Autonomous and Mobile Robots: Architectures and Whole-Body Control

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outline

- linear inverted pendulum model
- divergent component of motion
- legged locomotion
- architectures
- contact wrenches
- whole-body control



linear inverted pendulum

• the linear inverted pendulum (LIP) dynamics is

$$oxed{\ddot{oldsymbol{p}}_{c}^{x/y}=\eta^{2}(oldsymbol{p}_{c}^{x/y}-oldsymbol{p}_{z}^{x/y})} \qquad \eta=\sqrt{rac{g}{h}}$$

let us now study the main features of this model

linear inverted pendulum

 the LIP model is decoupled along x and y, so we can refer to a generic component p to lighten the notation

$$\ddot{p}_c = \eta^2 (p_c - p_z)$$

ullet we must identify state x, input u and output y for this system; one possible choice is

$$m{x} = \begin{pmatrix} p_c \\ \dot{p}_c \end{pmatrix}, \quad m{u} = p_z, \quad m{y} = p_c$$

now we can write the system in state-space form

$$\frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} p_c \\ \dot{p}_c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \eta^2 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} p_c \\ \dot{p}_c \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -\eta^2 \end{pmatrix} p_z$$

divergent component of motion

- ullet the LIP has two eigenvalues: $\pm \eta$
- we can perform a change of coordinates to decouple the dynamics associated with these eigenvalues

$$\begin{pmatrix} p_s \\ p_u \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1/\eta \\ 1 & 1/\eta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} p_c \\ \dot{p}_c \end{pmatrix}$$

• we call p_s the one that will be associated with $-\eta$ (stable) and p_u the one that will be associated the $+\eta$ (unstable)

divergent component of motion

 to perform this change of coordinates, we first have to identify the inverse transformation

$$\begin{pmatrix} p_c \\ \dot{p}_c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1/\eta \\ 1 & 1/\eta \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} p_s \\ p_u \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1/\eta & 1/\eta \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} p_s \\ p_u \end{pmatrix}$$

we can substitute it inside the state-space dynamics

$$\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1/\eta & 1/\eta \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} p_s \\ p_u \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \eta^2 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1/\eta & 1/\eta \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} p_s \\ p_u \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -\eta^2 \end{pmatrix} p_z$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} p_s \\ p_u \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -\eta & 0 \\ 0 & \eta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} p_s \\ p_u \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \eta \\ -\eta \end{pmatrix} p_z$$

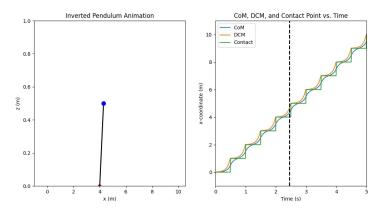
divergent component of motion

the decoupled dynamics are

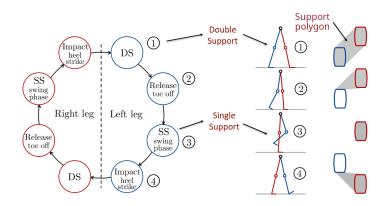
$$\dot{p}_s = \eta(p_z - p_s)$$
$$\dot{p}_u = \eta(p_u - p_z)$$

- the stable dynamics p_s is **attracted** to the ZMP
- the unstable dynamics p_u is **pushed away** from the ZMP
- in the literature, the latter is often called the **Divergent** Component of Motion (DCM): many methods focus on making sure the DCM doesn't diverge

example trajectories generated with a LIP



gait phases



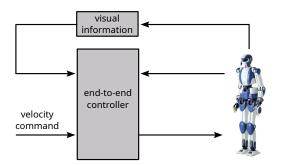
- human walking typically consists of the cyclic alternation of four phases
- robots typically have flat non-flexible feet, and are usually limited to single support and double support phases

architectures

- to generate the commands necessary to achieve these motions we can use different architectures
- let us take a look at some examples, before exploring in depth a specific architecture
 - end-to-end architectures
 - architectures that use whole-body predictive controllers
 - architectures that perform predictive control with a simplified model

end-to-end architectures

 end-to-end architectures are typically data-driven (e.g., based on reinforcement learning or imitation learning)

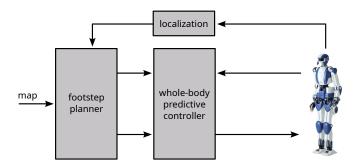


end-to-end architectures

- the strength of these techniques lies in the fact that they can directly use visual information, e.g., coming from an RGB camera, to perceive the environment
- challenges include the sim-to-real gap usually found in learning-based controllers, and the fact that performing a different task usually requires retraining
- as of now, these approaches work well on quadrupeds but are more challenging on humanoids

whole-body predictive controllers

 some architectures are based on perform predictive control on the whole-body model of the robot

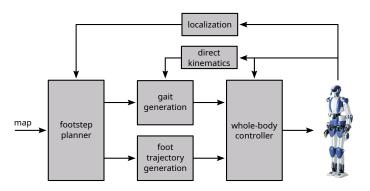


whole-body predictive controllers

- these techniques are potentially capable of performing very dynamic motions, such as running and jumping
- they require heavy computations, and often a good initial guess, to avoid the optimization getting stuck in a bad local minimum
- long-term goals must be planned using a separate technique (e.g., a footstep planner to reach a goal) and some form of localization

gait generation with a simplified model

 a common approach is to have a separate controller optimize the trajectory using a simplified model, that can then be tracked by a whole-body controller



gait generation with a simplified model

- the range of applicability of these architectures is limited by the range of validity of the assumptions used to derive the simplified model
- for achieving locomotion they can be quite effective, and with proper choice of the simplified model they even allow jumping and running
- let us now analyze more in detail a typical architecture of this kind, starting from the whole-body controller

whole-body control

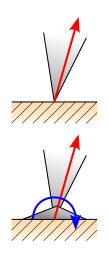
- whole-body control aims to coordinate all joints of the robot to achieve desired motions while satisfying physical constraints
- the desired motions are specified as a set of tasks, e.g., trajectory of the Center of Mass (CoM), the feet, the hands, etc..., that may be provided by other modules
- our goal is to find joint torques that realize these tasks, while also keeping the robot balanced

whole-body control

- the control torques τ will be determined by a constrained optimization problem, formulated as a Quadratic Program (QP), i.e., a quadratic function subject to linear constraints
- a cost function will encode the tasks that we want to achieve
- we will enforce constraints to ensure that the contact forces are feasible
- QPs can be solved very efficiently using off-the-shelf libraries

contact forces

- a point contact can only apply a force f, because it only constraint the contact position
- a surface contact also applies a torque τ, because it also constrains the orientation of the contact surface
- ullet the stack of the corresponding force and torque $oldsymbol{w}=(oldsymbol{f},oldsymbol{ au})$ is called the **contact** wrench



contact wrench constraints

- the requirements [Caron et al., 2015] that a contact wrench must satisfy are
 - unilaterality: the force must push away from the contact surface
 - no slipping: if we want to avoid relative motion of the contact surfaces, we must ensure sufficient friction
 - no tilting: if we want to maintain a surface contact, we must impose constraints on the ZMP

Caron et al., "Stability of surface contacts for humanoid robots: Closed-form formulae of the Contact Wrench Cone for rectangular support areas", ICRA, 2015

unilaterality constraint

 the unilaterality constraint is relatively straightforward: we must enforce that

$$f_z \ge 0$$

we can write this as a constraint on the contact wrench as

$$Aw \leq b$$

with

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

static friction

 to avoid slipping we must ensure that the contact has sufficient friction

• Coulomb's static friction model tells us that no slipping occurs as long as the vertical contact force f_z and the tangential contact force $f_t = \sqrt{f_x^2 + f_y^2}$ satisfy

$$|f_t| \le \mu f_z \implies \sqrt{f_x^2 + f_y^2} \le \mu f_z$$

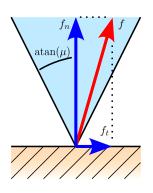
where $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ is the friction coefficient, dependent on the materials

static friction

this condition can be rewritten as

$$\left| \frac{f_t}{f_z} \right| \le \mu$$

- there is a geometric interpretation: the angle between the vertical and tangential component of the force must be less than atan(µ)
- the range of allowed forces defines a friction cone



static friction constraint

• to make it linear, we approximate it using a smaller $\bar{\mu} < \mu$

$$-\bar{\mu}f_z \le f_x \le \bar{\mu}f_z$$
$$-\bar{\mu}f_z \le f_y \le \bar{\mu}f_z$$

ullet on the contact wrench, we can write it as $Aw \leq b$, with

$$m{A} = egin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -ar{\mu} & 0 & 0 & 0 \ -1 & 0 & -ar{\mu} & 0 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 1 & -ar{\mu} & 0 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & -1 & -ar{\mu} & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad m{b} = egin{pmatrix} 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

contact wrench constraints

• there is a final condition that requires that $au_{\min} \leq au_z \leq au_{\max}$, with

$$\tau_{\min} = -\bar{\mu}(d_x + d_y)f_z + |d_y f_x - \bar{\mu}\tau_x| + |d_x f_y - \bar{\mu}\tau_y|$$

$$\tau_{\max} = +\bar{\mu}(d_x + d_y)f_z - |d_y f_x + \bar{\mu}\tau_x| - |d_x f_y + \bar{\mu}\tau_y|$$

 this condition looks more complex, but it can be written as a set of linear constraints on the contact wrench (see Caron et al.)

ZMP constraint

- now we must ensure that the foot does not tilt: this can be done by imposing a constraint on the ZMP
- we saw that a ZMP outside the contact surface is equivalent to infeasible contact forces
- therefore, we must keep the ZMP of each contact within the contact surface

ZMP constraints

 \bullet compute the horizontal moments with respect to a generic point on the ground p_o

$$f_z(x_f - x_o) - \tau_y = M_o$$

$$f_z(y_f - y_o) + \tau_x = M_o$$

• if p_o is a ZMP, by definition $M_o = 0$

$$f_z(x_f - x_z) - \tau_y = 0$$

$$f_z(y_f - y_z) + \tau_x = 0$$

therefore, the position of the ZMP is

$$x_z - x_f = -\frac{\tau_y}{f_z}$$
$$y_z - y_f = \frac{\tau_x}{f_z}$$

ZMP constraints

• if the foot has a rectangular shape, with size $(2d_x,2d_y)$, to keep the ZMP within the foot surface, we impose that

$$|x_z - x_f| \le d_x$$
$$|y_z - y_f| \le d_y$$

this is equivalent to

$$-d_x \le \frac{\tau_y}{f_z} \le d_x$$
$$-d_y \le \frac{\tau_x}{f_z} \le d_y$$

ullet on the contact wrench w, we can write as $Aw \leq b$, with

$$\boldsymbol{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & -d_x & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -d_x & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -d_y & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -d_y & -1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad \boldsymbol{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Cartesian tasks

- we define the j-th Cartesian task in terms of position ${m p}_j(t)$, velocity ${m v}_j(t)$ and acceleration ${m a}_j(t)$
- for each task we write a PD + feedforward law

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- the tasks that we typically include are
 - tracking a center of mass trajectory
 - tracking trajectories of the feet for stepping
 - tracking an angular momentum reference
 - tracking a torso reference orientation
 - tracking a reference joint configuration, to resolve redundancy
 - tracking hand trajectories, for manipulation tasks



Cartesian tasks

- a particularly important kinematic task is the one relative to the foot in contact
- since this foot is in contact with the ground, both its velocity $v_{c,i}$ and acceleration $a_{c,i}$ must be zero

$$\mathbf{v}_{c,i} = 0 \implies \mathbf{a}_{c,i} = \mathbf{J}_{c,i}\dot{\mathbf{v}} + \dot{\mathbf{J}}_{c,i}\nu = -k_v \mathbf{v}_{c,i}$$

 to effectively control the floating base, this task must be executed with precision, which is why it is often imposed as a constraint

whole-body QP

the QP can be formulated as

$$\min_{\dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}},\boldsymbol{\tau},\boldsymbol{w}_i} \sum_{j} \alpha_j \left(\boldsymbol{J}_j \dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}} + \dot{\boldsymbol{J}} \boldsymbol{\nu} - \boldsymbol{a}_j^d - k_p (\boldsymbol{p}_j^d - \boldsymbol{p}_j) - k_v (\boldsymbol{v}_j^d - \boldsymbol{v}_j) \right)^2$$
s.t. $M\dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}} + \boldsymbol{n} = \boldsymbol{S}\boldsymbol{\tau} + \sum_{i} \boldsymbol{J}_i^T \boldsymbol{w}_i$

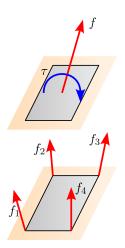
$$J_{c,i} \dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}} + \dot{\boldsymbol{J}}_{c,i} \boldsymbol{\nu} = -k_v \boldsymbol{v}_{c,i}$$

$$\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{w}_j \leq \boldsymbol{b}$$

- \sum_j sums over all the task that we want our robot to achieve, with weights α_j
- constraints include dynamics, contact constraints, and contact wrench constraints

four-forces contact model

- the conditions we need to impose on the contact wrenches (in particular that on τ_z) are rather complex
- a different approach is to use a contact model in which we specify that each contact is mediated by a predefined number of forces, and no torque (usually 4 forces)



four-forces contact model

- on each of these four forces we need to impose the usual force constraints: unilaterality and friction cone
- no need to worry about the ZMP: imposing unilaterality of the four forces is equivalent to imposing that the ZMP is inside the convex hull of their points of application
- some people prefer this approach to using contact wrenches, but they are equivalent