

Constrained Articulated Body Dynamics Algorithms ¹

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I. INTRODUCTION

Efficient rigid body dynamics algorithms [1] have played an essential role in robotics development. They enable dynamics evaluation in chip sets with limited resources and at high frequencies for demanding applications (e.g., computed torque control, model predictive control, large-scale simulation, reinforcement learning, etc.). Most simulators [2]–[6] use low-complexity algorithms such as the articulated body algorithm (ABA) [1], [7]–[9], which has $O(n)$ complexity, where n is the robot’s degrees-of-freedom (DoF) only in constraint-free settings. In constrained settings, the simulators resort to Featherstone’s sparsity-exploiting LTL algorithm in the joint space [10], [11], which has high computational complexity of $O(nd^2 + m^2d + md^2 + m^3)$, where m and d are the constraint dimensionality and the kinematic tree depth respectively.

A few low-complexity algorithms have been proposed for constrained dynamical systems, such as the Popov-Vereshchagin algorithm (PV algorithm) [12], [13] for kinematic trees with $O(n + m^2d + m^3)$ complexity. The PV algorithm was independently discovered and further extended to kinematic loops in [14], [15] with the same computational complexity. See [16] for an expository derivation of the PV algorithm by solving the Gauss’ principle of least constraint (GPLC) [17] using an equivalent linear quadratic regulator (LQR) formulation. [16] also proposed PV-soft and PV-early algorithms, each with only $O(n + m)$ complexity. PV-soft relaxes all motion constraints using quadratic penalties, while PV-early relies on the expensive singular value decomposition [18] (SVD). However, these efficient algorithms suffer from being fairly complex to derive and implement and perhaps due to which, their usage in simulators is currently low. Moreover, they cannot adequately deal with singular cases (e.g., redundant constraints, singular constraints, etc.), in which cases, they resort to Tikhonov regularization (which biases solutions towards origin adversely affecting constraint satisfaction) or the expensive SVD algorithms.

	λ before $\dot{\nu}$	$\dot{\nu}$ before λ
maximal	constrainedABA $O(n + m)$	proxPV $O(n + m^2d + m^3)$
minimal	proxLTLs $O(nd^2 + md)$	proxLTL $O(nd^2 + m^2d + md^2 + m^3)$

Fig. 1: Overview of the proximal dynamics algorithms.

Addressing these issues, we present three new constrained dynamics algorithms (CDAs) constrainedABA, proxPV and proxLTLs based on proximal algorithms [19] that are simple and effectively handle singular cases. These algorithms are closely related to the proxLTL [6] algorithm and arise depending on whether joint accelerations or constraint forces are eliminated first and depending on the usage of maximal or minimal coordinates as shown in the overview figure Fig. 1.

II. PROXIMAL REFORMULATION OF CONSTRAINED DYNAMICS

A. Constrained dynamics in generalized coordinates

Constrained dynamics. According to GPLC [17], [20], [21], the acceleration $\dot{\nu}$ of a constrained system at state (\mathbf{q}, ν) , when acted upon by τ , is the minimizer of the following equality-constrained strongly convex quadratic program (QP):

$$\underset{\dot{\nu}}{\text{minimize}} \quad \frac{1}{2} \|\dot{\nu} - \dot{\nu}_{\text{free}}(\mathbf{q}, \dot{\nu}, \tau)\|_{M(\mathbf{q})}^2 \quad (1a)$$

$$\text{subject to} \quad J_{f_c}(\mathbf{q})\dot{\nu} + \dot{J}_{f_c}(\mathbf{q}, \nu)\nu = \mathbf{a}_c^* - \gamma_{f_c}(\mathbf{q}, \nu), \quad (1b)$$

where $M(\mathbf{q}) \in \mathbb{S}_{++}^n$ is the joint-space inertia matrix (JSIM) and unconstrained joint-space acceleration

$$\dot{\nu}_{\text{free}}(\mathbf{q}, \dot{\nu}, \tau) := M^{-1}(\mathbf{q}) (\tau - \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{q}, \nu)), \quad (2)$$

where $\mathbf{c}(\mathbf{q}, \nu)$ is the generalized force vector due to gravity, Coriolis and centripetal effects. Eq. (1b) is motion constraint expressed at the acceleration level. The variable dependencies will be dropped for brevity whenever obvious from the context. **Constrained dynamics Lagrangian.** The solution to the QP above is the primal-dual saddle point of the Lagrangian [22]

$$(\dot{\nu}^*, \lambda^*) = \underset{\lambda}{\text{arg max}} \underset{\dot{\nu}}{\text{min}} \mathcal{L}(\dot{\nu}, \lambda), \quad (3)$$

where

$$\mathcal{L}(\dot{\nu}, \lambda) := \frac{1}{2} \|\dot{\nu} - \dot{\nu}_{\text{free}}\|_M^2 + \lambda^T (J_{f_c} \dot{\nu} + \gamma_{f_c} - \mathbf{a}_c^*). \quad (4)$$

Eliminating $\dot{\nu}$ using

$$\dot{\nu} = \dot{\nu}_{\text{free}} - M^{-1} J_{f_c}^T \lambda, \quad (5)$$

and back-substituting in Eq. (3), gives the dual function

$$g(\lambda) = -\frac{1}{2} \lambda^T \Lambda^{-1} \lambda + (J_{f_c} \dot{\nu}_{\text{free}} + \gamma_{f_c} - \mathbf{a}_c^*)^T \lambda, \quad (6)$$

where $\Lambda^{-1}(\mathbf{q}) := J_{f_c} M^{-1} J_{f_c}^T$ is the so-called Delassus matrix [23], [24], also known as the inverse operational space inertial matrix (inverse OSIM) [25]. When Λ^{-1} is full rank, the optimal Lagrange multipliers is obtained by solving

$$\Lambda^{-1} \lambda^* = J_{f_c} \dot{\nu}_{\text{free}} + \gamma_{f_c} - \mathbf{a}_c^*. \quad (7)$$

However, in practice, Λ^{-1} often does not have full rank due to redundant constraints or kinematic singularities and we propose using two popular optimization approaches to solving the QP in Eq. (1), that are mathematically equivalent but differ in their computational cost.

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1) *Dual proximal point method (proxLTL)*: An exact and efficient alternative to Tikhonov regularization or SVD that we will leverage is the proximal point algorithm (PPA) [19], [26], which is effective for robotics problems [27]–[29], and most often requiring few iterations (each of which is efficient) to converge for robot dynamics problems [27]. Applying PPA to optimize the dual function in Eq. (6) gives

$$\lambda^{k+1} = \text{prox}_{\mu, -g}(\lambda^k) = \arg \min_{\lambda} -g(\lambda) + \frac{1}{2\mu} \|\lambda - \lambda^k\|^2, \quad (8a)$$

$$= \Lambda_{\mu} \left(J_{\mathbf{f}_c} \dot{\mathbf{v}}_{\text{free}} + \gamma_{\mathbf{f}_c} - \mathbf{a}_c^* + \frac{1}{\mu} \lambda^k \right), \quad (8b)$$

where $\Lambda_{\mu}^{-1} := \Lambda^{-1} + \frac{1}{\mu} I$ is the damped Delassus matrix. $\Lambda_{\mu}^{-1} \in \mathbb{S}_{++}^m$ and can be factorized efficiently using Cholesky decomposition. This algorithm, which we will call proxLTL, has already been implemented in the PINOCCHIO library [27]. Even if the primal problem in Eq. (1) is infeasible (e.g., due to redundant constraints and Baumgarte terms [30]), it has been shown [31]–[33] that the primal residuals converges to a desirable least squares residual solution during PPA iterations.

2) *Augmented Lagrangian method (proxLTLs)*: An alternative to proxLTL that can solve the QP in Eq. (1) exactly is the augmented Lagrangian method [34], [35] (ALM), where the augmented Lagrangian function is

$$\mathcal{L}^A(\dot{\mathbf{v}}, \lambda) := \mathcal{L}(\dot{\mathbf{v}}, \lambda) + \frac{\mu}{2} \|J_{\mathbf{f}_c} \dot{\mathbf{v}} + \gamma_{\mathbf{f}_c} - \mathbf{a}_c^*\|^2. \quad (9)$$

ALM iterations alternately optimize \mathcal{L}^A over its primal and dual variables

$$\dot{\mathbf{v}}^{k+1} = M_{\mu}^{-1} \left\{ M \dot{\mathbf{v}}_{\text{free}} - J_{\mathbf{f}_c}^T \left(\lambda^k + \mu (\gamma_{\mathbf{f}_c} - \mathbf{a}_c^*) \right) \right\}, \quad (10a)$$

$$\lambda^{k+1} = \lambda^k + \mu \left(J_{\mathbf{f}_c} \dot{\mathbf{v}}^{k+1} + \gamma_{\mathbf{f}_c} - \mathbf{a}_c^* \right), \quad (10b)$$

where $M_{\mu} := M + \mu J_{\mathbf{f}_c}^T J_{\mathbf{f}_c}$ is the augmented JSIM, with the influence of the constraints from the quadratic term in the augmented Lagrangian function.

B. Constrained dynamics in maximal coordinates

In the so-called ‘maximal’ coordinates, we will use Featherstone’s spatial algebra [1] to refer to rigid body quantities. Both proxLTL and proxLTLs algorithms have lower complexity counterparts proxPV and constrainedABA respectively, that can be derived by applying dynamic programming (DP) on the problem of Gauss’ principle in the so-called maximal coordinates [21]

$$\underset{\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{a}}{\text{minimize}} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n_b} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{a}_i^T H_i \mathbf{a}_i - \mathbf{f}_i^T \mathbf{a}_i \right\} \quad (11a)$$

$$\text{subject to} \quad \mathbf{a}_i = \mathbf{a}_{\pi(i)} + S_i \dot{\mathbf{v}}_i + \mathbf{a}_{b,i}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n_b, \quad (11b)$$

$$K_i \mathbf{a}_i = \mathbf{k}_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n_b, \quad (11c)$$

$$\mathbf{a}_0 = -\mathbf{a}_{\text{grav}}, \quad (11d)$$

All the spatial quantities are expressed in the inertial frame in our subsequent derivations for simplicity of notation. $\pi(i)$ is the parent link of the i^{th} link in the kinematic tree, $\mathbf{v}_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n_i}$ is the i^{th} joint’s generalized velocities, $\dot{\mathbf{v}}_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n_i}$ is the i^{th} joint’s

generalized accelerations. S_i is the i^{th} joint’s motion subspace matrix of size $6 \times n_i$, with n_i being the i^{th} joint’s DoF.

III. COMPUTATIONAL BENCHMARKING, DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

We now present the benchmarking results of this paper’s algorithms on diverse robots, namely Kuka Iiwa (7 DoF chain), Solo (18 DoF tree) [36], Talos (50 DoF tree) [37], and Atlas with two shadow-hands attached to each wrist (84 DoF tree). Constraints on a hand, fingertip, or feet in the benchmarks are represented as H_{m_i} , T_{m_i} or F_{m_i} respectively where m_i is the constraint dimension. We implemented proxPV, proxLTLs and constrainedABA in C++ within the PINOCCHIO library [6], and compared them along with the proxLTL algorithm [27] already available in PINOCCHIO. All timings were benchmarked on a 13th Gen Intel® Core™ i9-13950HX laptop CPU running Ubuntu 22.04 LTS operating system. The code was compiled using Clang-14 compiler with the usual optimized compilation flags `-O3 -march=native`. Table I lists the benchmarking results.

TABLE I: Computational timings of the algorithms in μs with Turbo Boost enabled. Each algorithm is allowed three proximal iterations.

System	cABA	PV	LTLs	LTL
Iiwa - H ₃	0.97	0.95	0.99	1.51
Iiwa - H ₆	1.02	1.33	1.0	2.0
Solo - F ₃ ²	1.81	2.11	2.06	3.08
Solo - F ₃ ⁴	2.25	2.84	2.27	4.06
Talos - F ₆ ²	5.02	6.27	7.14	10.2
Talos - F ₆ ² H ₆ ²	6.21	8.84	7.57	14.5
Atlas SR - F ₆ ²	7.90	9.56	13.4	17.7
Atlas SR - F ₆ ² T ₃ ⁵	9.95	14.0	14.7	26.5
Atlas SR - F ₆ ² T ₃ ¹⁰	11.7	20.8	15.0	36.8

ConstrainedABA is the first linear complexity algorithm that deals with singular cases without resorting to expensive SVD computation, that we are aware of, and perhaps the simplest. ConstrainedABA emerged as the fastest out of the four algorithms for larger robots like quadrupeds and humanoids, being over 2x faster than proxLTL, the previously existing state-of-the-art C++ implementation. The higher complexity proxLTLs surprisingly remained competitive even for larger robots, when heavily constrained, due to linear complexity in constraint dimension and an efficient vectorized C++ implementation.

The proximal formulation generalizes and establishes connections between existing algorithms like MUJoCo’s solver, PV-soft, and PV-early. It is a powerful formulation that enables efficient trading-off between MUJoCo-style compliance and an expensive SVD-style rigid contact during singular cases (and also in general) through fast proximal iterations. ConstrainedABA and proxLTLs, in particular, are fairly straightforward to implement, by introducing only a few new lines of additional code compared to Featherstone’s original ABA and LTL algorithms.

We invite interested readers to refer to [38] for a complete description, derivation, analysis and detailed benchmarking of the presented algorithms. [38] also proposes cABA-OSIM, which computes the damped Delassus inverse matrix with the optimal complexity of $O(n + m^2)$.

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