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Constrained Articulated Body Algorithms for Closed-Loop Mechanisms

Ajay Suresha Sathya¹ and Justin Carpentier¹

Abstract—Efficient rigid-body dynamics algorithms are instrumental in enabling high-frequency dynamics evaluation for resource-intensive applications (e.g., model predictive control, large-scale simulation, reinforcement learning), potentially on resource-constrained hardware. Existing recursive algorithms with low computational complexity are mostly restricted to kinematic trees with external contact constraints or are sensitive to singular cases (e.g., linearly dependent constraints and kinematic singularities), severely impacting their practical usage in existing simulators. This article introduces two original lowcomplexity recursive algorithms, loop-constrained articulated body algorithm (LCABA) and proxBBO, based on proximal dynamics formulation for forward simulation of mechanisms with loops. These algorithms are derived from first principles using non-serial dynamic programming, depict linear complexity in practical scenarios, and are numerically robust to singular cases. They extend the existing constrained articulated body algorithm (constrainedABA) to handle internal loops and the pioneering BBO algorithm from the 1980s to singular cases. Both algorithms have been implemented by leveraging the open-source Pinocchio library, benchmarked in detail, and depict state-ofthe-art performance for various robot topologies, including over 6x speed-ups compared to existing non-recursive algorithms for high degree-of-freedom systems with internal loops such as recent humanoid robots.

I. INTRODUCTION

Simulating rigid-body dynamics efficiently and reliably is an important and extensively researched [1] problem in robotics. Efficient simulation is key to unlocking computationally demanding downstream applications like model predictive control (MPC) [2], reinforcement learning (RL) [3], and generating synthetic and inexpensive training data for modern data-hungry foundation models. These simulation applications are at the forefront of research attempting to enable reliable and real-time loco-manipulation planning and control of high degree-of-freedom (DoF) robot systems in potentially contactrich scenarios. To effectively drive loco-manipulation research, the underlying constrained dynamics algorithm (CDA) used for simulation must efficiently and reliably address a broad class of motion constraints arising from contacts and kinematic loops while being robust to singular cases occurring at kinematic singularities or when constraints are linearly dependent.

Internal loops, i.e., a loop of kinematic links formed by motion constraints that does not consist of the ground link, is a particularly challenging class of constraints to simulate efficiently for existing CDAs. These class of constraints are

1 Inria - Département d'Informatique de l'École supérieure. PSL Research University. normale supérieure, PSL Research University. {ajay.sathya,justin.carpentier}@inria.fr

(a) Several internal closed loops (b) Humanoid platforms consistformed due to contact between the ing of internal loops in addition hand and the cube. to the loop formed due to collaborative manipulation.

Fig. 1: Examples of closed-loops interactions or mechanisms classically encountered in robotics.

increasingly gaining critical importance with recent humanoid robots design consisting of kinematic loops due to improved mechanical properties. Even robots without inherent kinematic loops can form internal loops during operation, e.g., a robot hand grasping a cube in Fig. 1a or two humanoids in Fig. 1b jointly transporting a heavy object. Submechanisms like gears and belt-transmissions are also known to result in internal loops, which needs to be accounted for simulation accuracy.

Despite the evident importance of internal loops, perhaps due to the challenge of simulating them efficiently, only a few existing simulators, such as BULLET [4], MUJOCO [5] or SIMPLE [6], support them. Even these select few simulators leverage the computationally expensive Featherstone's LTL algorithm [7], [8], [1], which has a computational complexity of $O(nd^2 + m^2d + md^2 + m^3)$, where n, d and m are the robot DoFs, kinematic spanning tree depth and the constraint dimensionality. The LTL algorithm does not exploit as much problem structure as possible. In contrast to the internal loop case, kinematic trees with external loops (e.g., contact with the ground) are well-addressed by recursive structure-exploiting CDAs such as the PV algorithm [9], [10] with $O(n + m^2d +$ $m³$) complexity and recent $O(n + m)$ complexity algorithms such as PV-soft, PV-early [11] and constrainedABA [12], all of which are made available in the form of an efficient C++ implementation within the widely used PINOCCHIO library. However, there exists pioneering work in recursive algorithms that exploit structure even for the internal loop case [13], [14], where the authors have independently proposed a practically identical algorithm, which we will call BBO (Brandl, Bae, and others) after the first authors of the two papers. These works are fairly involved in deriving and implementing and are also sensitive to singular cases. Perhaps, they remain widely unused or benchmarked against the prevalent highercomplexity algorithms due to these reasons.

Addressing the key need for efficient and reliable CDA for internal loops arising from robot design and contact interactions, this paper proposes two efficient *recursive* constrained dynamics algorithms, namely loop-constrained articulated body algorithm (LCABA) and proximal BBO (proxBBO). These algorithms are derived using Dynamic Programming (DP) [15] applied to the quadratic program (QP) [16] associated with the Gauss' principle of least constraint (GPLC) [17], [18], [19] similarly to [11], [12]. However, the existence of internal loops leads to a graph structure, which requires the usage of non-serial DP [20, Chap. 10], [21], [22], and resulting in a variable elimination (also known as bucket elimination) approach. This methodology has been highly effective in the closely associated problem of exact inference in probabilistic graphical models [23].

Article contributions. Our contributions are listed as follows:

- 1) LCABA: LCABA, a recursive efficient algorithm that can handle singular cases and internal loops with a bestcase complexity of $O(n + m)$, is derived by applying non-serial dynamic programming on GPLC problem.
- 2) ProxBBO: The BBO algorithm [13], [14] is generalized to handle singular cases using a proximal dynamics formulation to obtain the proxBBO algorithm. The prox-BBO algorithm is derived similarly to LCABA, but with a different variable elimination order, and also has a best-case complexity of $O(n + m)$.
- 3) Open-source and efficient implementations, detailed benchmarking and analysis: Both the algorithms have been implemented in C++, leveraging the open-source library PINOCCHIO [24], and will be made publicly available after the review process. These algorithms are extensively benchmarked with the prevalent nonrecursive LTL algorithm for different robot topologies.

Article organization. Section II reviews existing literature to situate our contributions, followed by Section III introducing the notation and necessary prior knowledge. The LCABA algorithm is derived, analyzed, and presented in an algorithmic form in Section IV, with an analogous treatment for the proxBBO algorithm in Section V. Section VI presents implementation details and benchmarking results, followed by a discussion in Section VII. Finally, Section VIII concludes the paper and outlines future work.

II. RELATED WORK

Constrained dynamics algorithms can be broadly classified based on whether they are recursive algorithms or operate on the joint-space formulation (also called generalized/minimal/reduced coordinates). All the CDAs considered in this paper leverage a spanning tree of the underlying kinematic graph representing the mechanism, where links correspond to nodes, and joints are associated with the edges. The joints associated with the edges absent in the spanning tree are termed cut joints and are imposed as loop-closure motion constraints.

CDAs can be further classified based on whether these motion constraints are formulated implicitly or explicitly [1, Eq.3.11]. Implicit formulation imposes constraints implicitly through additional constraint equations that are solved simultaneously with the equations of motion. In the explicit constraint formulation, a set of *independent* coordinates parametrizing the mechanism's constrained motion are computed, and the mechanism's equations of motion are projected onto these independent coordinates and solved. For the sake of completeness, we note a non-spanning tree approach inspired by [25], that constructs a large and sparse linear system consisting of each link's Newton-Euler equations and joint constraint equations, which is then solved using a general-purpose sparse linear solver. This approach is typically not computationally competitive against the spanning-tree-based algorithms [1]. Yet, due to its simplicity, it may be preferred when reduced engineering effort is important compared to computational efficiency, such as in the DoJo simulator [26].

In the remainder of this section, we begin by reviewing existing algorithms, first for the unconstrained kinematic tree case and then for the CDAs associated with the explicit and implicit constraint formulations.

Unconstrained kinematic trees. Even for the unconstrained kinematic trees, dynamics algorithms can be joint-space-based or recursive. The joint-space approach corresponds to computing the joint-space inertia matrix (JSIM) (typically using the efficient composite rigid body algorithm (CRBA) [27]), and factorizing the JSIM efficiently using the LTL algorithm [7] that exploits branching-induced sparsity in JSIM to reduce the factorization cost from $O(n^3)$ operations to $O(nd^2)$ operations. In contrast, the recursive algorithm for the unconstrained case corresponds to the articulated body algorithm (ABA) [28], [29], [30], which has a linear computational complexity of $O(n)$, and scales better to high DoF systems like legged robots compared to the cubic complexity joint-space approach.

Implicit constraint approach. The implicit approach solves the primal-dual system of dynamics equations and constraint equations. External loops, arising commonly out of robotground contacts, constitute a special class of implicit constraints that can be solved straightforwardly by cutting the loop at the ground link to preserve a tree structure. The joint-space LTL algorithm was extended in [8] to account for external loops by exploiting the branching-induced sparsity to compute a computationally expensive intermediate quantity known as the Delassus matrix [31], [32] (also named inverse operational space inertia matrix (OSIM) in the robotics community [33]). This results in a $O(nd^2 + m^2d + md^2 + m^3)$ complexity algorithm. [34] introduces an extension of the LTL factorization proposed in [7] to exploit branching-induced sparsity in the Karush–Kuhn–Tucker matrix associated with the constrained dynamics problem, reducing the factorization cost from $O((n + m)^3)$ to $O((n + m)(d + m)^2)$ operations. Additionally, the authors of [34] suggest leveraging the proximal methods of multipliers [35] to cope with singular

cases accurately. Among recursive algorithms for the implicit external loops constraints, the PV algorithm [9], [10] is a pioneering contribution with a $O(n+m^2d+m^3)$ computational complexity. The PV algorithm was recently revisited in [11], which provides a DP-based derivation for the PV algorithm by solving an equivalent discrete-time linear quadratic regulator [2] problem. [11] further proposed two original algorithms, PV-soft and PV-early, by relaxing motion constraints with quadratic penalties and through early elimination of constraint forces, respectively, both of which have a computational complexity of $O(n + m)$. However, PV-soft violates motion constraints, while PV-early is significantly challenging to implement, especially for singular cases (e.g., when there are redundant constraints). Finally, [12] applied the augmented Lagrangian method (ALM) [36], [37] on the proximal constrained dynamics formulation [34] to derive a particularly simple iterative algorithm constrainedABA, that retains the optimal $O(n + m)$ complexity of PV-early algorithm, while reliably handling singular cases and being significantly simpler to implement.

For both the joint-space methods and the recursive algorithms, the internal loop case is more challenging to implement and represents a significant increase in computational cost. [1, Chap.8] provides a detailed discussion on exploiting branching-induced sparsity for kinematics quantities associated with loop joints. Among joint-space methods, the LTL algorithm was extended to internal loops in [34] and generalized to singular cases using proximal algorithms [38]. We will refer to it as the proxLTL algorithm. The proxLTL algorithm has been implemented particularly efficiently in C++ in the PINOCCHIO library [24]. The LTL and proxLTL algorithms retain the $O(nd^2 + m^2d + md^2 + m^3)$ complexity for the internal loop case. Recursive algorithms for the internal loop case were pioneered by the BBO algorithm [13] and [14] by independently rediscovering the PV algorithm and extending it to internal loops, resulting in a worst-case $O(n + m^2d + m^3)$ complexity algorithm. Both these works also pioneered the early elimination of internal loop constraints, resulting in a best-case computational complexity of $O(n + m)$ for local loops. The worst-case complexity manifests only when all the loops are coupled with each other (e.g., external loops).

Despite its low computational complexity, the BBO algorithm has not been adopted in existing simulators, perhaps due to its complexity, sensitivity to singular cases, absence of open-source implementations, and lack of benchmarking. Considering the demonstrated computational speed-ups provided by the recursive algorithms [11], [12] for external loops, there exists an unexplored opportunity to exploit recursive algorithms for internal loops, with the need for making them robust to singular cases, which is addressed by this article.

Explicit constraint approach. The explicit constraint formulation directly parametrizes the effective DoFs of the constrained system using independent coordinates, which are generally obtained by computing the nullspace of the implicit constraint formulation which scales cubically. The worst-case for this approach manifests for mechanisms with a large loop consisting of \propto *n* links. Once the explicit constraint formulation is obtained, the problem can be solved using either the joint-space or recursive approaches. For the explicit constraint approach, the external and internal loops are identical in computational cost and implementation difficulty. In the jointspace approach, the JSIM and the joint torques are projected onto the independent coordinates and solved, which typically corresponds to $O(n^2n_m + nn_m^2 + n_m^3)$ operations, where n_m is the mobility of the constrained system. *Local* loops, e.g., due to a four-bar linkage, permit an efficient recursive approach through linear constraint embedding (LCE) [39], [40]. LCE aggregates the links constituting a coupled loop with the corresponding generalization of rigid-body quantities such as spatial inertia, motion, and force vectors. This aggregation transforms a mechanism's graph into a tree topology consisting of the aggregated links, to which the articulatedbody algorithm is straightforwardly adapted to, resulting in a recursive algorithm. When all loops are local, LCE-ABA has a best-case computational complexity of $O(n + m)$. It is particularly well-suited to handle local loops resulting from submechanisms such as gears, where the explicit constraint formulation is readily available and the loops are local. This algorithm has recently been implemented and open-sourced in [41]. The explicit approach has limited generality, as it becomes inefficient for large loops or coupled loops, which can occur frequently, e.g., for external loops when a robot makes multi-point contact with the ground. They are, moreover, sensitive to singular cases that can occur when loop-closure constraints become linearly dependent.

III. PRELIMINARIES

This section introduces the notation used in the paper, the connectivity graph representation of a mechanism, and the Gauss' principle of least constraint. We also review the two equivalent QP solver approaches, the augmented Lagrangian method (ALM) and the dual proximal point algorithm (PPA), that will be used to derive constrainedABA and the proxBBO algorithms respectively. This is followed by a brief introduction to non-serial DP and joint-space CDAs.

A. Notation

Lower-case symbols (x) , bold-faced lower-case symbols (x) , and upper-case symbols (X) represent scalars, vectors, and matrices, respectively. $C(.)$ operator returns the cardinality of a given set. The operator $:=$ defines the left side symbol with the right side expression. The operators \leftarrow , $\stackrel{+}{\leftarrow}$ and $\stackrel{-}{\leftarrow}$ assigns, increments or decrements respectively the left side variable with the right side expression. The set of symmetric positive definite and symmetric positive semi-definite matrices of size $m \times m$ are denoted as \mathbb{S}_{++}^m and \mathbb{S}_{++}^m respectively. Any variable x overset with a bar and a indexed with a set Y as \bar{x}_y concatenates all the $x_i, \forall i \in \mathcal{Y}$. Any list X is reversed and denoted by \mathcal{X}_r .

Let $\mathbf{q} \in \mathcal{Q}, \nu \in \mathcal{T}_{q} \mathcal{Q} \simeq \mathbb{R}^{n}$ and $\dot{\nu}$ be the robot generalized configuration, generalized velocity, and generalized accelerations respectively, where Q and T_qQ are the robot's configuration space and Q 's tangent space at q respectively.

Let $\tau \in \mathcal{T}_{q}^{*} \mathcal{Q} \simeq \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be the generalized forces exerted on the robot. We use Featherstone's spatial algebra [1] for rigid body quantities. The 6D spatial velocity and acceleration of a rigid body indexed by i is $\mathbf{v}_i \in \mathbb{M}^6$ and, $\mathbf{a}_i \in \mathbb{M}^6$ respectively, where \mathbb{M}^6 is the spatial motion vector space. The spatial forces acting on the i^{th} body is $f_i \in \mathbb{F}^6$, where \mathbb{F}^6 is the spatial force vector space that is dual to \mathbb{M}^6 . The spatial inertia of the i^{th} link is $H_i \in \mathbb{I}^{6 \times 6} \simeq \mathbb{S}_{++}^6$ and maps \mathbb{M}^6 to \mathbb{F}^6 . \times and \times^* are the cross-product operators on the spatial motion and force vectors. Refer [1] for more details on the spatial algebra.

B. Kinematic graph

Let a mechanism with n_b links be modeled via a connectivity graph as seen in Fig. 2a for an illustrative mechanism, where the mechanism's links are nodes and joints are edges and the ground is the $0th$ link, also called the root link. For floating-base mechanisms, such as legged robots, the floatingbase link is connected to the root through a 'free-flying joint' that permits relative motion freely between the root and the floating-base. A tree is a special type of graph that is acyclic, i.e., there is a unique path between any two nodes. A subgraph of a graph consists of a subset of the original graph's links and joints. A spanning tree is a subgraph that is a tree and consists of all the nodes of the original graph. The original graph's edges absent in the spanning tree are termed cut edges or cut joints. For a given joint indexed i in the spanning tree connecting two links, the link closer to the root and the other link are termed the joint's parent link and child link, respectively, and numbered $\pi(i)$ and i respectively. All the non-root links and joints are numbered topologically from 1 to n_b , such that $\pi(i) < i$, and the cutjoints are numbered from $n_b + 1$ to $n_b + m_b$. Let the lists $S = \{1, 2, \ldots, n_b\}$ and $\mathcal{E} = \{n_b + 1, n_b + 2, \ldots, n_b + m_b\}$ index the non-root links/joints and cut-joints respectively. Let l_i^1 and l_i^2 index the two links connected by cut-joint *i*. Let the set $\gamma(i) = \{j \in S \mid \pi(j) = i\}$ consist of the ith link's children links. For the illustrative graph in Fig. 2a, Fig. 2b shows a spanning tree that is appropriately numbered, where spanning tree joints are shown as directed edges from parents to children links, and cut-joints are shown as dashed edges.

(a) Kinematic graph for an illus-(b) Spanning tree for the graph trative mechanism. in Fig. 2a.

A spanning tree defines m_b number of *fundamental loops* in the graph, where each fundamental loop, indexed i , is the loop created when a cut-joint i is added to the spanning tree. From now on, we will refer to each fundamental loop simply as a loop. Let the set $SL(i)$ (supporting links) contain indices of links supporting loop i , which means that these links constitute the loop *i*. Similarly, let the set $LS(i)$ (loops supported) contain indices of loops that link i supports. A loop i 's root, defined as $\mathfrak{r}_i = \min(\text{SL}(i))$, is the link with the smallest index in the loop. Let the set \mathcal{R}_i denote the set of loops for which link i is the loop root. Two loops i and j are considered to be coupled if they contain at least one joint in common.

C. Gauss' principle of least constraint

We now recall the Gauss' principle of least constraint (GPLC) [17], [19], an optimization-based mechanics formulation, which states that a constrained rigid body's acceleration under forces is the minimizer of the following strongly convex quadratic program (QP) [9], [11]:

$$
\underset{\dot{\mathbf{v}}, \mathbf{a}}{\text{minimize}} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n_b} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{a}_i^T H_i \mathbf{a}_i - \mathbf{f}_i^T \mathbf{a}_i - \boldsymbol{\tau}_i^T \dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}_i \right\} \tag{1a}
$$

subject to $\mathbf{a}_i = \mathbf{a}_{\pi(i)} + S_i \dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}_i + \mathbf{a}_{b,i}, \quad i \in \mathcal{S},$ (1b)

$$
K_i^1 \mathbf{a}_{l_i^1} + K_i^2 \mathbf{a}_{l_i^2} = \mathbf{k}_i, \qquad i = \mathcal{E}, \qquad (1c)
$$

$$
\mathbf{a}_0 = -\mathbf{a}_{\text{grav}},\tag{1d}
$$

where f_i is the resultant spatial force on link i due to external forces and the bias forces $(-\mathbf{v}_i \times^* H_i \mathbf{v}_i), \nu_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n_i}, \tau_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n_i}$ and $\dot{v}_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n_i}$ are the i^{th} joint's generalized velocities, generalized accelerations and the joint torques respectively, where n_i is the ith joint's DoFs. The acceleration recurrence equation in Eq. (1b) explicitly formulates the spanning tree joint constraints. The column vectors of the matrix $S_i \in \mathbb{R}^{6 \times n_i}$ span the i^{th} joint's motion subspace. The i^{th} link's bias acceleration is $\mathbf{a}_{b,i} := \dot{S}_i \boldsymbol{\nu}_i$, which, due to the joint axis being commonly fixed w.r.t the parent link, is

$$
\mathbf{a}_{b,i} = \mathbf{v}_i \times S_i \boldsymbol{\nu}_i.
$$

The cut-joint motion constraints are implicitly formulated in Eq. (1c), where $K_i^1 \in \mathbb{R}^{m_i \times 6}$ and $K_i^2 \in \mathbb{R}^{m_i \times 6}$ are the constraint matrices on the links indexed l_i^1 and l_i^2 respectively, whose relative motion is constrained by the i^{th} cut-joint, $\mathbf{k}_i \in \mathbb{R}^{m_i}$ is desired constraint accelerations, where $m_i = 6 - n_i$ is the constraint dimension. Each row vector of K_i^1 (or K_i^2) is an element in \mathbb{F}^6 . A uniform acceleration field of minus acceleration-due-to-gravity is added by fixing the root node acceleration in Eq. (1d). This strategy [30] spares us from adding each link's weight to f_i , thereby providing some computational speed up.

Joint-space GPLC formulation results in the following QP problem:

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

$$
\text{subject to} \quad J_{\mathbf{f}_c}(\mathbf{q})\dot{\mathbf{\nu}} = \mathbf{a}_c(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{\nu}), \tag{2b}
$$

where $M(\mathbf{q}) \in \mathbb{S}_{++}$, $\dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}_{\text{free}}$, $J_{\mathbf{f}_c} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $\boldsymbol{a}_c \in \mathbb{R}^m$ are the joint-space inertia matrix (JSIM), unconstrained spanningtree joint accelerations in absence of cut-joint constraints, constraint Jacobian and desired constraint accelerations respectively. The terms J_{f_c} and a_c are typically computed from Eq. (1c) by substituting a_i with the corresponding kinematic Jacobian equations

$$
\mathbf{a}_i = J_i \dot{\mathbf{\nu}} + \dot{J}_i \mathbf{\nu}.
$$
 (3)

D. QP solver approaches

For solving a strongly convex QP of the form

$$
\begin{array}{ll}\n\text{minimize} & \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}^T Q \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{q}^T \mathbf{x} \\
\vdots\n\end{array} \tag{4a}
$$

$$
subject to \quad Ax = b,\tag{4b}
$$

where $Q \in \mathbb{S}_{++}^n$, we now review the two effective and equivalent approaches behind LCABA and proxBBO, namely the augmented Lagrangian method (ALM) [37], [36], [16] and the dual proximal point algorithm (PPA) [38], [35] respectively. These approaches do not assume constraint linear independence (A need not have full row-rank), and are particularly efficient by being able to leverage the Cholesky decomposition [42], which is a fast linear solver. Alternate strategies to address redundant constraints like Tikhonov regularization or the truncated singular value decomposition (SVD) [42] undesirably bias the optimal x towards the origin or incur a high computational cost, respectively.

The QP's Lagrangian function [43] is defined as

$$
\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}_x) := \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}^T Q \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{q}^T \mathbf{x} + \boldsymbol{\lambda}_x^T (A \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}), \qquad (5)
$$

where λ_x are the QP's dual variables.

Augmented Lagrangian method augments the Lagrangian function with a quadratic penalty on the constraint violation to define the augmented Lagrangian function (ALF)

$$
\mathcal{L}^A(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}_x) := \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}_x) + \frac{\mu}{2} ||A\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}||^2, \tag{6}
$$

and alternately minimizes and maximizes the ALF w.r.t the primal and dual variables in an iterative fashion:

$$
\mathbf{x}^{k+1} = \left(Q + \frac{\mu}{2}A^T A\right)^{-1} \left(-\mathbf{q} - A^T \mathbf{\lambda}_x^k + \mu A^T \mathbf{b}\right), \quad (7a)
$$

$$
\lambda_x^{k+1} = \lambda_x^k + \mu \left(A \mathbf{x}^{k+1} - \mathbf{b} \right),\tag{7b}
$$

till a specified termination criterion is met.

Dual proximal point algorithm. The QP's dual function is

$$
g(\boldsymbol{\lambda}_x) := \min_{\mathbf{x}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}_x),
$$
 (8)

where minimizing $\mathcal L$ w.r.t x is always possible since Q is positive definite, yielding

$$
g(\boldsymbol{\lambda}_x) = -\frac{1}{2}\boldsymbol{\lambda}_x^T \left(A Q^{-1} A^T \right) \boldsymbol{\lambda}_x - \left(A Q^{-1} \mathbf{q} + \mathbf{b} \right)^T \boldsymbol{\lambda}_x. \tag{9}
$$

Note that the dual Hessian $AQ^{-1}A^T \in \mathbb{S}^m_+$ makes the dual function concave, but not necessarily strongly concave since A need not have full row-rank. The QP can be solved by maximizing the dual function (note that optimal x^* can be recovered from optimal λ^* using Eq. (7a)).

The proximal operator for a convex function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is defined as

$$
\text{prox}_{\mu,f}(\mathbf{x}^k) := \mathbf{arg min}_{\mathbf{x}} \left\{ f(\mathbf{x}) + \frac{1}{2\mu} ||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^k||^2 \right\}, \tag{10}
$$

where $\mu \in (0, \infty)$. The proximal point algorithm (PPA) performs fixed-point iterations on the proximal operator

$$
\mathbf{x}^{k+1} := \text{prox}_{\mu, f}(\mathbf{x}^k),\tag{11}
$$

until a termination criterion is met. The dual function $g(\mathbf{x})$ is maximized by minimizing $-q(x)$ using PPA

$$
\boldsymbol{\lambda}_x^{k+1} := \mathrm{prox}_{\mu, -g}(\boldsymbol{\lambda}_x^k).
$$

The shifted regularization term added in Eq. (10) makes each inner problem solved by the proximal operator strongly convex, even if the dual function is not strongly concave. Proximal algorithms [38] has been found to be particularly effective in robotics [44], most often requiring few iterations (each of which is efficient) to converge for robot dynamics problems [34], [12], [6].

E. Joint-space algorithms

The joint-space GLPC problem formulation in Eq. (2) can also be solved using dual PPA or the ALM, resulting in the proxLTL [34] and proxLTLs algorithms, respectively. These two algorithms are the joint-space counterparts of proxBBO and LCABA, respectively, and will be reviewed in this section.

ProxLTL algorithm: The first iteration of dual PPA is equivalent to solving the following KKT system [34]

$$
\begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{\mu} I_{m \times m} & J_{\mathbf{f}_c} \\ J_{\mathbf{f}_c}^T & M \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda^1 \\ \dot{\nu}^1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_c - \frac{1}{\mu} \lambda^0 \\ M \dot{\nu}_{\text{free}} \end{bmatrix}, \qquad (12)
$$

where both M and J_{f_c} have the spanning-tree-induced sparsity pattern [7],[1, Sec.8.9]. This sparsity was exploited in [34] to efficiently factorize the KKT system above using the UDU^T Cholesky decomposition (reverse of the typical LDL^T ordering). This approach turns out to compute the dual function as an intermediate quantity and the upper left-block of the U matrix corresponds to the Cholesky factor of the damped Delassus matrix $\left(\Lambda_{\mu} := J_{\mathbf{f}_c}^T M^{-1} J_{\mathbf{f}_c}^T + \frac{1}{\mu}\right)$ $\frac{1}{\mu}I_{m\times m}$). The Cholesky factor is reused to efficiently compute the subsequent dual PPA iterations

$$
\Lambda_{\mu} \lambda^{k+1} = J_{\mathbf{f}_c} \dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}_{\text{free}} - \boldsymbol{a}_c + \frac{1}{\mu} \lambda^k. \tag{13}
$$

ProxLTLs algorithm: Applying ALM on the joint-space GLPC problem yields the following updated equations

$$
\dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}^{k+1} = M_{\mu}^{-1} \left(\dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}_{\text{free}} + J_{\text{f}_c}^T \left[\mu \boldsymbol{a}_c - \boldsymbol{\lambda}^k \right] \right), \quad (14a)
$$

$$
\lambda^{k+1} = \lambda^k + \mu \left(J_{\mathbf{f}_c} \dot{\mathbf{\nu}} - \mathbf{a}_c \right), \tag{14b}
$$

where

$$
M_{\mu} = M + J_{\mathbf{f}_c}^T (\mu I_{m \times m}) J_{\mathbf{f}_c} \in \mathbb{S}_{++}^n.
$$
 (15)

The proxLTLs was mentioned in [34], but not implemented, while it has been firstly considered in [12] for the restricted case of kinematic trees with external loops. In this restricted case, M_{μ} 's sparsity pattern is identical to that of M. However, this property no longer holds for mechanisms with internal loops, where M_{μ} contains a dense block corresponding to all the joints comprising a loop. To see why, consider a row of the $J_{\mathbf{f}_c}$ matrix corresponding to a cut-joint. All the columns of this row corresponding to the joints in the loop will be non-zero in general, and a μ -weighted outer product of this row with itself yields a dense block in M_{μ} . This loss of sparsity significantly complicates the implementation of proxLTLs and also reduces its computational efficiency, therefore this algorithm is not considered in detail in this paper. That said, proxLTLs can be a promising relative to proxLTL for the uncommon case of heavily constrained mechanisms where $m \sim n$.

(a) Visualizing the structure of the (b) The graph structure after optiobjective function minimized by mizing over nodes a and b . non-serial DP.

F. Non-serial Dynamic Programming

Non-serial DP [20, Chap. 10], [21], [22] is a straightforward generalization of the traditional serial DP [15] to non-chain graphs. Suppose that the function to be optimized is given by

$$
f(a, b, c, d, e) = p(a, d) + q(b, c) + r(b, e) + s(d, e),
$$

whose structure can be visualized in Fig. 3a, with the variables depicted as nodes and the functions depicted as edges, each connecting the nodes the corresponding function depends on. A function depending on multiple variables is depicted by a clique involving the corresponding nodes and vice versa. DP optimizes over variables to compute the optimal 'cost-to-go' *functions* depending on the remaining variables and repeats this successively for all the unknown variables. computing the respective optimal *functions*.

Let $\mathcal{N}(q)$ denote the set of all the nodes that neighbor the node g in the graph, and let $f(g, \mathcal{N}(g))$ denote the sum of all the functions that depend on node g, and let $\tilde{f}(\mathcal{N}(g))$ denote the sum of all the functions depending on variables in $\mathcal{N}(g)$ and not on q . Optimizing over the variable q gives the function

$$
\hat{f}^*(\mathcal{N}(g)) = \min_g \left\{ \hat{f}(g, \mathcal{N}(g)) \right\},\tag{16}
$$

which, in general, depends on all elements in $\mathcal{N}(g)$ and is thereby represented graphically as a clique comprising the nodes in $\mathcal{N}(q)$. The graph's connectivity structure is modified to add edges between any two links in $\mathcal{N}(q)$ if they were not already connected. Then the function $\hat{f}(\mathcal{N}(q))$ is updated with the terms obtained from optimizing over q as follows

$$
\tilde{f}(\mathcal{N}(g)) \stackrel{+}{\leftarrow} \hat{f}^*(\mathcal{N}(g)). \tag{17}
$$

This step is repeated until all the variables are eliminated.

As an illustrative example, suppose that DP optimizes over variables in the order a, b, c, d, e for the case depicted in Fig. 3a. After eliminating a , we get

$$
\tilde{f}(d) \leftarrow s(d, e) + \min_{a} p(a, d),\tag{18}
$$

where the connectivity structure of the graph does not change since a has only one neighbor. At the next step, minimizing over b results in the following update:

$$
\tilde{f}(c, e) = t(c, e) + u(d, e) + \min_{b} \{r(b, c) + s(b, e)\}, \quad (19)
$$

resulting in a new edge being added between the nodes c and e . This new graph connectivity is plotted in Fig. 3b. Similarly, the function is optimized over d and e to get a constant function, which is the optimum.

DP is in general intractable due to curse-of-dimensionality, which is an even greater problem for non-serial DP, where the cost of representing and optimizing the cost-to-go function at any step is exponential in the number of neighbors of the

variable being optimized over. However, similarly to how the LQR problem is a tractable special case for the serial DP problem, we will find the mechanics problem of solving GPLC over graphs also to be a tractable problem since the cost at every stage can be parameterized efficiently as a quadratic form. Finally, it is worth noting that the traditional serial DP is a special case of the non-serial DP algorithm, where each leaf node of the graph has only one neighbor, due to which eliminating that variable does not modify the graph structure.

IV. LOOP-CONSTRAINEDABA

This section derives the LCABA algorithm, presents it in an algorithmic form, and analyzes its computational complexity. The list of symbols used all over this section is summarized in Tab. I.

A. LCABA derivation

The derivation applies the ALM on the GPLC problem from Eq. (1) and solves each inner primal problem (see Eq. (7a)) using DP. We will follow the notation and style of [11] for this DP-based derivation.

The ALF associated with GPLC (1) is given by:

$$
\mathcal{L}^{A}(\dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}, \mathbf{a}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}) = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{a}_{i}^{T} H_{i} \mathbf{a}_{i} - \mathbf{f}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{a}_{i} - \boldsymbol{\tau}_{i}^{T} \dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}_{i} \right\} + \sum_{i \in \mathcal{E}} \left\{ \lambda_{i}^{T} \left(K_{i}^{1} \mathbf{a}_{l_{i}^{1}} + K_{i}^{2} \mathbf{a}_{l_{i}^{2}} - \mathbf{k}_{i} \right) + \frac{\mu}{2} || K_{i}^{1} \mathbf{a}_{l_{i}^{1}} + K_{i}^{2} \mathbf{a}_{l_{i}^{2}} - \mathbf{k}_{i} ||^{2} \right\}, \quad (20)
$$

where the spanning tree joint constraints (see Eq. (1b)) are excluded because these constraints will be eliminated by substitution similarly to single-shooting transcription [2] in optimal control.

The ALM's inner primal problem is defined by:

$$
\dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}^{k+1}, \mathbf{a}^{k+1} = \underset{\dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}, \mathbf{a}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \, \mathcal{L}^A(\dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}, \mathbf{a}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}^k). \tag{21}
$$

Rearranging the constraint terms due to the i^{th} cut-joint in \mathcal{L}^A yields the following quadratic form

$$
\frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_{l_i^2} \\ \mathbf{a}_{l_i^1} \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} \mu K_i^{2T} K_i^2 & \mu K_i^{2T} K_i^1 \\ \mu K_i^{1T} K_i^2 & \mu K_i^{1T} K_i^1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_{l_i^2} \\ \mathbf{a}_{l_i^1} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 22 \\ \mathbf{a}_{l_i^1} \end{bmatrix}
$$
\n
$$
\begin{bmatrix} K_i^{2T} \left(\mu \mathbf{k}_i - \boldsymbol{\lambda}_i^k \right) \\ K_i^{1T} \left(\mu \mathbf{k}_i - \boldsymbol{\lambda}_i^k \right) \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_{l_i^2} \\ \mathbf{a}_{l_i^1} \end{bmatrix}
$$

The quadratic form's off-diagonal blocks reveal an inertial coupling term $\mu K_i^{1T} K_i^2$ between links that are connected due to a cut-joint. To account for such inertial coupling during DP, we hypothesize the following quadratic form for the optimal cost-to-go function for the DP sub-problem at a spanning tree leaf link indexed i

$$
V_{i}^{*}(\mathbf{a}_{i}, \bar{\mathbf{a}}_{\mathcal{N}_{i}}) := \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_{i} \\ \bar{\mathbf{a}}_{\mathcal{N}_{i}} \end{bmatrix}^{T} \begin{bmatrix} H_{i,i} & \bar{H}_{i,\mathcal{N}_{i}}^{T} \\ \bar{H}_{i,\mathcal{N}_{i}} & \bar{H}_{\mathcal{N}_{i},\mathcal{N}_{i}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_{i} \\ \bar{\mathbf{a}}_{\mathcal{N}_{i}} \end{bmatrix}
$$
(23)
$$
- \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{f}_{i} \\ \bar{\mathbf{f}}_{\mathcal{N}_{i}} \end{bmatrix}^{T} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_{i} \\ \bar{\mathbf{a}}_{\mathcal{N}_{i}} \end{bmatrix},
$$

where \mathcal{N}_i is the set of i^{th} link's 'neighbouring' link indices. The terms $\bar{\mathbf{a}}_{\mathcal{N}_i}$, $\bar{H}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i}$, $\bar{H}_{\mathcal{N}_i,\mathcal{N}_i}$ and $\bar{\bar{\mathbf{f}}}_{\mathcal{N}_i}$ concatenate the \mathcal{N}_i links' acceleration, coupled inertia and forces as follows. For all $j, k \in \mathcal{N}_i$

$$
\bar{\mathbf{a}}_{\mathcal{N}_i} = \begin{bmatrix} \dots & \mathbf{a}_j^T & \dots \end{bmatrix}^T, \ \bar{\mathbf{f}}_{\mathcal{N}_i} = \begin{bmatrix} \dots & \mathbf{f}_j^T & \dots \end{bmatrix}^T \qquad (24)
$$
\n
$$
\bar{H}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i} = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ H_{i,j} \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}, \ \bar{H}_{\mathcal{N}_i,\mathcal{N}_i} = \begin{bmatrix} H_{k,k} & \dots & H_{k,j} & \dots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots \\ H_{k,j}^T & \dots & H_{j,j} & \dots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix}.
$$

The quadratic form coefficients above are initialized by iterating over cut-joint constraints. For a cut-joint i , the quadratic form updates to the corresponding links are

$$
\begin{bmatrix} H_{l_j^1, l_j^1} \\ H_{l_j^2, l_j^2} \\ H_{l_j^1, l_j^2} \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow \mu \begin{bmatrix} K_j^{1T} K_j^1 \\ K_j^{2T} K_j^2 \\ K_j^{1T} K_j^2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{f}_{l_j^1} \\ \mathbf{f}_{l_j^2} \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow \begin{bmatrix} K_j^{1T} (\mu \mathbf{k}_j - \lambda_j^k) \\ K_j^{2T} (\mu \mathbf{k}_j - \lambda_j^k) \end{bmatrix}. (25)
$$

The DP's elimination process starts by selecting a leaf link indexed i in the spanning tree and eliminating its acceleration a_i and joint acceleration \dot{v}_i . Apart from its cut-joint neighbor set \mathcal{N}_i , the i^{th} link is also connected to its parent link indexed $\pi(i)$ through the acceleration recurrence relation. Therefore, the functions and constraints depending on the i^{th} link may additionally depend on only the links in $\{\pi(i)\}\cup \mathcal{N}_i$. After eliminating the link i , the DP cost function involving these connected links is given by the DP recurrence relation as

$$
V^* \left(\mathbf{a}_{\pi(i)}, \bar{\mathbf{a}}_{\mathcal{N}_i} \right) \leftarrow \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{a}_{\pi(i)}^T H_{\pi(i), \pi(i)} \mathbf{a}_{\pi(i)} - \mathbf{f}_{\pi(i)}^T \mathbf{a}_{\pi(i)} + \min_{\substack{\mathbf{m} \in \mathbf{m} \\ \mathcal{U}_i, \mathbf{a}_i}} \left\{ V_i^* \left(\mathbf{a}_i, \bar{\mathbf{a}}_{\mathcal{N}_i} \right) - \boldsymbol{\tau}_i^T \dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}_i \right\}. \tag{26}
$$

Substituting for a_i above using the acceleration recurrence relation from Eq. (1b) transforms the minimization above to

$$
\min_{\dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}_i} \left\{ V_i^* \left(\mathbf{a}_{\pi(i)} + S_i \dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}_i + \mathbf{a}_{b,i}, \bar{\mathbf{a}}_{\mathcal{N}_i} \right) - \boldsymbol{\tau}_i^T \dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}_i \right\}.
$$
 (27)

Expanding the expression V_i^* above using the hypothesized cost-to-go parametrization from Eq. (23), and collecting the terms containing $\dot{\nu}_i$ yields an unconstrained QP

$$
\begin{aligned}\n\text{minimize} \quad & \frac{1}{2} \dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}_i^T D_i \dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}_i - \left[\boldsymbol{\tau}_i + S_i^T \left(\mathbf{f}_i - \bar{H}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i}^T \mathbf{a}_{\mathcal{N}_i} - \right. \right. \\
&\quad H_{i,i} \left(\mathbf{a}_{\pi(i)} + \mathbf{a}_{b,i} \right) \Big) \Big]^T \dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}_i, \qquad (28)\n\end{aligned}
$$

where $D_i := (S_i^T H_{i,i} S_i)$ is the ith link's inertia projected onto the *i*th joint's subspace, and $D_i \in \mathbb{S}_{++}^{n_i}$ [14]. Solving the QP above yields the following optimal joint accelerations

$$
\dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}_i^* = D_i^{-1} \Big[\boldsymbol{\tau}_i + S_i^T \Big(\mathbf{f}_i - \bar{H}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i}^T \bar{\mathbf{a}}_{\mathcal{N}_i} - H_{i,i} \left(\mathbf{a}_{\pi(i)} + \mathbf{a}_{b,i} \right) \Big) \Big].
$$
\n(29)

Substituting the expression \dot{v}_i^* back in Eq. (26) results in

following updates

$$
H_{\pi(i),\pi(i)} \stackrel{+}{\leftarrow} P_i H_{i,i};\tag{30a}
$$

$$
\mathbf{f}_{\pi(i)} \stackrel{+}{\leftarrow} P_i (\mathbf{f}_i - H_{i,i} \mathbf{a}_{b,i}) - H_{i,i} S_i D_i^{-1} \boldsymbol{\tau}_i; \tag{30b}
$$

$$
\bar{H}_{\pi(i),\mathcal{N}_i} \overset{+}{\leftarrow} \bar{H}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i} P_i^T;
$$
\n(30c)

$$
\bar{H}_{\mathcal{N}_i,\mathcal{N}_i} \leftarrow \bar{H}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i} S_i D_i^{-1} S_i^T \bar{H}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i}^T;
$$
\n(30d)

$$
\bar{\mathbf{f}}_{\mathcal{N}_i} \stackrel{+}{\leftarrow} \bar{H}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i} \Big[P_i \mathbf{a}_{b,i} + S_i D_i^{-1} \big(\boldsymbol{\tau}_i + S_i^T \mathbf{f}_i \big) \Big], \qquad (30e)
$$

where

$$
P_i = I_{6 \times 6} - H_{i,i} S_i D_i^{-1} S_i^T.
$$

After eliminating the i^{th} link, it must be removed from the neighbor list $\mathcal{N}_i, \forall j \in \mathcal{N}_i$

$$
\mathcal{N}_j \leftarrow \mathcal{N}_j - \{i\}, \text{ for } j \in \mathcal{N}_i,\tag{31}
$$

and note from Eq. (30c) and Eq. (30d) that eliminating link *i* introduces mutual coupling between all the links in $\mathcal{N}_i \cup \{\pi(i)\}\$, due to which the neighbor list of these links are updated as follows

$$
\mathcal{N}_j \leftarrow \mathcal{N}_j \cup ((\mathcal{N}_i \cup \{\pi(i)\}) - \{j\}), \text{ for } j \in \mathcal{N}_i \cup \{\pi(i)\}, \text{ (32)}
$$

and any undefined $H_{j,k}$ term for $\forall j, k \in \mathcal{N}_i \cup \{\pi(i)\}\$ is set to $0_{6\times 6}$ before executing Eq. (30c) and Eq. (30d).

Subsequently, the next leaf link in the spanning tree is selected and eliminated, and this process is repeated until all the links in the tree are eliminated. Note that any link k that was not originally a leaf link becomes a leaf link itself, once all its child links $\gamma(k)$ are eliminated. The k^{th} link's neighbors \mathcal{N}_k at this DP stage will have been recursively computed using Eq. (31) and Eq. (32), whenever any neighbor or child of link k is eliminated. Furthermore, the function $V_k^*(\mathbf{a}_k, \bar{\mathbf{a}}_{\mathcal{N}_k})$ is obtained as a quadratic form hypothesized in Eq. (23) using the recursive formulae in Eqs. 30. Therefore, it can be inductively shown that the DP hypothesis in Eq. (23) is valid throughout the elimination process.

Once all the links are eliminated, the optimal joint accelerations are calculated using Eq. (29) by reversing the elimination order. This solves the ALM's inner primal problem. Subsequently, the ALM's dual variable updates (see Eq. (7b)) are straightforwardly performed using the constraint violations

$$
\lambda_i^{k+1} = \lambda_i^k + \mu \left(K_i^1 \mathbf{a}_{l_i^1}^{k+1} + K_i^2 \mathbf{a}_{l_i^2}^{k+1} - \mathbf{k}_i \right). \tag{33}
$$

When $\pi(i) \in \mathcal{N}_i$, a special case occurs that must be addressed. The recursive formula in Eq. (30c) evaluates an off-diagonal block $\overline{H}_{\pi(i),\mathcal{N}_i}$ of the quadratic form assumed in Eq. (23). Because the quadratic form's Hessian is symmetric, each off-diagonal block has a symmetric counterpart. But if $\pi(i) \in \mathcal{N}_i$, the symmetric counterpart term also needs to be added to the single $H_{\pi(i),\pi(i)}$ block as follows

$$
H_{\pi(i),\pi(i)} \leftarrow H_{\pi(i),\pi(i)} + (H_{i,\pi(i)} P_i^T)^T.
$$
 (34)

Subsequent primal iterations are efficient. The inner problem of the subsequent ALM iterations needs to only recompute the force terms f that change due to the updated Lagrange multipliers. The inertia terms H do not change and can be reused. Therefore, a reduced recursion that avoids the expensive matrix-matrix operations in Eq. (25) and Eq. (30) is devised that only performs the required cheaper matrixvector operations for the force and acceleration terms using Eq. (25), Eq. (29), and Eq. (30). This reduced sweep is akin to re-using a factorized linear system for linear solves, making subsequent ALM iterations efficient. The reduced computations will be detailed later in this section.

Elimination ordering. A spanning tree can have multiple leaf links, any of which can be chosen for elimination at a DP step, yielding multiple valid elimination orders. This yields multiple elimination orders with potentially different computational costs. The cost of eliminating a link increases quadratically with the link's neighbor count, and link elimination introduces coupling between neighbors and parent links. A poor elimination ordering choice can result in costly coupling among numerous links. Finding an optimal elimination order for the variable elimination, in general, has been shown to be an NP-hard problem [45]. However, various effective greedy heuristics such as minimum degree [46], nested dissection [47], and Cuthill-Mckee algorithm [48] have been proposed. LCABA adopts the minimum degree heuristic for its simplicity, whereby at each DP step, the leaf link with the lowest neighbor count is selected for elimination, with ties being broken randomly. Let m_c be the highest neighbor count encountered for an eliminated link during the LCABA elimination.

Constraints with respect to ground are a special case. The constraint model in Eq. (1) can also model external contact constraints that do not lead to internal loops, e.g., the fourfoot-ground contact constraints for a quadruped. Suppose that the ground link is indexed l_i^1 without loss of generality for constraint *i*, since its acceleration $\mathbf{a}_0 = -\mathbf{a}_{\text{grav}}$ is a constant and known in advance, its value is directly substituted, and \mathbf{a}_0 not being a decision variable, only the $H_{l^2_i, l^2_i}$ block and $f_{l_1^2}$ needs to be updated in Eq. (25). Accounting for the $H_{l_1^1, l_2^2}$ coupling term, and the force update needs to be modified as follows

$$
\mathbf{f}_{l_i^2} \stackrel{+}{\leftarrow} K_i^{2T} \left(\mu \mathbf{k}_i - \mu K_i^r \mathbf{a}_0 - \boldsymbol{\lambda}_i^k \right). \tag{35}
$$

Since the inertial coupling term is completely absorbed into the force update, the ground link and the link $\mathcal{N}_{l_1^2}$ are not connected as neighbors, substantially simplifying the DP algorithm. The remaining LCABA steps continue exactly as derived previously. If all loops are external, LCABA reduces exactly to constrainedABA [12]. Therefore, LCABA generalizes constrainedABA, supporting both internal loops and external loops while retaining constrainedABA's efficiency for external loops.

Remark 1. *Though the constraint model in Eq.* (1) *constrains relative motion between two links, the presented DP-based algorithms can readily support constraints on multiple links of the form*

$$
\sum_{j} \left\{ K_i^j \mathbf{a}_{l_i^j} \right\} = \mathbf{k}_i,
$$
\n(36)

with trivial modification. Only the quadratic form updates in Eq. (25) *need to be modified to compute the coupling among*

Fig. 4: Graphical illustration of LCABA's elimination steps.

all the links involved in this constraint.

However, LCABA's efficiency can drop drastically if too many links are involved in a constraint since the cost of each DP elimination step increases quadratically with the neighbour count. Therefore, LCABA is not recommended for constraints involving all the links (e.g. center-of-mass constraints).

B. Illustration of LCABA

LCABA's DP elimination is illustrated in Fig. 4 for an example mechanism shown in Fig. 4a, with eleven links and two cut-joints connecting the links 6&8 and links 8&11. Spanning-tree joint constraints are depicted by solid directed edges and the coupling terms in the DP's objective arising due to cut-joints are depicted by dashed red edges. Link 6 is first eliminated due to the minimum degree heuristic because it has the fewest neighbors among the leaf-links 6, 8 and 11. This elimination couples links 5&8, subsequently the new leaf links 5 and 4 are eliminated, coupling links 3&8 as shown in Fig. 4b. Then the leaf-links with least neighbors, 11, 10 and 9 are eliminated as seen in Fig. 4c. Note that since the links 3&8 were already coupled, eliminating link 9 does not introduce additional coupling and only modifies the existing coupling between links 3&8. Subsequently, the links 8 and 7 are eliminated as shown in Fig. 4d. Since the remaining links do not have neighbors, LCABA elimination proceeds identically to the ABA algorithm. Suppose that link 8 was eliminated first in Fig. 4a instead of links 6 or 11 which have fewer neighbors, it would have introduced coupling between links 6&11 as seen in Fig. 4e. This coupling would have increased the algorithm's computational cost since each leaf link now has two neighbors instead of one. This example demonstrates the minimum degree heuristic's benefit.

C. LCABA algorithm

This subsection presents LCABA in an algorithmic form. Let $S^{\mathcal{E}}$ be the order in which spanning-tree links are eliminated. The first ALM iteration is presented in Algorithm 1, followed by the more efficient reduced-sweep for subsequent ALM iterations in Algorithm 2, before presenting the whole LCABA in Algorithm 3. The terms in parentheses, such as $(U_i D_i^{-1})$, are stored in variables to avoid their re-computation. Since blocks in coupling matrices satisfy $H_{i,j} = H_{j,i}^T$, only $H_{i,j}$, for $i < j$ is computed and stored. However, this aspect is avoided in the algorithm for clarity. Furthermore, to highlight how LCABA extends constrainedABA, which itself extends ABA: LCABA, constrainedABA and ABA lines are marked in violet, brown, and black respectively. In the reduced sweeps depicted in Algorithm 2, only the delta changes in forces and accelerations due to constraint force updates in an ALM iteration need to be computed. The entire LCABA and the termination criteria are listed in Algorithm 3.

D. LCABA complexity analysis

The worst-case computational complexity of LCABA is now analyzed, starting with the three-sweep Algorithm 1. The first forward sweep from line 1 to line 12 requires $O(n + m)$ operations. In the second forward sweep, line 31 requires $O(C(N_i))$ operations and the remaining lines require a fixed number of operations at each link. This brings the complexity of the second forward sweep to $O(n + m_c n)$, where m_c is the maximum cardinality encountered among all links, denoted by $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{N}_i)$. Similarly to ABA and constrainedABA, the backward sweep is the most computationally expensive part, where backpropagating the coupling inertias and coupling forces in lines 17 and 19 require $O(C(N_i))$ operations and updating inertial coupling among all links in \mathcal{N}_i in line 18 requires $O(C(N_i)^2)$ at each link. This brings the total computational complexity of the three-sweep algorithm to $O(n + m + \mathfrak{m}_c^2 n)$. Note that loops are local and not coupled in many practical cases, e.g., the four-bar submechanisms of the digit robot. Even when there is coupling among loops, typically only a few loops ($m_c \sim 3$) participate in such coupling, bringing the effective complexity of LCABA to the best-case complexity of $O(n+m)$.

V. PROXBBO

This section presents the proxBBO algorithm that generalizes the state-of-the-art recursive algorithm BBO [13], [14] to the proximal dynamics formulation that addresses singular constraints.

A. ProxBBO derivation

ProxBBO is derived using the dualPPA discussed in Section III-D similarly to LCABA's derivation. ProxBBO uses DP to compute the following dual PPA iteration

$$
\lambda^{k+1} := \underset{\lambda}{\text{argmin}} \left\{ - \left(\underset{\nu}{\text{min}} \mathcal{L}(\dot{\nu}, \mathbf{a}, \lambda) \right) + \frac{1}{2\mu} \|\lambda - \lambda^k\|^2 \right\},\tag{37}
$$

Algorithm 1 LCABA three-sweep algorithm

Require: q, ν , τ , S_i s, H_i s, K_i s, k_i s, $\mathbf{f}_i^{\text{ext}}, \mathcal{S}^{\mathcal{E}}, \mu$, $\boldsymbol{\lambda}^0, \mathcal{E}$ First forward sweep 1: for i in S do 2: $\mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{v}_{\pi(i)} + S_i \boldsymbol{\nu}_i$ 3: $\mathbf{a}_{b,i} = \mathbf{v}_i \times S_i \boldsymbol{\nu}_i$ 4: $H_{i,i} \leftarrow H_i; \quad \mathbf{f}_i \leftarrow \mathbf{f}_i^{\text{ext}} - \mathbf{v}_i \times^* (H_i \mathbf{v}_i)$ 5: $\mathcal{N}_i \leftarrow \{\}$ 6: for j in $\mathcal E$ do 7: $H_{l_j^1, l_j^1} \overset{+}{\leftarrow} \mu K_j^{1T} K_j^1, \quad H_{l_j^2, l_j^2} \overset{+}{\leftarrow} \mu K_j^{2T} K_j^2,$ 8: if $H_{l_j^1, l_j^2}$ is undefined then 9: $H_{l_j^1, l_j^2}^{\prime} \leftarrow 0_{6 \times 6};$ 10: $\mathcal{N}_{l}^{i_j,i_j}_{j} \leftarrow \mathcal{N}_{l}^{1}_{j} \cup \{l_j^2\}; \, \mathcal{N}_{l}^{2}_{j} \leftarrow \mathcal{N}_{l}^{2}_{j} \cup \{l_j^1\}$ $\begin{array}{ll} \hbox{11:} & \quad H_{l^1_j,l^2_j} \stackrel{+}{\leftarrow} \mu K^{1T}_j K^2_j, \quad \mathbf{f}_{l^1_j} \stackrel{+}{\leftarrow} K^{1T}_j \left(\mu \mathbf{k}_j - \pmb{\lambda}^k_j \right), \end{array}$ 12: $\mathbf{f}_{l_i^2} \overset{+}{\leftarrow} K_j^{2T} \left(\mu \mathbf{k}_j - \lambda_j^k \right)$ Backward sweep 13: for i in $S^{\mathcal{E}}$ do 14: $\mathbf{u}_i = \tau + S_i^T \mathbf{f}_i; U_i = H_{i,i} S_i; D_i = S_i^T U_i; D_i^{-1};$ 15: $P_i = I_{6 \times 6} - U_i \left(D_i^{-1} S_i^T \right);$ 16: if $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{N}_i) > 0$ then 17: $\bar{H}_{\pi(i),\mathcal{N}_i} \overset{+}{\leftarrow} \bar{H}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i} P_i^T,$ 18: $\bar{H}_{\mathcal{N}_i,\mathcal{N}_i} \leftarrow (\bar{H}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i} S_i) D_i^{-1} (S_i^T \bar{H}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i}^T),$ 19: $\bar{\mathbf{f}}_{\mathcal{N}_i} \overset{+}{\leftarrow} \bar{H}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i} \Big[P_i \mathbf{a}_{b,i} + \left(S_i D_i^{-1} \right) \mathbf{u}_i \Big]$ 20: **for** j in \mathcal{N}_i do 21: $\mathcal{N}_i \leftarrow \mathcal{N}_j - \{i\};$ 22: **if** $j \notin \mathcal{N}_{\pi(i)}$ then 23: $\mathcal{N}_{\pi(i)} \leftarrow \mathcal{N}_{\pi(i)} + \{j\}; \mathcal{N}_j \leftarrow \mathcal{N}_j + \{\pi(i)\};$ 24: $H_{\pi(i),j} \leftarrow 0_{6\times6};$ 25: **if** $\pi(i) \in \mathcal{N}_i$ **then** 26: $H_{\pi(i),\pi(i)} \stackrel{+}{\leftarrow} \left(H_{i,\pi(i)} P_i^T \right)^T;$ 27: if $\pi(i) > 0$ then 28: $H_{i,i}^a = H_{i,i} - (U_i D_i^{-1}) U_i^T; H_{\pi(i),\pi(i)} \stackrel{+}{\leftarrow} H_{i,i}^a$ 29: $\mathbf{f}_{\pi(i)} \overset{+}{\leftarrow} H_{i,i}^a \mathbf{a}_{b,i} + \mathbf{f}_i - \left(U_i D_i^{-1} \right) \mathbf{u}_i$ Second forward sweep (roll-out) 30: for i in $S_r^{\mathcal{E}}$ do 31: $\textbf{u}_i \leftarrow \left(\bar{H}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i}S_i\right)^T \bar{\textbf{a}}_{\mathcal{N}_i};$ 32: $\boldsymbol{\dot{\nu}}_i^{(k+1)} = D_i^{-1} \dot{\mathbf{u}}_i - \left(U_i D_i^{-1} \right)^T (\mathbf{a}_{\pi(i)} + \mathbf{a}_{b,i}); \ \mathbf{a}_i^{k+1} = \mathbf{a}_{\pi(i)}^{k+1} + S_i \boldsymbol{\dot{\nu}}_i^{(k+1)} + \mathbf{a}_{b,i}$ $33:$

where

$$
\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\dot{\nu}}, \mathbf{a}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}) = \sum_{i=S} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{a}_i^T H_i \mathbf{a}_i - \mathbf{f}_i^T \mathbf{a}_i - \boldsymbol{\tau}_i^T \boldsymbol{\dot{\nu}}_i \right\} + (38)
$$

$$
\sum_{i \in \mathcal{E}} \left\{ \boldsymbol{\lambda}_i^T \left(K_i^1 \mathbf{a}_{l_i^1} + K_i^2 \mathbf{a}_{l_i^2} - \mathbf{k}_i \right) \right\}.
$$

Note that the proximal regularization term in Eq. (37) does not depend on $\dot{\nu}$, so the proximal term can be pushed inside the inner minimization problem to get

$$
\lambda^{k+1} := \max_{\lambda^k} \left\{ \min_{\boldsymbol{\nu}} \left(\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\nu}, \mathbf{a}, \lambda) - \frac{1}{2\mu} ||\boldsymbol{\lambda} - \boldsymbol{\lambda}^k||^2 \right) \right\}. \tag{39}
$$

This max-min problem will be solved using DP.

Algorithm 2 LCABA reduced two-sweep algorithm

Require: $\Delta \mathbf{f}_i$ s, K_i s, $(\bar{H}_{\mathcal{N}_i} S_i)$ s, U_i s, D_i s, S_i s, $\mathcal{S}^{\mathcal{E}}$ Backward sweep 1: for i in $S^{\mathcal{E}}$ do 2: $\Delta \mathbf{u}_i \leftarrow S_i^T \Delta \mathbf{f}_i$ 3: if $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{N}_i) > 0$ then 4: $\bar{\Delta f}_{\mathcal{N}_i} \stackrel{+}{\leftarrow} \left(\bar{H}_{\mathcal{N}_i} S_i \right) \left(D_i^{-1} \Delta \mathbf{u}_i \right)$ 5: if $\pi(i) > 0$ then 6: $\Delta \mathbf{f}_{\pi(i)} \stackrel{+}{\leftarrow} \Delta \mathbf{f}_i - U_i \left(D_i^{-1} \Delta \mathbf{u}_i \right)$ Second forward sweep (roll-out) 7: $\Delta a_0 \leftarrow 0_{6 \times 1}$ 8: for i in $S_r^{\mathcal{E}}$ do 9: if $C(N_i) > 0$ then 10: $\Delta \textbf{u}_i \stackrel{-}{\leftarrow} \left(\bar{H}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i}S_i \right)^T \bar{\Delta \textbf{a}}_{\mathcal{N}_i}$ 11: $\Delta \boldsymbol{\dot{\nu}}_{i}^{(k+1)} = D_i^{-1} \Delta \mathbf{u}_i - \left(U_i D_i^{-1}\right)^T \Delta \mathbf{a}_{\pi(i)};$ 12: $\Delta \textbf{a}_i = \Delta \textbf{a}_{\pi(i)} + S_i \Delta \dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}_i^{(k+1)}$

Algorithm 3 LCABA

Require: q, ν , τ , S_i s, H_i s, K_i s, \mathbf{k}_i s, $\mathbf{f}_i^{\text{ext}}, \mathcal{S}^{\mathcal{E}}, \mu$, $\boldsymbol{\lambda}^0$, \mathcal{E}, ϵ , max iter 1: Execute the three-sweep algorithm in Algorithm 1. 2: for k in range(1, max iter) do 3: for i in in S do 4: $\Delta \mathbf{f}_i \leftarrow \mathbf{0}_6$; 5: for i in $\mathcal E$ do 6: $\Delta \mathbf{k}_i \leftarrow K_i^1 \mathbf{a}_{l_i^1} + K_i^2 \mathbf{a}_{l_i^2} - \mathbf{k}_i;$ $\Delta \mathbf{f}_{l_i^2} \leftarrow \mu K_i^{2T} \Delta \mathbf{k}_i; \quad \overline{\Delta \mathbf{f}_{l_i^1}} \leftarrow \mu K_i^{1T} \Delta \mathbf{k}_i;$ 8: $\lambda_i^{k+1} \leftarrow \mu \Delta k_i;$ 9: if $\min(\|\dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}^{k} - \dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}^{k-1}\|_\infty, \|\Delta \bar{\mathbf{k}}\|_\infty) < \epsilon$ then 10: break 11: Execute reduced-two sweep algorithm in Algorithm 2 $12:$ $^{k+1}\leftarrow\dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}^{k}+\Delta\dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}};$

From the Lagrangian's structure, we anticipate linear quadratic terms depending on a_i and the Lagrange multipliers associated with cut-joints of the loops supported by the i^{th} link. Therefore, we hypothesize the optimal cost-to-go *Lagrangian* (similarly to [11]) for a spanning-tree leaf-link at a DP step to have the following quadratic form

$$
V_i^{\mathcal{L}*}(\mathbf{a}_i, \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{N}_i}) := \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_i \\ \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{N}_i} \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} H_{i,i} & \bar{K}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i}^T \\ \bar{K}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i} & -\bar{L}_{\mathcal{N}_i,\mathcal{N}_i} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_i \\ \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{N}_i} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{f}_i \\ \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{N}_i} \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_i \\ \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{N}_i} \end{bmatrix},
$$
(40)

where $\bar{\lambda}_{\mathcal{N}_i}$, $\bar{K}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i}$, $\bar{L}_{\mathcal{N}_i,\mathcal{N}_i}$ and $\bar{k}_{\mathcal{N}_i}$ aggregates the dual variables, constraint matrices, dual Hessian terms, and desired constraint accelerations for all the loop constraints supported by the link i such that $\mathcal{N}_i = \text{LS}(i)$.

For every $j, k \in \mathcal{N}_i$ these terms are defined as follows

$$
\bar{\lambda}_{\mathcal{N}_i} = \begin{bmatrix} \dots & \lambda_j^T & \dots \end{bmatrix}^T, \ \bar{\mathbf{k}}_{\mathcal{N}_i} = \begin{bmatrix} \dots & \mathbf{k}_j^T & \dots \end{bmatrix}^T \quad (41)
$$
\n
$$
\bar{K}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i} = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ K_{i,j} \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}, \ \bar{L}_{\mathcal{N}_i,\mathcal{N}_i} = \begin{bmatrix} L_{k,k} & \dots & L_{k,j} & \dots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots \\ L_{k,j}^T & \dots & L_{j,j} & \dots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix},
$$

At the start of the DP elimination, the terms above are initialized to zero and updated by iterating over the cut-joints $j \in \mathcal{E}$ as follows

$$
K_{l_j^1,j} \leftarrow K_j^1, \quad K_{l_j^2,j} \leftarrow K_j^2,\tag{42a}
$$

$$
L_{j,j} \leftarrow \frac{1}{\mu} I_{m_j, m_j},\tag{42b}
$$

$$
\mathbf{k}_j \leftarrow \frac{1}{\mu} \lambda_j^k. \tag{42c}
$$

For each joint $i \in S$,

$$
H_{i,i} \leftarrow H_i.
$$

Similarly to LCABA, the DP recurrence relation for prox-BBO is given by

$$
V^{\mathcal{L}*}\left(\mathbf{a}_{\pi(i)}, \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{N}_i}\right) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{a}_{\pi(i)}^T H_{\pi(i), \pi(i)} \mathbf{a}_{\pi(i)} - \mathbf{f}_{\pi(i)}^T \mathbf{a}_{\pi(i)} + \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{N}_{\pi(i)}}^T \bar{K}_{\pi(i), \mathcal{N}_{\pi(i)}} \mathbf{a}_{\pi(i)} + \min_{\boldsymbol{\nu}_i, \mathbf{a}_i} \left\{ V_i^{\mathcal{L}*}\left(\mathbf{a}_i, \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{N}_i}\right) - \tau_i^T \dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}_i \right\}.
$$
\n(43)

Solving the minimization problem above, link i 's acceleration a_i is again eliminated via substitution using the joint recurrence relation to get following simplified unconstrained QP similarly to Eq. (28)

$$
\begin{aligned}\n\text{minimize} \quad & \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\dot{\nu}}_i^T D_i \boldsymbol{\dot{\nu}}_i - \left[\boldsymbol{\tau}_i + S_i^T \left(\mathbf{f}_i - \bar{K}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i}^T \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{N}_i} - \right. \right. \\
&\quad H_{i,i} \left(\mathbf{a}_{\pi(i)} + \mathbf{a}_{b,i} \right) \Big) \Big]^T \boldsymbol{\dot{\nu}}_i, \qquad (44)\n\end{aligned}
$$

optimizing which gives

$$
\dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}_i^* = D_i^{-1} \Big[\boldsymbol{\tau}_i + S_i^T \Big(\mathbf{f}_i - \bar{K}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i}^T \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{N}_i} - H_{i,i} \left(\mathbf{a}_{\pi(i)} + \mathbf{a}_{b,i} \right) \Big) \Big].
$$
\n(45)

Substituting the optimal \dot{v}_i^* expression back in to Eq. (43) gives a quadratic form for the function V^* $(\mathbf{a}_{\pi(i)}, \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{N}_i})$ with the following updates to the quadratic form coefficients

$$
H_{\pi(i),\pi(i)} \stackrel{+}{\leftarrow} P_i H_{i,i},\tag{46a}
$$

$$
\mathbf{f}_{\pi(i)} \stackrel{+}{\leftarrow} P_i \left(\mathbf{f}_i - H_{i,i} \mathbf{a}_{b,i} \right) - H_{i,i} S_i D_i^{-1} \boldsymbol{\tau}_i, \tag{46b}
$$

$$
\bar{K}_{\pi(i),\mathcal{N}_i} \stackrel{+}{\leftarrow} \bar{K}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i} P_i^T,\tag{46c}
$$

$$
\bar{L}_{\mathcal{N}_i,\mathcal{N}_i} \overset{+}{\leftarrow} \bar{K}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i} S_i D_i^{-1} S_i^T \bar{K}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i}^T, \tag{46d}
$$

$$
\bar{\mathbf{k}}_{\mathcal{N}_i} \stackrel{+}{\leftarrow} \bar{K}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i} \Big[P_i \mathbf{a}_{b,i} + S_i D_i^{-1} \big(\boldsymbol{\tau}_i + S_i^T \mathbf{f}_i \big) \Big]. \tag{46e}
$$

The inertia and force recursions in Eq. (46a) and Eq. (46b) are identical to ABA and LCABA equations in Eq. (30). However, the $H_{i,i}$ and f_i terms computed by proxBBO may differ numerically from the corresponding terms in LCABA because proxBBO's Lagrangian (see Eq. (38)) does not contain the quadratic penalty terms of the ALF used in LCABA. The i^{th} link's constraint matrix $\bar{K}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i}$ is backpropagated to the parent link $\pi(i)$ in Eq. (46c). The set $LS(\pi(i))$ for each link can be recursively computed using the following update rule

$$
\mathcal{N}_{\pi(i)} \leftarrow \mathcal{N}_{\pi(i)} \cup \mathcal{N}_i. \tag{47}
$$

Early elimination. The spanning-tree leaf-links can be eliminated sequentially using the recursive formulae above until all the links are eliminated. Subsequently, the optimal Lagrange multipliers can be computed. However, this would introduce expensive coupling between all the loops, eventually leading to $O(n + m^2n + m^3)$ operations. To counter this, both [13] and [14] propose eliminating loop constraints as soon as all links supporting the corresponding loop are eliminated. We adopt this approach for proxBBO as well.

The last link to be eliminated from loop i is the loop root link $i = \mathfrak{r}_i$ by its definition in Section III. The set of loops supported by link i , \mathcal{N}_i , can be partitioned into two sets: i) the set of loops for which the link i is a root denoted as \mathcal{R}_i and ii) the remaining neighbor loops $\mathcal{U}_i := \mathcal{N}_i - \mathcal{R}_i$. The optimal cost-to-go Lagrangian function from Eq. (40) is also expanded based on this partition when it is the ith link's turn to be eliminated as follows

$$
V_i^{\mathcal{L}*} (\mathbf{a}_i, \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{U}}, \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{R}}) :=
$$
\n
$$
\frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_i \\ \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{U}_i} \\ \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{R}_i} \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} H_{i,i} & \bar{K}_{i,\mathcal{U}_i}^T & \bar{K}_{i,\mathcal{R}_i}^T \\ \bar{K}_{i,\mathcal{U}_i} & -\bar{L}_{\mathcal{U}_i,\mathcal{U}_i} & -\bar{L}_{\mathcal{U}_i,\mathcal{R}_i} \\ \bar{K}_{i,\mathcal{R}_i} & -\bar{L}_{\mathcal{U}_i,\mathcal{R}_i}^T & -\bar{L}_{\mathcal{R}_i,\mathcal{R}_i} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_i \\ \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{U}_i} \\ \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{R}_i} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{f}_i \\ \bar{\mathbf{h}}_{\mathcal{U}_i} \\ \bar{\mathbf{h}}_{\mathcal{U}_i} \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_i \\ \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{U}_i} \\ \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{R}_i} \end{bmatrix} .
$$
\n(48)

The Lagrange multipliers associated with the loops in \mathcal{R}_i are now eliminated, which leads to the following updates to the DP cost function and the i^{th} link's neighbor set

$$
V_i^{\mathcal{L}*}\left(\mathbf{a}_i, \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{U}}\right) \leftarrow \max_{\bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{R}}} V_i^{\mathcal{L}*}\left(\mathbf{a}_i, \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{U}}, \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{R}}\right),\qquad(49)
$$

$$
\mathcal{N}_i \leftarrow \mathcal{U}_i. \tag{50}
$$

The optimizer $\bar{\lambda}_{\mathcal{R}}^*$ of Eq. (49) is given by the necessary firstorder optimality conditions of the corresponding QP problem

$$
\bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{R}_i}^* = \bar{L}_{\mathcal{R}_i, \mathcal{R}_i}^{-1} \left(\bar{K}_{i, \mathcal{R}_i} \mathbf{a}_i - \bar{L}_{\mathcal{U}_i, \mathcal{R}_i}^T \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{U}_i} - \bar{\mathbf{k}}_{\mathcal{R}_i} \right), \qquad (51)
$$

where $\bar{L}_{\mathcal{R}_i,\mathcal{R}_i}$ is invertible because it is initialized as a positive definite diagonal matrix due to the proximal regularization (see Eq. (42)), which is followed by adding symmetric positive semi-definite matrices to its diagonal blocks in Eq. (46d). Substituting optimal Lagrange multipliers back into the original DP cost function in Eq. (48) gives the following recursive formulae for the coefficients of $V_i^{\mathcal{L}*}(\mathbf{a}_i, \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{U}})$

$$
\begin{bmatrix}\nH_{i,i} & \bar{K}_{i,\mathcal{U}_i}^T \\
\bar{K}_{i,\mathcal{U}_i} & -\bar{L}_{\mathcal{U}_i,\mathcal{U}_i}\n\end{bmatrix} \stackrel{+}{\leftarrow} \begin{bmatrix}\n\bar{K}_{i,\mathcal{R}_i}^T \\
-\bar{L}_{\mathcal{U}_i,\mathcal{R}_i}\n\end{bmatrix} \bar{L}_{\mathcal{R}_i,\mathcal{R}_i}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix}\n\bar{K}_{i,\mathcal{R}_i}^T \\
-\bar{L}_{\mathcal{U}_i,\mathcal{R}_i}\n\end{bmatrix}^T,
$$
\n(52)\n
$$
\begin{bmatrix}\n\mathbf{f}_i \\
\bar{\mathbf{k}}_{\mathcal{U}_i}\n\end{bmatrix} \stackrel{+}{\leftarrow} \begin{bmatrix}\n\bar{K}_{i,\mathcal{R}_i}^T \\
-\bar{L}_{\mathcal{U}_i,\mathcal{R}_i}\n\end{bmatrix} \bar{L}_{\mathcal{R}_i,\mathcal{R}_i}^{-1} \bar{\mathbf{k}}_{\mathcal{R}_i}.
$$

Fig. 5: Graphical illustration of the proxBBO's elimination steps. Compared to LCABA, additional red nodes are introduced to represent cut-joint Lagrange multipliers.

This way, all links and loop constraints are eliminated from the leaf links down to the root link. The second forward sweep then computes the numerical values of the joint accelerations and the optimal Lagrange multipliers using Eq. (45) and Eq. (51) respectively. Note that similarly to the LCABA algorithm, the subsequent proximal iterations are efficient because only relatively inexpensive matrix-vector operations in Eqs. 42c, 46b, 46e, 53, 51 and 45 need to be evaluated.

B. ProxBBO illustrative example

The proxBBO algorithm is illustrated in Fig. 5 on the same example mechanism used in LCABA illustration in Section IV-B. Compared to LCABA, proxBBO introduces additional nodes for the Lagrange multipliers of each cut-joint constraint, depicted as red nodes in Fig. 5a. Similarly to LCABA, elimination of each link or constraint introduces coupling between all the neighbors (including a link's parent) of the eliminated link or constraint. Eliminating links 6, 5, and 4 results in a graph where the constraint 12 is coupled with the link 3 as seen in Fig. 5b. Then eliminating links 11, 10 and 9 couple constraints 13 and link 3 as seen in Fig. 5c. Eliminating link 8 introduces coupling between constraints 12 and 13 as seen in Fig. 5d since link 8 supports both the loops. Upon eliminating the next leaf link, link 7, we arrive at link 3 in Fig. 5e, which is the root link of both loop 12 and loop 13. Both the constraints are then eliminated to get the graph in Fig. 5f, from where the elimination steps proceed identically to the ABA algorithm.

C. ProxBBO algorithm

This subsection presents proxBBO in an algorithmic form. Similarly to LCABA in Section IV-C, the three sweep algorithm corresponding to the first proximal iteration is presented in Algorithm 4, followed by the reduced sweep for the subsequent iterations in Algorithm 5 and the entire proxBBO algorithm in Algorithm 6. Again similarly to LCABA, the lines corresponding to ABA, proxPV and the proxBBO algorithms are colored in black, brown and blue respectively.

D. ProxBBO complexity analysis

Let the maximum number of loops supported by any link be

$$
\mathfrak{m}_b = \max_{i \in \mathcal{S}} \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{N}_i). \tag{54}
$$

The three-sweep algorithm from Algorithm 4 corresponding to the first proximal iteration is first analyzed. Using reasoning similar to that of LCABA analysis, the first forward sweep can Algorithm 5 proxBBO reduced two-sweep algorithm

Require: $\Delta \mathbf{f}_i$ s, $\Delta \mathbf{u}$, K_i s, $(\bar{K}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i}S_i)$ s, U_i s, D_i s, S_i s 1: for i in S_r do 2: if $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{R}_i) > 0$ then 3: $\left[\begin{array}{cc} \Delta \mathbf{f}_i \\ \Delta \bar{\mathbf{I}}_i \end{array}\right]$ $\Delta \bar{\mathbf{k}}_{\mathcal{U}_i}$ $\begin{bmatrix} \n\frac{1}{\mathcal{K}}^T_{i,\mathcal{R}_i} \[-\bar{L}_{\mathcal{U}_i,\mathcal{R}_i} \end{bmatrix}$ $\left] \, \bar{L}_{\mathcal{R}_i,\mathcal{R}_i}^{-1} \Delta \bar{\mathbf{k}}_{\mathcal{R}_i}; \right.$ 4: $\Delta \overline{\mathbf{u}}_i \leftarrow \overline{S}_i^T \Delta \mathbf{f}_i;$ 5: if $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{N}_i) > 0$ then 6: $\Delta \bar{\mathbf{k}}_{\mathcal{N}_i} \stackrel{+}{\leftarrow} \big(\bar{K}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i} S_i \big) \, \big(D_i^{-1} \Delta \mathbf{u}_i \big);$ 7: if $\pi(i) > 0$ then 8: $\Delta \mathbf{f}_{\pi(i)} \stackrel{+}{\leftarrow} \Delta \mathbf{f}_i - U_i \left(D_i^{-1} \Delta \mathbf{u}_i \right);$ Second forward sweep (roll-out) 9: $\Delta a_0 \leftarrow 0_6$; 10: for i in S do 11: if $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{N}_i) > 0$ then 12: $\Delta \textbf{u}_i \leftarrow -\left(\bar{K}_{i,\mathcal{N}_i}S_i\right)^T \Delta \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{N}_i};$ 13: $\Delta \dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}_i^{(k+1)}=D_i^{-1}\Delta \mathbf{u}_i-\left(U_iD_i^{-1}\right)^T\Delta \mathbf{a}_{\pi(i)}; \nonumber\ \Delta \mathbf{a}_i=\Delta \mathbf{a}_{\pi(i)}+S_i\Delta \dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}_i^{(k+1)};$ 14: $\Delta \textbf{a}_{i} = \Delta \textbf{a}_{\pi(i)} + S_i \Delta \dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}$ 15: if $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{R}_i) > 0$ then $\mathrm{16:} \qquad \Delta \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{R}_i}^{k+1} = \bar{L}^{-1}_{\mathcal{R}_i,\mathcal{R}_i} \bigl(\bar{K}_{i,\mathcal{R}_i} \Delta \mathbf{a}_i^{k+1} - \bigr)$ $\bar{L}^T_{\mathcal{U}_i,\mathcal{R}_i} \Delta \bar{\pmb{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{U}_i}^{k+1} - \Delta \bar{\mathbf{k}}_{\mathcal{R}_i} \big);$

Algorithm 6 proxBBO

Require: q, ν , τ , S_i s, H_i s, K_i s, \mathbf{k}_i s, $\mathbf{f}_i^{\text{ext}}, \mu$, λ^0 , \mathcal{E} , ϵ , max iter 1: Execute the three-sweep algorithm in Algorithm 4. 2: for k in range(1, max_iter) do 3: for i in in S do 4: $\Delta \mathbf{f}_i \leftarrow \mathbf{0}_6$ 5: for i in $\mathcal E$ do 6: $\Delta k_i^k \leftarrow \frac{1}{\mu} \Delta \lambda_i^k;$ $\lim_{\mu \to \infty} \frac{\mu}{\|\Delta \bar{k}_{\varepsilon}\|_{\infty}},$ if $\min(\|\Delta \bar{k}_{\varepsilon}\|_{\infty}, \|\Delta \bar{k}_{\varepsilon}\|_{\infty}) < \epsilon$ then 8: break 9: Execute reduced-two sweep algorithm in Algorithm 2; 10: $\boldsymbol{\dot{\nu}}^{k+1} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\dot{\nu}}^{k} + \Delta \boldsymbol{\dot{\nu}};$ 11: $\bar{\pmb{\lambda}}^{k+1}_{\mathcal{E}} \leftarrow \bar{\pmb{\lambda}}^{k}_{\mathcal{E}} + \Delta \bar{\pmb{\lambda}}_{\mathcal{E}};$

be shown to require $O(n+m)$ operations. The second forward sweep is more expensive than LCABA due to the line 32, which requires $O(C(\mathcal{N}_i)^2)$ operations, bringing the total cost of the second forward sweep to $O(n + \mathfrak{m}_b^2 n)$. The backward sweep is the most expensive part, where back-propagating the constraint matrices, constraint coupling and the constraint accelerations in lines 19, 20 and 21 incur $O(C(N_i)), O(C(N_i)^2)$ and $O(C(N_i))$ operations respectively at each link i bringing their total worst-case cost to $O(m_b^2 n)$. ProxBBO algorithm also requires factorizing the constraint coupling matrices in line 13, incurring a cost cubic in the number of eliminated constraints. This most-expensive factorization cost is $O(m_b^3)$ upper-bounded by $O(m^3)$ operations, which is realized when all the constraints are coupled. This brings the backward sweep cost to $O(n + \mathfrak{m}_b^2 n + \mathfrak{m}_b^3)$. The reduced two-sweeps in Algorithm 2 reuse the factorization from the three-sweep

algorithm and incur a lower cost of $O(n + m_b^2 n)$ operations. Therefore, the total worst-case complexity of the proxBBO three-sweep algorithm, being dominated by the backward sweep computations, is $O(n + \mathfrak{m}_b^2 n + \mathfrak{m}_b^3)$. While the worstcase computational complexity of LCABA required pathological cases to manifest, the proxBBO algorithm's worst-case complexity is likelier to be encountered in the common case when the loops are external and coupled, e.g., ground contact for a quadruped.

VI. EXPERIMENTS

This section discusses the C++ implementation of LCABA and proxBBO, presents the computational benchmarking of the algorithms on various robot setups and investigates the scaling of the algorithms for different topologies.

A. Implementation

The recursive algorithms LCABA and proxBBO are implemented in C++ on top of the efficient dynamics library PINOC-CHIO [24], and computationally benchmarked with the jointspace algorithm proxLTL, whose state-of-the-art version [34] is implemented in PINOCCHIO. All these three algorithms, being implemented in C++ and identically leveraging PINOC-CHIO's efficient rigid-body dynamics functions, contribute to benchmarking fairness. The proxLTL implementation in Pinocchio is particularly mature with implementation improvements since [34], and leverages vectorization, which gives it quadratic scaling as opposed to the theoretically expected cubic scaling [12], making the comparison between the recursive and the joint-space algorithms particularly fair towards the joint-space algorithms. All timings were benchmarked on a laptop running Ubuntu 22.04 LTS with an Intel® Core™ Ultra 7 165H CPU, and the code was compiled using the Clang 19.1.3 compiler.

B. Benchmarking on robot setups

We benchmark the presented algorithms on five robot scenarios consisting of internal closed-loops. We start with the 16 DoF Allegro Hand $(AH)^{-1}$ holding a cube with its four fingertips. Connect-type 3D constraints, which allow relative rotation but not relative translation, are imposed at the contact point between the fingertips and the cube. The next example involves two Allegro hands collaboratively holding a cube. Subsequently, the two AHs holding the cube are attached to a humanoid² robot's wrists to investigate the scaling of the algorithms. Then, 6D weld-type constraints are imposed between the humanoid robot's feet and the ground, testing the algorithms on a combination of internal and external loops. Then we consider the Digit humanoid robot, which has three closed loops on each leg, standing with weld constraints on the feet. This is followed by a digit robot standing and holding

¹ [https://github.com/Gepetto/example-robot-data/tree/](https://github.com/Gepetto/example-robot-data/tree/8d899847c8e7531a3d723b9647a79748056b0414/robots/allegro_hand_description/urdf)

[⁸d899847c8e7531a3d723b9647a79748056b0414/robots/](https://github.com/Gepetto/example-robot-data/tree/8d899847c8e7531a3d723b9647a79748056b0414/robots/allegro_hand_description/urdf)

allegro hand [description/urdf](https://github.com/Gepetto/example-robot-data/tree/8d899847c8e7531a3d723b9647a79748056b0414/robots/allegro_hand_description/urdf) accessed on Aug 19, 2024

²https://github.com/stack-of-tasks/pinocchio/blob/

²⁵⁷¹⁴c7d738b08e98201871757811525db74f2aa/models/simple humanoid.urdf

a box with its wrists. Finally, we consider the example of two Digit platforms collaboratively holding a box with their wrists while standing.

The results of the benchmarking are listed in Table II. The robot name is listed on the left, with the superscript indicating the number of robots. The constraints are listed as T, F, or H, depending on whether the constraint is imposed on the fingertip, feet, or hand. The three closed-loops in each of Digit's legs are modeled by cutting a link involved in the loop and introducing a fixed joint, denoted C . The subscript on the constraint indicates the type of constraint, and the superscript indicates the number of such imposed constraints. For each example, the timings are listed for one proximal/ALM iteration and three iterations to indicate how the cost might scale for a higher number of iterations. The computation timings are averaged over 100,0000 samples and are reported in μ s. The benchmarking was done in Ubuntu's terminal mode to avoid interference with the background processes affecting benchmarking results, and Intel's Turbo Boost is left turned on since we did not observe appreciable differences in computation timings between different runs. For reference, the computation timings of the vanilla ABA algorithm for unconstrained dynamics are also reported in the last column.

For a single Allegro Hand grasping a cube, proxLTL is the fastest algorithm, since the Allegro Hand's topology best suits the joint-space algorithms. It has extensive branching and short depth, with four fingers, each having four joints emerging from a fixed base. The resulting JSIM matrix enjoys a favorable sparsity structure that is even block-diagonal. The LCABA algorithm and the proxBBO algorithm display similar performance for this example. ProxBBO is expected to be more expensive than LCABA for theese examples because it requires additional factorizations for eliminating Lagrange multipliers and it does not benefit from different elimination-ordering for a given spanning tree, unlike LCABA. However, for the cubein-hand tasks, proxBBO is particularly expensive because all the loops are coupled through the free-floating cube leading to its worst-case (more on the worst case in Section VI-C) cubic complexity. For the case of two Allegro Hands holding a cube, LCABA emerges as the most efficient algorithm and remains so for the rest of the cases with larger robots due to its lower computational complexity. ProxBBO scales the worst in this contact-rich scenarios involving the Allegro Hand because all the constraints are coupled and propagated to the base. For the Digit robot, both the recursive algorithms scale than the higher-complexity proxLTL algorithm, with LCABA being the fastest among the recursive algorithms. ProxBBO's improved performance on the Digit platform is due to limited coupling among constraints due to the closed loops in the legs being local. For the case of two Digits together holding a box, LCABA is even over 6X faster than the proxLTL algorithm.

C. Scaling results

This subsection studies how the algorithms scale for different robot topologies, starting with a single loop with a

TABLE II: Computational timings of the proposed algorithms LCABA and proxBBO compared with proxLTL [34] in μ s is averaged over 100,000 samples. Timings of ABA [1] is provided for reference. The number of proximal/ALM iterations executed are indicated in the parentheses, system DoF within curly braces, and constraint dimension within the box brackets. Note that 6D constraints used for each loop in Digit's leg leads to a redundant constraint formulation.

System	LCABA	BBO	LTL	ABA
AH-cube- $T_{3D}^4(1)\{22\}[12]$	4.91	6.35	3.96	2.29
AH-cube- $T_{3D}^4(3)$	6.28	7.6	5.21	
AH ² -cube- $T_{3D}^{8}(1)\{38\}[24]$	7.87	15.6	9.37	4.2
AH ² -cube- $T_{3D}^8(3)$	9.7	19.3	12.4	
Hum-AH ² -cube- $T_{3D}^{8}(1)\{73\}[24]$	14.6	30.7	21.4	8.8
Hum-AH ² -cube- $T_{3D}^{8}(3)$	16.6	35.6	24.9	
Hum-AH ² -cube- $F_{6D}^2T_{3D}^8(1)$	15.6	35.8	29.0	8.8
${73}[36]$				
Hum-AH ² -cube- $F_{6D}^2T_{3D}^8$ (3)	18.2	43.1	33.5	
	9.96	14.7	23.1	5.5
Digit-F _{6D} C _{6D} (1){44}[48] Digit-F _{6D} C _{6D} (3){44}[48]	12.4	18.4	28.4	
Digit-cube- $F_{6D}^2C_{6D}^6T_{3D}^2(1)$	12.0	18.0	28.9	5.9
${50}$ [54]				
	14.8	22.0	33.9	
Digit-cube- $F_{6D}^2C_{6D}^6T_{3D}^2$ (3) Digit ² -cube- $F_{6D}^4C_{12}^2T_{3D}^4$ (1)	23.5	44.2	142.6	11.9
${94}[108]$				
Digit ² -cube- F_{6D}^4 C _{6D} T _{3D} (3)	31.0	58.8	168	

varying number of links, followed by a chain of loops, a worstcase mechanism topology where every loop is coupled with every other loop, and finally, a topology that particularly favors LCABA over proxBBO.

Single loop. A schematic diagram of a cycle of n links is shown in Fig. 6a, with the last link connected to the first link through a 6D *weld* joint (shown in red) and Fig. 6b shows the computation timings in μ s for the first prox/ALM iteration. The proxLTL algorithm scales superlinearly with the number of links, as expected. Note that its cost is empirically observed to be quadratic and not the theoretically expected cubic cost due to the efficient implementation that leverages vectorization. Between the recursive algorithms, proxBBO holds a slight advantage over LCABA for longer loops. This is believed to be due to proxBBO's implementation having a smaller memory footprint in this case, which is beneficial for using the CPU cache efficiently. Our proxBBO implementation re-used existing variables in PINOCCHIO's data structure for $H_{i,i}$, while LCABA required the creating a new object for storing its inertias H .

Chain of loops. Next, we benchmark the algorithms on a chain of loops as shown in Fig. 7a, with each loop consisting of seven links. The computation timings plotted in Fig. 7b follow a similar trend as the single loop case for the same reasons, with proxBBO being slightly faster than LCABA and proxLTL being the slowest.

Worst-case mechanism topology. The algorithms are next benchmarked on a mechanism topology shown in Fig. 8a, where each loop formed by a cut-joint contains at least one joint from the corresponding loop formed by every other cutjoint. The computation timings in Fig. 8b show how the differ-

(a) A cycle with n links. (b) Computation timings in μ s for the first prox/ALM iteration for the cycle mechanism.

Fig. 6: Computational scaling of the different CDAs for cyclic mechanisms.

(a) A chain of m_l loops (b) Computation timings in μ s for the with each loop consisting of first prox/ALM iteration for the cycle n_l links. mechanism.

Fig. 7: Computational scaling of the different CDAs for cyclic mechanisms.

ent algorithms scale with the increasing number of cut-joints. All algorithms scale superlinearly, and the results indicate that recursive algorithms provide no speed-up compared to the joint-space algorithms in the worst-case scenario, which is fortunately not encountered in practice.

Favorable mechanism topology. We now consider a topology where there is branching arising from a single link, and the branch tips are connected with each other with a 6D constraint as seen in Fig. 9a. LCABA's minimum degree heuristic ensures that the neighbor count for a leaf link being eliminated does not exceed one. The computation timings shown in Fig. 9b demonstrate that LCABA scaling is much better than proxBBO, which scales better than proxLTL for this mechanism topology.

D. Convergence of the algorithms

This section investigates the convergence of the constraint residuals (the ℓ_{∞} norm of the residuals to be precise) and the numerical stability of the algorithms presented. Benchmarking is done for the second case in Table II with two Allegro hands grasping a cube with their fingertips, that leads to a singular case due to redundant constraint formulation. The results, plotted in Fig. 10 for $\mu = 10^5$, depict mean and standard deviation of the constraint residual with the boxes and

Fig. 8: Computational scaling of the different CDAs for cyclic mechanisms. a) A simple worst-case mechanism topology. b) Computation timings in μ s for the first prox/ALM iteration for the cycle mechanism.

Fig. 9: Computational scaling for a mechanism topology that favors LCABA over proxBBO. a) the favorable mechanism topology with branching from a single link i , b) computation timings in μ s for the first prox/ALM iteration as the number of branches m_b increases.

maximum and minimum values of the constraint residual with the lines. These statistics, generated over 10,000 randomly sampled robot positions and control inputs, indicate rapid convergence for all three algorithms within a few iterations. Faster convergence was observed for higher values of μ . However, the augmented Lagrangian method behind LCABA, is known to be numerically sensitive to high-values of the quadratic penalty parameters μ . Therefore, the numerical sensitivity of the different algorithms were investigated by comparing the solution (v) of different algorithms against the relatively numerically stable solution of proxLTL with $\mu = 10^3$ and the results are plotted in Fig. 11 over different values of μ . As expected, the Riccati-recursion and ALM-based LCABA algorithm's solution deviated from the reference solution with increasing μ values, while both proxBBO and proxLTL demonstrated numerical stability up to $\mu = 10^{11}$. Values of μ between 10^5 and 10^7 seem to provide a good mix of fast convergence and good-enough numerical stability. We observed similar behavior across other setups and tasks, where the values of

Fig. 10: Benchmarking convergence of the different algorithms on the two Allegro hands grasping a cube (second case in Table II with 24 constraints T_{3D}^8). This leads to a redundant constraint formulation that requires proximal methods. The constraint residual's inf norm is shown for 11 proximal/ALM iterations for $\mu = 10^5$ for 10,000 randomly generated examples. The box depicts mean and standard deviation, while line depicts the maximum and minimum values.

Fig. 11: Relative residual $\left(\frac{\|\dot{v} - \dot{v}_{ref}\|}{\|\dot{v}_{ref}\|}\right)$ is plotted for the algorithms as μ increases, using the relatively numerically stable proxLTL algorithm with $\mu = 10^3$ as the reference over 10,000 randomly generated samples. The box depicts mean and standard deviation, while line depicts the maximum and minimum values.

lead to convergence within a tolerance of 10^{-6} typically within 3 iterations.

VII. DISCUSSIONS

This section critically discusses the presented algorithms, LCABA and proxBBO, their connections to existing literature, and potential directions for extensions. We first discuss how they generalize Riccati recursion to graphs. We then discuss the impact of the choice of spanning tree on the computational efficiency of the algorithms. We then highlight the connections between proxBBO and LCABA and how they can be combined to form a unified algorithm before connecting the algorithms to factor graphs and probabilistic inference. Finally, we discuss the choice of implicit versus explicit constraint formulations and its implications for the presented algorithms.

A. Generalizes Riccati recursion to graphs

The ABA [28], [29] and the PV algorithms [9] are known [49], [11] to generalize the celebrated Riccati recursion to tree-structured unconstrained and constrained equivalent LQR problems respectively. Such tree-structured Riccati recursions, parallelly developed in control and optimization literature [50], [51], are useful for solving stochastic optimal control problems with scenario trees [52]. The presented recursive algorithms eliminate links from leaves to root for a spanning tree using the joint acceleration recurrence relation similar to dynamics equation elimination via substitution in LQR solvers, effectively making them generalization of Riccati recursion beyond tree-structure to general graphs with loops. A straightforward occurrence of loops in an LQR problem is in periodic optimal control problems, where the periodicity constraint imposes the initial and terminal states to be equal. Efficient numerical algorithms for such periodic optimal control has been well studied, see [53], [54] and references therein. However, they do not appear to have been generalized to general graph structures.

Applying the presented algorithms to control problems for combining scenario trees and periodicity constraints, as well as studying the convergence and stabilization properties of such controllers, is a promising avenue for future work. Permitting graph structure in optimal control further enables interesting applications such as periodicity constraints at different frequencies for different subsets of states or for enforcing synchronization constraints in multi-agent systems at different time instants.

B. Spanning tree selection

It is important to choose the spanning tree that is assumed as an input to the presented algorithms appropriately, especially since it can significantly impact their computational efficiency. In practical scenarios, the spanning-tree choice is often straightforward. External contact constraints, e.g., finger-cube contact constraints from Fig. 1a, are modeled as cut joints, and the robot joints are included in the spanning tree to prioritize the mechanism's kinematic consistency. Even for robots with kinematic loops like the Digit robot, the actuated joints and the floating-base joint are typically chosen to get a spanning tree, and the closed-loop constraints and the sub-mechanism constraints are modeled as cut joints. This also often yields a favorable spanning tree for the presented algorithms.

It may be desirable to algorithmically automate the optimal spanning tree selection by solving a secondary discreteoptimization problem for a given mechanism and algorithm. However, it is well-known that finding an optimal elimination order, even without the restriction of conforming to a spanning-tree ordering, is an NP-complete [45]. Developing an effective algorithm for this problem is non-trivial and is unlikely to provide significant speed-ups for many existing robot topologies over manual spanning-tree selection. Therefore, this aspect is decidedly considered out of the scope of this paper so as not to overload it.

Relaxing spanning-tree elimination order: The spanningtree based elimination ordering can be relaxed to fully leverage heuristics from numerical linear algebra such as minimum degree or minimum fill-in. However, such an approach does not exploit 'term-level' sparsity inherent in joint acceleration recurrence relations. It is likely to be less efficient than the presented algorithms for most practical robots. It also results in a significantly more complex algorithm, for example, eliminating a joint and the corresponding link in the middle of a chain of one DoF joints results in constructing a new fictitious two DoF joint between the link's parent and child link after tedious calculations and the new constraint moreover does not, in general, have term-level sparsity. Overall, this approach is sensitive to singularities necessitating expensive pivoting methods and corresponds to general-purpose sparse linear solvers, which are known to be less efficient than specialized algorithms [1].

C. Relation to factor graphs and probabilistic inference

The GPLC problem for a mechanism with loops can also be interpreted as a probabilistic inference problem over a Bayesian network [55]. Consider the link accelerations, joint accelerations, and joint torques as random variables, with a Bayesian prior on each link's acceleration given by a Gaussian distribution whose covariance is the link's inverse inertia matrix and mean is the link's acceleration in the absence of joint constraints. Each joint imposes a deterministic constraint between the accelerations of different links. Being an equivalent representation of the GPLC problem, solving for the maximum likelihood solution of this network, conditioned upon the applied joint torques, provides the solution to constrained dynamics problem. The factor graph perspective is not merely theoretically interesting, since non-serial DP and the variable elimination perspective used to derive this paper's algorithms are the same ideas underpinning inference algorithms [23] over factor graphs. This implies that the dynamics algorithms from this paper are suitable for probabilistic inference over factor graphs whose priors and constraints conform to the GPLC problem structure.

D. Connections between proxBBO and LCABA

LCABA can be derived from proxBBO's proximal formulation by eliminating Lagrange multipliers before eliminating any primal variable. Starting with the proximal formulation in Eq. (37), swap the order in which λ and $\dot{\nu}$ are eliminated to get:

$$
\dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}^{(k+1)} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}} \min_{\boldsymbol{\lambda}} \left\{ -\mathcal{L}(\dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}) + \frac{1}{2\mu} \|\boldsymbol{\lambda} - \boldsymbol{\lambda}^{(k)}\|^2 \right\},\tag{55}
$$

where solving the inner minimization problem yields LCABA's ALM formulation from Eq. (20) for the outer minimization problem. The equivalence between ALM and dual PPA is well-known in optimization [56] and has also been observed between constrainedABA and proxPV in the context of CDAs for kinematic trees and external loops [12].

Therefore, the main difference between LCABA and prox-BBO is the elimination ordering of the variables from the proximal formulation. ProxBBO can be more efficient than LCABA when propagating constraints of less than 6 dimensions through the graph, as seen for the Allegro Hand in Section VI, and is also more efficient for constraints involving a high number of links compared to the LCABA algorithm, making it suitable for constraints like center-of-mass (CoM) constraints. This suggests that a unified algorithm that can switch to proxBBO or LCABA based on the type of constraints and the connectivity graph structure can offer some speed-up. Like spanning-tree selection, this second-order enhancement requires discrete optimization and is left for future work. Similarly to constrainedABA [12], LCABA also generalizes the compliant constraint model in MUJOCO[57], with the first ALM iteration corresponding to solving MUJOCO's soft-Gauss principle (if dual variable initial guess $\lambda^0 = 0$) and the subsequent iterations converging to rigid constraint model.

E. Explicit versus implicit constraint formulations

This paper focused exclusively on the implicit constraint formulation. Explicit constraint formulations are readily specified only for a limited set of constraints like four-bar linkages with single DoF joints and gear submechanisms. In other cases, it needs to be derived from the implicit formulation, leading to an additional cost that can get particularly expensive for large loops. Another common strategy to obtain an explicit constraint formulation is to assign a subset of joints as *independent*, which is, however, prone to kinematic singularities. Compared to these approaches, the implicit formulation is more readily specified, can handle a wider variety of constraints efficiently, and is less prone to singularities.

There exists Jain's linear constraint embedding (LCE) [39] approach that exploits explicit constraint formulation to propose efficient recursive algorithms. LCE, while particularly suited for local loops, can get expensive for larger loops (like the dual arm manipulation constraint or the feet-ground contact constraint for legged robots) because its cost increases cubically with the number of joints supporting the largest loop. While not as optimized for local loops as LCE, the presented algorithms can handle a wider variety of constraints efficiently. Investigating LCE's speedup compared to the presented algorithms for mechanisms with only local loops is interesting. Still, due to the complexity of implementing LCE within PINOCCHIO for fair comparison, this is considered outside the scope of this paper. Moreover, the LCE approach being compatible with the GPLC derivation [41], and can be embedded in the derivation of proxBBO or LCABA to obtain a hybrid algorithm that uses implicit formulation for larger loops and explicit formulation for local loops. However, it is non-trivial to combine these approaches, and the computational benefit of such a hybrid algorithm compared to LCABA/proxBBO is unclear. Answering these questions must be left for future work so as not to overload this paper.

VIII. CONCLUSION

This paper culminates the development of low-complexity CDAs, proxBBO and LCABA, in the context of proximal dynamics formulation [34] began in [12], by extending proxPV

and constrainedABA respectively to efficiently address the wider class mechanisms with internal closed loops. It also culminates in revisiting and reviving recursive low-complexity CDAs [11], [12], that had fallen out of favor in modern simulators compared to the joint-space algorithms by demonstrating compelling computational speed-ups compared to the state-of-the-art joint-space algorithm proxLTL, despite prox-LTL's particularly efficient implementation in the PINOCCHIO library. LCABA matches proxLTL's performance for lowerdimensional robots while providing over 6x speed-ups for higher-dimensional robots like humanoids with several internal closed loops. The presented algorithms leverage proximal/ALM iterations, enabling them to account for singular cases due to redundant constraints and singular configurations in a straightforward manner.

The presented algorithms' ability to address internal loops and singular cases, and their efficient proximal iterations in particular, make them ready and well-suited to be used as the inner solvers within optimization-based frictional contact simulators, whether they are ADMM-based [6] or interiorpoint based [58]. The differentiability of the proximal operator also makes them suitable for gradient-based optimization methods. Through follow-up research in this direction, this paper's algorithms will serve as the algorithmic foundation for speeding up contact-rich simulation and computation-intensive control applications such as MPC. Beyond mechanics, the presented algorithms can also find applications in control and estimation by effectively generalizing Riccati recursion to general graphs and through the factor graph connection.

Limitations of the presented algorithms were also identified such as LCABA being numerically sensitive to high penalty parameters μ The other weaknesses were the algorithms' assumption that a spanning tree is provided as input, and being limited to a spanning tree elimination order and implicit constraint formulations. These drawbacks can also be addressed by developing a discrete-optimization framework to compute the optimal spanning tree or even to even relax spanning-tree elimination ordering constraint when beneficial, and finally by proposing a hybrid formulation that can use explicit constraint formulation for local submechanisms like gears, belts, and four-bar linkages. These enhancements, being involved, are left for future work.

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