given in Table 1; and Table 2 shows the velocity constraints for all of the joints. Acceleration and jerk constraints are 100 degrees/sec² and 100 degrees/sec³, respectively. In the environment, there are predefined spherical obstacles with a radius of 75 mm at the points [200 450 75.5], [450 0 150], [-190 210 400] and [-120 300 -400] m. These obstacles have been randomly appointed. Initial configuration for the simulation is $[q_1, q_2, q_3, q_4, q_5, q_6]=(90, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)$ in degrees and the goal position is [-125 0 690] in mm. The right side view of the initial placement is given in Figure 5(b).

![Figure 5: a) ITECH humanoid robot arm. b) Initial placement of obstacles and the manipulator.](image-url)
The code will work under all circumstances, and yield a solution if there is one. All of the computations were done using a laptop with a dual core processor at 2.4 GHz and 12 GB of RAM. The program has been run 100 times and always found a different solution. One of the solutions will be presented as the illustrative example.

Table 1: D-H parameters and link limits of the robot arm.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>j</th>
<th>a_j [mm]</th>
<th>α_j [rad]</th>
<th>d_j [mm]</th>
<th>θ_j [rad]</th>
<th>limits [rad]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-π/2</td>
<td>75.5</td>
<td>0^*</td>
<td>-π → +π</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>π/2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0^*/π/2</td>
<td>-π/12 → +2π/3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-π/2</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>0^*</td>
<td>-π → +π</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>π/2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0^*</td>
<td>-2π/3 → +2π/3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-π/2</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>0^*</td>
<td>-π → +π</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>166.31</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0^*/-π/2</td>
<td>-2π/3 → +2π/3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Velocity constraints of the robot arm.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>joint, j</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>velocity (°/sec)</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Viapoints given by RRT algorithm is given in Table 3 and shown in Figure 6. As might be expected, these are completely random points in \( Q_{free} \). For smoothing, \( X' \) and \( X_{\delta} \) are calculated as:

\[
X' = \begin{bmatrix} 0.0065 & 0.0065 & 0.0072 & 0.0060 & 0.0318 & 0.0095 \\
0.0113 & 0.0434 & 0.0434 \end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
X_{\delta} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.1995 & 0.1995 & 0.2206 & 0.1836 & 0.9741 & 0.2919 \\
0.3454 & 1.3313 & 1.3313 \end{bmatrix}
\]

Table 3: RRT-given joint configurations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>j</th>
<th>1 [°]</th>
<th>2 [°]</th>
<th>3 [°]</th>
<th>4 [°]</th>
<th>5 [°]</th>
<th>6 [°]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>knot 1</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>knot 2</td>
<td>94.04</td>
<td>-14.91</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>-10.01</td>
<td>6.38</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>knot 3</td>
<td>102.28</td>
<td>-10.24</td>
<td>-1.33</td>
<td>-19.53</td>
<td>8.19</td>
<td>-11.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>knot 4</td>
<td>109.14</td>
<td>-18.78</td>
<td>-6.41</td>
<td>-25.75</td>
<td>20.54</td>
<td>-12.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>knot 5</td>
<td>72.73</td>
<td>-46.16</td>
<td>-44.15</td>
<td>-28.50</td>
<td>33.89</td>
<td>-6.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>knot 6</td>
<td>64.89</td>
<td>-54.08</td>
<td>-22.33</td>
<td>-32.21</td>
<td>18.73</td>
<td>-18.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>knot 7</td>
<td>77.80</td>
<td>-63.96</td>
<td>-29.63</td>
<td>-44.53</td>
<td>5.90</td>
<td>-33.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>knot 8</td>
<td>-21.70</td>
<td>-143.59</td>
<td>166.45</td>
<td>-67.69</td>
<td>-152.31</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hence; \( D, \delta_1 \) and \( \delta_2 \) are obtained by the help of (9-11) as 0.9823, 0.8615 and 0.1669, respectively. After the optimization process, the optimized vector of time intervals, \( X_{opt} \), is computed as

\[
X_{opt} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.0908 & 0.9278 & 0.2367 & 0.2040 & 0.4296 \\
0.4943 & 0.4359 & 0.5767 & 0.3503 \end{bmatrix}
\]

i.e. the optimum total time is 3.7462 seconds. As it is seen in Figure 7, boundary conditions and kinematic constraints are respected while trajectory planning. Lastly, Figure 8 shows the motion frame by frame.

Since cubic splines are preferred for the smoothing, there is an inevitable motion resembling a loop. Hence, the results can be considered as time-optimal only for cubic spline trajectories.
4 CONCLUSIONS

The smoothing of RRT-given paths is a topic still being studied. In this study, firstly, for a 6 degrees of freedom manipulator, a connectivity path has been determined with a sampling-based path planning algorithm, RRT, which has been popular for the last two decades. Following this, for path smoothing, Nelder-Mead Method based time optimization method of joint trajectories, which has been suggested by Lin et al., has been used. This adaptation, in addition to other smoothing practices (Hauser and Ng-Thow-Hing, 2010; Lau and Byl, 2015), has jerk limitation and time optimization advantages. The program has been run repeatedly for a set-up where there is at least one solution, and each time a feasible solution has been found.

Dynamic issues such as the required torques for the motion, dynamic stability and control of the manipulator have not dealt with in this study. It is being considered to make a motion planning using kinodynamic RRT algorithm as future work. Our approach can also be implemented for the RRT* optimized algorithm. In the RRT-given path optimization, Nelder-Mead Method can be compared to other algorithms. Lastly, the plan is to test the approach on the manufactured robot.

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