Robust Sampling-Based Trajectory Tracking for Autonomous Vehicles

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Abstract—In real world motion planning tasks, autonomous vehicles can easily deviate away from their planned trajectories due to external disturbances, uncertain wheel/leg-terrain interaction, and other errors in the model used for planning. A possible solution to this problem consists in the continuous usage of replanning strategies. However, replanning is in general computationally intensive and its use should be minimized when possible. In this paper, a new methodology for robust trajectory tracking is proposed. The method generates, via sampling, correcting control inputs to drive the vehicle back to the desired trajectory. Due to the use of sampling, the methodology easily incorporates nonlinear planning models and integrates seamlessly with sampling-based motion planners. The paper presents simulation and preliminary experimental results showing the efficacy of the proposed approach and its potential application to motion planning tasks with real-time constraints.

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the core problems in autonomous vehicle mobility is the integration of motion planning and control [1]. Motion planning refers to finding a collision free trajectory in space for a given task, while control aims to ensure that the vehicle follows the planned trajectory. In a simplistic open loop strategy, a vehicle model is used to compute a trajectory and the corresponding control sequence that will result in the vehicle moving from the start state to the goal state. The vehicle is then commanded with the control sequence and if the model has high fidelity, the vehicle will move in the desired trajectory.

Of course, in real world applications pose errors appear due to model errors and the vehicle will not generally move in the desired trajectory when commanded with the original control sequence. Excessive error can lead to unsafe operation, or even loss of control in cases of limited actuation [2]. Even small intermediate pose errors, if not corrected promptly, can result in a large error in the vehicle’s final pose. There are various factors which can cause deviation from the planned trajectory such as slippage, uncertain wheel/leg-terrain interaction, actuator limitations, and other errors or omissions in the planning model. As a result, the reference trajectory becomes invalid because the planned control inputs are no longer capable of taking the vehicle to the desired goal.

Conventional motion planning approaches [3], [4], [5], [6] require two disconnected steps to solve this problem: 1) plan a vehicle trajectory, and 2) develop trajectory following controllers. The feedback laws of element 2 are in general complicated, particularly when the system is governed by nonlinear models. Another possible solution to this problem is to replan whenever the vehicle deviates from its trajectory [7], [8], [9]. One particular advantage of using the latter strategy is that it results in close to optimal trajectories from the vehicle’s current state to the goal state. While the replanning approaches of [7], [8], [9] address environmental uncertainty due to obstacles, these approaches do not address the issue of uncertainty in the vehicle’s position. If a new trajectory is replanned from the current position to the goal position each time the vehicle deviates from its reference trajectory, then the motion planning task becomes computationally very intensive for many unstructured real-world scenarios. A preferred solution would then be to merge onto the existing trajectory in a close to optimal manner.

In this paper we describe a sampling-based algorithm that robustly tracks planned trajectories while optimizing conventional measures of performance such as execution time, length of path, or energy. The algorithm’s key features are its low computational requirements, its ability to work with nonlinear models, and its seamless integration with sampling-based motion planners. The remainder of the paper is structured as follow. Section II provides background for the employed motion planner. Section III details the main steps of the proposed algorithm. Section IV presents simulation results. Section V provides experimental results. Finally, Section VI provides conclusions and future work.

II. BACKGROUND

This section briefly discusses the sampling-based motion planner utilized in this research to generate the baseline trajectory for the autonomous vehicle to follow.

Sampling Based Model Predictive Optimization (SBMPO) [10],[11] may be classified as a randomized A* algorithm that samples exclusively in the input space of the discrete-time model that it integrates; this paradigm is compatible with the input-centric viewpoint of Model Predictive Control [12]. The core optimization is that of the LPA* (Lifelong Planning A*) graph search algorithm and hence, under the conditions that an implicit grid is used for the entire state vector of SBMPOs integration model, SBMPO shares the powerful completeness properties of LPA* [8]. This result is akin to MPC stability results based on enforcement of a terminal
constraint [12]. To achieve efficient computations, SBMPO utilizes enhanced kinematic models as the integration model and extracts constraints from the vehicle’s dynamic model [10], [13], [14]. SBMPO, as do all A* algorithms, requires an optimistic heuristic, which despite its name is actually a rigorous lower bound on the cost from the current state to the goal state. If properly chosen, SBMPO is computationally fast.

The following are the main steps of SBMPO:

1) Select a node with highest priority in the queue: The nodes are collected in an Open List, which ranks the potential expansion by their priority or low cost associated with the node. The Open List is implemented as a heap so that the highest priority node that has not been expanded is on top. If the selected node is the goal, SBMPO terminates, otherwise go to step 2. Note that the node representing the start will have the highest initial priority.

2) Sample the input space: Generate a sample of the input to the system that satisfies the input constraints. The input sample and current state (i.e., the state of the selected node) are passed to the system model, and the system model is integrated to determine the next state of the system. If the next state satisfies all constraints, then continue to Step 3, else repeat Step 2.

3) Add a new node to the graph: Use an implicit grid ([15]) to check if the graph already contains a node close to the new state of the system. If such a node exists, only add an edge from the current node (i.e., the selected node) to the node whose state is similar to the new state. Otherwise, add a node whose state is the next state.

4) Evaluate the new node cost: Use an A* heuristic to evaluate the cost of the generated vertices based on the desired objective (which is least amount of energy). Add a new node to the priority queue based on the minimum cost.

5) Repeat 2–4 for \( n \) successors: Repeat steps 2–4 for \( n \) successors, where \( n \), the branchout factor, is defined by the user.

6) Repeat 1–5 until one of the stopping criteria is true: Steps 1–5 are repeated until the goal is reached or the maximum number of allowable iterations is achieved.

III. ROBUST TRAJECTORY TRACKING

Let us assume that as depicted in Fig. 2, a vehicle trajectory has been planned, but during execution the vehicle realizes that it has diverged from the desired trajectory. In addition, we can assume that the vehicle motion is governed by a general nonlinear model

\[
x_{k+1} = f(x_k, u_k),
\]

where \( x_k \) represents the system state and \( u_k \) the control input. The sampling-based planning algorithm described in Section II generates vehicle trajectories by sampling the control inputs \( u_k \). Here, along the same lines, it is proposed that correcting control inputs are generated to drive the vehicle back to the desired trajectory.

The proposed approach relies on linearization of the system around the current state to generate an initial (rough) estimate of a corrective input \( \delta u \). Samples about \( u_k + \delta u_k \) are then input to the nonlinear model. A state, denoted by \( x \), is represented by a circle and a control input, denoted by \( u \), is represented as an edge connecting two states.

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\[
x_{k+1} = f(x_k, u_k) \approx Ax_k + Bu_k,
\]

where \( A \) and \( B \) are respectively the corresponding system and input matrices of the system obtained through linearization of (1). Alternatively, if a control input \( u_k + \delta u_k \) were applied, the system would evolve as

\[
x_{k+1} = x_{k+1} \approx Ax_k + B(u_k + \delta u_k),
\]

Therefore, if we define \( \delta x = x_{k+1} - x_{k+1} \), the required control perturbation \( \delta u_k \) to drive the vehicle back to the trajectory can be chosen as the least squares solution (\( \delta u_k \)) to

\[
B\delta u_k = \delta x.
\]
To compensate for a pose deviation, the proposed methodology first finds a point of entry \((node_{poe})\) on the reference trajectory. This point, as the name suggests, is a node on the reference trajectory where the vehicle attempts to merge. Ideally this node lies somewhere between vehicle’s expected position \((node_e)\) and the goal \((node_{goal})\). If it is too close to \(node_e\), then the vehicle will have to make very sharp turns, which is highly inefficient because sharp turns introduce more slip-related errors and can consume excessive energy \([16]\), \([17]\), \([18]\). Secondly, if the point is too close to \(node_{goal}\), then there is a high probability that the vehicle may never merge onto the reference trajectory where the vehicle attempts to merge.

In the proposed methodology, the algorithm looks ahead for completeness Fig. 5, provides a schematic of the overall approach. In order to merge onto the reference trajectory at \((node_{poe})\), \((node_{curr})\) and \((node_{goal})\) are selected as the one with the minimum distance \(d \leq \infty\), where \(D = \{d_i\}_{i=1}^{n}\) and \(n\) is the number of nodes in the reference trajectory.

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The planner creates a dynamic directed graph \(G\), which is a set of all nodes, indicating different sample values of \(u_{curr} + \delta u_{curr}\), and edges currently in the graph. The cost of traversing from node \(n\) to node \(n' \in Successor(n)\) is denoted by \(c(n,n')\), where \(0 < c(n,n') < \infty\).

Referring to Fig. 4, the cost between \((x_k,x_k')\) is given by \(g(k)\), and the cost from \((x_{k+1},x_{k+1}')\) is denoted by \(h(k)\). The nodes are selected based on their priority, and it is determined by a two component key vector,

\[
key(v) = \frac{k_1(v)}{k_2(v)} = \frac{\dot{g}(v) + h'(v)}{g(v)},
\]

where \(0 \leq v < \text{(number of nodes)}\), and the keys are ordered lexicographically with the smaller key values having a higher priority.

In the proposed methodology, the algorithm looks ahead and verifies if it is possible to reach the reference trajectory in less than \(N\) steps. If yes, then it proceeds with merging strategy (Note that for the merging computations a maximum allocated time \(T_{ME}\) of the order of microseconds is preassigned.) Otherwise, a new trajectory needs to be replanned using an anytime version of SBMPO. The incorporation of the anytime version of the planner is part of ongoing work. However, for completeness Fig. 5, provides a schematic of the overall approach.

**IV. SIMULATION RESULTS**

In the following simulations a unicycle kinematic model is assumed, and is given in discrete time by

\[
\begin{align*}
x_{k+1} &= x_k + v_k \cos(\theta_{k+1})T, \\
y_{k+1} &= y_k + v_k \sin(\theta_{k+1})T, \\
\theta_{k+1} &= \theta_k + \omega_k T,
\end{align*}
\]

where \((x,y)\) is the position of the vehicle in the global coordinate frame of Fig. 6, \(v\) is the linear velocity, \(\omega\) is the
angular velocity and $\theta$ is the vehicle’s orientation with respect to the X axis. The control inputs of the vehicle are $(\omega, v)$, and the states are sampled with period $T$. In addition, the selected cost function is distance; however the approach can easily use other cost functions such as energy [17] or time [14].

In the simulations, SBMPO is used to generate the reference trajectory. The control inputs from the trajectory are then given to the vehicle in a sequential manner, which if executed properly will take the vehicle to the desired goal state. Figure 7 shows a situation where the vehicle deviates (an external deviation error at $(-0.5, 1.5)$ was introduced) from the desired trajectory and the sampling-based merging approach is not employed. Notice the difference between the reference and not-corrected trajectories. If the planner replans every time the vehicle deviates, then a trajectory like the one shown in Fig. 8 is obtained.

However, it is important to recall that replanning is expensive, which is one of the main motivations for the proposed approach, which intelligently makes a choice between merging and replanning. Figure 9 shows the trajectory generated by the algorithm proposed in Section III (computation time = 8ms), which quickly estimates the new control inputs required to merge onto the reference trajectory and replans only when it is necessary, thereby reducing the computation time required to generate a corrected trajectory. The computation time of the trajectory merging approach is 0.09ms while time taken by replanning approach is 5ms. This clearly shows that replanning can be a computationally expensive choice in some cases.

V. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

The FAMU-FSU Bot shown in Fig.10 is a skid-steered vehicle, which employs 2 mechanically coupled Pittman GM 9236 brushed DC motors per side. Each pair of motors is controlled using a current control approach by a Maxon motor controller (4-Q-dc). The motor controllers are configured to provide a maximum current of 5A, which corresponds to a maximum torque of about 4.35Nm. The range of angular velocity has been constrained to $[-0.33 \text{rad/s}, 0.33 \text{rad/s}]$, with a maximum linear velocity of 0.2m/s. The motion of the vehicle is tracked using 10 camera Vicon systems.
In the experiment, SBMPO used the kinematic model (6) to generate the reference trajectory and the corresponding control sequence. The vehicle’s position was tracked using a Vicon camera system. Figure 11 shows an experimental run with the original control sequence. The computation time required to generate the reference trajectory was 20\(\text{ms}\). The difference between the experimental trajectory and simulated trajectory was caused by vehicle slippage. Figure 12 shows a situation where an error of the order of 0.6m was introduced manually to the vehicle’s position at \((-0.3, 1.7)\)m and the sampling-based merging approach was not applied, resulting in the vehicle colliding with an obstacle. (The vehicle was stopped by a remote off button once it hit an obstacle.) When the sampling-based merging approach was used in the same scenario, the results shown in Figure 13 were obtained. The computation time of the trajectory merging approach was only 0.1\(\text{ms}\).

**VI. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK**

This paper has presented a robust trajectory tracking algorithm for autonomous vehicles. The approach is based on sampling and therefore can efficiently work with nonlinear models without the need to resort to complex feedback laws that are decoupled from the motion planner. In contrast, the proposed approach seamlessly integrates with sampling-based motion planners.

Simulation and preliminary experimental results show the efficiency and efficacy of the approach to drive the vehicle back to a reference trajectory in the presence of external disturbances. In particular the computation times of the trajectory merging approach can be well over an order of magnitude lower than the computation times demanded by complete replanning.
Fig. 13. Experimental result of SBMPO trajectory tracking algorithm; Dotted blue line represents deviation from the reference trajectory

Ongoing and future work involves the development and incorporation of an anytime version of SBMPO, which will enable the replanning of trajectories on demand when the pose errors are very large and the merging approach becomes infeasible. In addition, a detailed experimental validation of the approach will be conducted on outdoor surfaces. Special emphasis will be placed on autonomous ground vehicles moving on very slippery surfaces. Additionally, extensive simulations will be performed for autonomous rendezvous of a spacecraft moving in a cluttered environment [13], which involves a planning problem that relies on direct integration of an uncertain dynamic model.

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