# **Coordinated Collision-Free Movement of Groups of Agents**

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Abstract: Coordinating the movement of groups of autonomous agents in a crowded environment is a vital problem with application areas such as warehousing, computer games, or drone art. In this paper, we study the problem of finding collision-free paths for groups of agents such that the groups are kept together like a flock, a fish school, or a military unit. Specifically, we analyze the properties of the problem, propose a SAT formulation based on network flows, and perform a numerical experimental evaluation on various instance types. The results suggest that it is a challenging problem with promising research and application potential. Furthermore, we demonstrate the functionality of our solution method on real educational robots.

# 1 INTRODUCTION AND MOTIVATION

In this paper, we introduce the *Connected Colored MAPF* problem that consists of multiple teams of agents deployed in a shared, fully observable environment with possible static obstacles. The agents then move in a coordinate collision-free manner towards given target locations. For each team, the number of target locations equals the number of agents in the team. Agents within one team are interchangeable, that is, an agent aims to reach any of the targets associated with its team. A goal state occurs as soon as every agent reaches any of its relevant targets.

Individual teams do not compete or harm each other. They may cooperate in reaching their respective targets, for example, by waiting and letting another agent pass. The agents within one team are required to remain close to each other at any time during their movement. Such coordination ensures, e.g., the possibility to communicate with each other in a multihop fashion.

Practical applications of Connected Colored MAPF include but are not limited to the video game industry, drone formation control, or warehouse robots. In real-time strategic games, individual military units are sometimes required to preserve a specific formation when relocating to a given area in the environment. Multi-UAV (unmanned aerial vehicle) cooperative formation flight is to arrange drones with autonomous flight functions according to the designed three-dimensional space structure so that the drones keep a stable formation during the flight and can change the formation shape according to mission needs and environmental changes (Li et al., 2020). Drone art shows may enhance the audience's aesthetic experience during musical performances. Applications involving multiple robots moving in a crowded environment may require communication maintenance among the robots.

#### **1.1 Relevance to Other Problems**

*Multi-Agent Path Finding* (MAPF) is a rapidly developing and widely studied area dealing with finding collision-free paths from initial to target locations for a set of agents from moving in a given environment. In the classical MAPF problem, each agent is associated with a unique destination. However, there are applications where the agents need to move to specific areas, but the exact locations of agents in these areas are not important. An example of such situation is when warehouse robots of the same type need to relocate to uniform charging stations at the end of a shift. This variant of MAPF is known as *Anonymous MAPF*.

A generalized version of Anonymous MAPF, referred to as *Colored MAPF*, assumes multiple groups of agents with specified areas of destinations for each

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group. Colored MAPF problems can be found in computer games, where armies of bots are moving to locations specified by the player (Ma et al., 2017). Positions of individual bots are not distinguished, but the groups should reach their destinations. There are similar situations in transportation problems, for example, in warehouses (Ma and Koenig, 2016). Anonymous MAPF can be solved makespan-optimally in polynomial time (Yu and LaValle, 2012); however, finding a makespan-optimal solution to MAPF is NPhard (Surynek, 2010; Ratner and Warmuth, 1990). As (Connected) Colored MAPF is a generalization of classical MAPF, where each agent has its destination, the NP-hardness result applies to (Connected) Colored MAPF as well.

There exist both imperative and declarative methods for finding a makespan-optimal solution to Colored MAPF. Conflict-Based Min-Cost-Flow (CBM) (Ma and Koenig, 2016) is based on algorithm Conflict-Based Search (CBS) (Sharon et al., 2012). Reduction-based methods using Boolean satisfiability and integer linear programming formulation have also been developed (Barták et al., 2021).

The Connected Colored MAPF problem we investigate here is a variant of Colored MAPF, where agents within individual groups must be kept together.

Connectivity was introduced in classical MAPF (Queffelec et al., 2020). Communication maintenance was also studied in the Area Protection Problem (Ivanová et al., 2018), which can be viewed as a MAPF with an adversarial element. Unlike in Connected Colored MAPF, the agents in the Area Protection Problem (Ivanová et al., 2018) are not required to keep adjacent locations. Instead, they need to remain within a defined communication vicinity of each other, which allows them to distance themselves up to a given diameter while obstacles are not transparent. Connected Colored MAPF has never been studied before, and we introduce the problem here.

The paper is organized as follows. We will first formally introduce the Connected Colored MAPF Problem and discuss some of its properties. Then, we will present the SAT model of the problem with two possible encodings of the connectivity constraints. Finally, we will empirically evaluate the behavior of the solver and present an application that allows the demonstration of the results on real education robots.

# **2** FORMAL DEFINITION

Let  $A = \{1, ..., n\}$  be a set of *n* agents and G = (V, E) be an un-directed graph with vertices *V* and edges *E*.

Agents are initially staying at some vertices, which is described by initial configuration  $S : A \to V$ , where S(a) is the initial position of agent a. The final configuration is given by a set of vertices  $T \subset V$  such that |T| = |A|.

Anonymous MAPF problem is given by a quadruple (G, A, S, T) and its solution is a set of collisionfree plans. A plan  $\pi_a$  for an agent *a* is a sequence of vertices such that  $\pi_a[1] = S(a)$  and for each t either  $\pi_a[t] = \pi_a[t+1]$  (agent waits at a vertex) or  $(\pi_a[t], \pi_a[t+1]) \in E$  (agent moves to a neighboring vertex). Let  $m_a$  be the length of plan for agent a, then we define  $\pi_a[t] = \pi_a[m_a]$  for each  $t > m_a$  (agents eventually stay in their final vertices). Note, however, that if an agent reaches one of its targets at time  $t < m_a$ , it can still leave the target and perhaps give way to another agent. Let  $M = max_{a \in A} m_a$  be a makespan of the plans. We require agents to reach the final configuration:  $\forall v \in T \ \exists a \in A : \pi_a[M] = v$ , and the plans to be collision free:  $\forall a_1, a_2 \in A, a_1 \neq a_2, \forall t : \pi_{a_1}[t] \neq \pi_{a_2}[t]$ (no vertex collision) and  $\forall a_1, a_2 \in A, a_1 \neq a_2, \forall t$ :  $\pi_{a_1}[t] \neq \pi_{a_2}[t+1] \lor \pi_{a_1}[t+1] \neq \pi_{a_2}[t]$  (no swapping collision).

Colored MAPF (also known as Team MAPF or TAPF) with k groups of agents is then given as  $(G, (A_1, S_1, T_1), \ldots, (A_k, S_k, T_k))$ , where each  $(G, A_i, S_i, T_i)$  is anonymous MAPF (Solovey and Halperin, 2014). A solution of Colored MAPF is a union of solutions of individual anonymous MAPF problems such that the plans across the groups are also collision-free.

Let  $V^{ct} = {\pi_a[t] : a \in A_c}$  be the set of vertices occupied by agents from  $A_c$  at time step t. The *Connected Colored MAPF* is a variant of Colored MAPF that additionally requires the graph induced by  $V^{ct}$  to be connected at each time step t, i.e.,  $\forall c \in {1, ..., k}, \forall t : G[V^{ct}] = (V^{ct}, E^{ct})$  is connected.

## **3 PROBLEM PROPERTIES**

Experimental evaluation of Colored MAPF reveals that adding an agent and a target to an existing team can, in fact, decrease the minimum makespan (Barták et al., 2021), contrary to the classic MAPF, in which adding an agent never leads to an improvement of minimum makespan. Intuitively, this can be explained by a new goal being placed in a more favorable position for a particular agent. This phenomenon can occur in the Connected Colored MAPF problem as well, as illustrated in Fig. 1. The instance on the left has a minimum makespan of 9 because the agents are forced to traverse in a train-like movement around the obstacle to keep connected. When we add three more

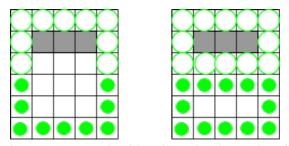


Figure 1: An example of how increasing the number of agents can improve a makespan. Green and white circles are agents of one team and their targets, respectively. Grey blocks represent obstacles.

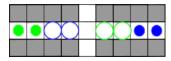


Figure 2: An instance of Colored MAPF for which there exists a solution. When connectivity is required, this instance becomes unsolvable. The color of target matches the color of agents.

agents and targets as depicted on the right, the minimum makespan decreases to 5 as there is now enough agents to maintain connectivity: all agents make one step up, and subsequently, all agents except the top three in the middle make another four steps to fill the target locations along the border. Note, however, that the depicted instance is somewhat artificially designed, and improvement of makespan rarely happens in our experimental scenarios.

Figure 1, the instance on the left, is also an example of an instance where the connectivity constraint increases the optimal makespan. As was mentioned, under the Connected Colored MAPF, this instance has an optimal makespan of 9, while under Colored MAPF, this instance is solvable with a makespan of 5, as the agents may disconnect and approach the targets from both sides.

Furthermore, adding the connectivity constraint can cause an instance that would be solvable as a Colored MAPF to become unsolvable as a Connected Colored MAPF. It typically happens in crowded instances when initial and target locations overlap, but there are cases when there is no solution, even with disjoint initial and target locations. An example of such an instance can be seen in Figure 2. Indeed, in Colored MAPF, a solution is for the green agents to move out of the way to the very top and bottom vertices to let the blue agents pass. Then, they can navigate to their target positions. This solution (or any other) is not possible under Connected Colored MAPF since any solution requires either the two green agents or the two blue agents to disconnect.

### **4** SOLUTION METHODS

Our approach to tackling Connected Colored MAPF is to propose a Boolean satisfiability (SAT) formulation that extends an existing model for Colored MAPF (Barták et al., 2021). This reduction-based technique uses a spatial-temporal layered graph of a certain number of layers in which the agents move. Each layer of the graph corresponds to a single time step. The layered graph is a directed acyclic graph, and can be regarded as multiple copies of the original graph with removed edges. Consecutive layers are then connected by oriented edges that represent a movement along an edge or staying at a vertex in the original graph. Initially, the number of layers in the spatial-temporal graph equals some lower bound on the makespan. In the beginning, agents are placed in the first layer at their initial locations. The SAT solver then tries to find paths for each agent to a target associated with its team. If there is a solution, it means the minimum makespan equals the current number of layers. Otherwise, the number of available layers increases by one, and the path-finding process is repeated.

### 4.1 SAT Model for Colored MAPF

The existing SAT formulation of Colored MAPF uses the following two sets of variables:

$$At(t, a, v) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{agent } a \text{ is at node } v \text{ at time step } t, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

$$Pass(t, a, v, u) = \begin{cases} 1 & a \text{ passes via arc } (v, u) \text{ at time } t, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

and constraints on these variables imposing movement rules and goal conditions in accordance with the definition of Colored MAPF.

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$$\forall a \in \bigcup_{c=1}^{k} A_c : At(S(a), a, 0) = 1$$
(1a)

$$\forall c \in \{1, \dots, k\}, \forall a \in A_c : \sum_{v \in T_c} At(M, a, v) = 1 \quad (1b)$$

$$\forall v \in V, \forall t \in \{0, \dots, M\} : \sum_{a \in \cup_{c=1}^{k} A_{c}} At(t, a, v) \le 1$$
(1c)

$$\forall (v,u) \in E, \forall t \in \{0,\dots,M-1\} : \\ \sum_{a \in \cup_{c=1}^{k} A_{c}} Pass(t,a,v,u) + Pass(t,a,u,v) \leq 1 \quad (1d)$$

$$\forall v \in V, \forall a \in \bigcup_{c=1}^{k} A_c, \forall t \in \{1, \dots, M\}:$$
$$At(t, a, v) = \sum_{(u, v) \in E} Pass(t - 1, a, u, v) \quad (1e)$$

$$\forall v \in V, \forall a \in \bigcup_{c=I}^{k} A_{c}, \forall t \in \{0, \dots, M-I\}:$$
$$At(t, a, v) = \sum_{(v, u) \in E} Pass(t, a, v, u) \quad (1f)$$

The constraints have the following interpretation:

- 1. Initial location of each agent is set (1a).
- 2. Each agent from a group c eventually arrives in exactly one node in  $T_c$  (1b).
- 3. Each node is occupied by at most one agent at a time (avoidance of node collisions) (1c).
- 4. Two agents cannot pass through the same edge in opposite directions at the same time (avoidance of swapping collisions) (1d).
- 5. An agent is at a node if and only if it arrived via an inbound edge, and left via an outbound edge (waiting is enabled by the existence of loops) (1e),(1f).

# 4.2 Multi-Commodity Model for Connectivity

The main idea that helps to coordinate the agents' movement in a connected manner is based on the multi-commodity network flow (MCF) problem. Consider positions  $V^{ct}$  of agents from each team  $A_c$ at every time step t and the induced graph  $G[V^{ct}]$ . We are looking for a MCF in each  $G[V^{ct}]$ . Next, for each team  $A_c$ , let us select a representative agent  $a_c$ whose location acts as a source of the MCF. The remaining agents' locations are sinks for commodities associated with the corresponding agents. Intuitively, the flow of commodity associated with agent a passes through some of the agents' current locations and is absorbed once it reaches the current position of a. The existence of a MCF in each G<sup>ct</sup> ensures the existence of a path from the source  $a_c$  to every agent from  $A_c$ , and thus the connectivity of agents within one team.

We therefore extend the model by another set of variables representing MCF. For each team *c*, time step *t*, agent  $a \in A_c$  and edge  $\{u, v\} \in E^{ct}$ , there is a variable  $f_{uva}^{ct}$  such that

$$f_{uva}^{ct} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{flow of agent } a \text{ passes } (u, v) \text{ at time } t, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The variables are Boolean, and so the resulting assignment found by a SAT solver represents paths from  $\pi_t(a_c)$  to  $\pi_t(a)$  for each  $a \in A_c$ . Additional constraints are derived from a standard formulation of MCF.

$$\forall c \in \{1, \dots, k\}, \forall a \in A_c \setminus \{a_c\}, \\ \forall t \in \{1, \dots, M-1\}, u = \pi_{a_c}[t]: \\ \sum_{(u,v) \in E^{ct}} f_{uva}^{ct} = I \quad (2a)$$

$$\forall c \in \{1, \dots, k\}, \forall a \in A_c \setminus \{a_c\}, \\ \forall t \in \{1, \dots, M-I\}, v \in V^{ct} \setminus \{\pi_a[t], \pi_{a_c}[t]\}: \\ \sum_{(u,v) \in E^{ct}} f_{uva}^{ct} = \sum_{(v,u) \in E^{ct}} f_{vua}^{ct} \quad (2b)$$

$$\forall c \in \{1, \dots, k\}, \forall a \in A_c \setminus \{a_c\}, \\ \forall t \in \{1, \dots, M-I\}, v = \pi_a[t]: \\ \sum_{(u,v) \in E^{ct}} f_{uva}^{ct} = 1 \quad (2c)$$

$$\forall c \in \{1, \dots, k\}, \forall a \in A_c \setminus \{a_c\}, \\ \forall t \in \{1, \dots, M-1\}, \forall (u, v) \in E^{ct}, v \neq \pi_{a_c}[t], : \\ f_{uva}^{ct} \leq \sum_{a \in A_c} At(t, a, v) \quad (2d)$$

The sets of constraints (2a)-(2c) are flow conservation constraints on sources  $\pi_{a_c}$ , intermediate nodes and sinks, respectively. By (2d) we then express the relation between the variables. It is sufficient to define these flow constraints for time steps  $1, \ldots, M-1$ , because the connectivity in initial and target configuration is already guaranteed by the admissibility of tested instances. We shall refer to this model as an *MCF* model.

Let us note that the induced graph  $G[V^{ct}]$  is not a part of the input, but changes dynamically as the agents progress towards their target locations, i.e., sources and sinks change in each time step according to the position of the corresponding agents. When implementing, one has to keep in mind that the flow constraints are conditional.

## 4.3 Single-Commodity Model for Connectivity

The previous model for connectivity treats each agent in a group as a single commodity. This approach creates many variables since for each agent in a group, we require a set of variables describing all of the edges in the graph. An idea that may save some variables treats a single group as a single commodity and is based on a single commodity flow (SCF). The drawback of this model is that the domain of the variables is not a Boolean but rather a range in  $\{0, \ldots, |A_c|\}$ . This is not natural for a SAT solver but can be managed with a log-encoding of the variables. We will describe the implementation details in a later section.

We again extend the colored MAPF model by another set of variables representing SCF. For each team c, time step t, and edge  $\{u, v\} \in E^{ct}$ , there is a variable  $f_{uv}^{ct}$  such that  $f_{uv}^{ct} \in \{0, ..., |A_c|\}$ . A representative agent  $a_c$  is again selected from each team  $A_c$  to act as the source of the flow. The following constraints imposing connectivity are added to the Colored MAPF model (1a)-(1f):

$$\forall c \in \{1, \dots, k\}, \forall t \in \{1, \dots, M - 1\}, u = \pi_{a_c}[t] : \sum_{(u,v) \in E^{ct}} f_{uv}^{ct} = |A_c| - 1 \quad (3a)$$

$$\forall c \in \{1, \dots, k\}, \forall t \in \{1, \dots, M - I\},$$
$$v \in V^{ct} \setminus \{\pi_{a_c}[t]\}:$$
$$\sum_{(u,v) \in E^{ct}} f_{uv}^{ct} = I + \sum_{(v,u) \in E^{ct}} f_{vu}^{ct} \quad (3b)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \forall c \in \{1, \dots, k\}, \forall t \in \{1, \dots, M-1\}, \forall (u, v) \in E^{ct}: \\ f_{uv}^{ct} \leq |A_c| * \sum_{a \in A_c} At(t, a, v) \quad (3c) \end{aligned}$$

The sets of constraints (3a) and (3b) represent the flow. The representative agent  $a_c$  initiates a flow of size  $|A_c| - 1$ , and every other agent consumes one unit of the flow, and forwards the rest of the received flow to its outgoing edges. By (3c) we then express the relation between the flow variables and the variables modeling the presence of an agent at a node. We shall refer to this model as an *SCF* model.

The reasoning why this is sufficient to model agents' connectivity is as follows. Consider a flow network created from the induced graph  $G[V^{ct}]$  by adding a source connected to the location of  $a_c$  with a capacity of  $|A_c|$  and a sink connected to each of the vertices in  $V^{ct}$  with a capacity of 1. The maximum flow will be equal to  $|A_c|$  only if the graph  $G[V^{ct}]$  is connected. This network is equivalent to the proposed SCF model, but rather than adding a source and a sink, we generate the flow at the positions of  $a_c$  and each agent consumes a flow of size one. The name of the model reflects this reasoning.

### **5 EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION**

In order to assess the performance of the proposed model, we conducted numerical experiments on scenarios suitable for the studied problem. In the following, we provide a detailed explanation that facilitates the reproducibility of the tests.

#### 5.1 Implementation

The described model has been implemented using the Picat programming language (Picat language and compiler version 2.7b7), which is a logic-based programming language similar to Prolog. The main advantage, and the reason this tool was used, is that the constraints are easily represented and then automatically translated to a propositional formula. See Figure 3 for a snipped of Picat code that models the Colored MAPF. Adding constraints in Figure 4 or in Figure 5 creates a model for Connected Colored MAPF. Notice the similarity between constraints (2a) - (2d), (3a) - (3c) and the code itself.

```
% start and goal locations for each agent
foreach(A in 1..K)
    (V,FV) = As[A],
   At[1,A,V] = 1
    sum([At[M,A,FVS] : FVS in FV]) #= 1
end.
% no two agents occupy the same vertex
foreach(T in 1..M, V in 1..N)
   sum([At[T,A,V] : A in 1..K]) #=< 1</pre>
end.
% no two agents use the same edge
foreach(T in 1..ME, EID in 1..E)
    edgeid(EID, U, V),
    edge(OppositeEID, V, U),
    EList = remove_dups([EID,OppositeEID]),
    sum([Pass[T,A,W] : A in 1..K, W in EList]) #=< 1</pre>
end.
% agent needs to leave vertex by one edge
foreach(T in 1..ME, A in 1..K, V in 1..N)
   OutE = out_edges(V),
   At[T,A,V] #= sum([Pass[T,A,W] : W in OutE])
end.
% agent needs to enter vertex by one edge
foreach(T in 2..M, A in 1..K, V in 1..N)
   InE = in_edges(V),
   At[T,A,V] #= sum([Pass[T-1,A,W] : W in InE])
end.
```

Figure 3: A snippet of Picat code. These constraints model the Colored MAPF problem for a given makespan *M*.

#### 5.2 Instances

To test the implemented model, we create random grid instances inspired by the benchmarks often used in classical MAPF setting (Stern et al., 2019). We pick three different sizes: 8 by 8, 16 by 16, and 32 by 32. For each size, we consider two options, either no obstacles are present at all (maps empty) or 20% of random vertices are marked as an impassable obstacle (maps random). The number of agents in a single team is fixed at 5 and 10. The number of teams increases from 1 to a point so that the total number of agents present in the graph is 100 (40 in the case of the grids of size 8 by 8). The start and goal locations of agents are placed randomly in such a way that the start and goal locations of a single team always form a connected graph. However, note that based on the example in Figure 2 this does not necessarily guarantee

```
foreach(T in 1..M, G in 1..GL)
    R = Grps[G,1],
    % source constraint
    foreach(V in 1..N, A in Grps[G], A != R)
InE = in_edges(V),
        OutE = out_edges(V),
At[T,R,V] #=> sum([F[T,Ed,A] : Ed in OutE]) #= 1,
         At[T,R,V] #=> sum([F[T,Ed,A] : Ed in InE]) #= 0
    end.
    % intermediate nodes constraint
    foreach(V in 1..N, A in Grps[G], A != R)
         InE = in_edges(V);
         OutE = out_edges(V)
         #= sum([F[T,Ed,A] : Ed in OutE]))
         end
    end,
    % sink constraint
    foreach(V in 1..N, A in Grps[G], A != R)
        InE = in_edges(V),
OutE = out_edges(V),
        At[T,A,V] #=> sum([F[T,Ed,A] : Ed in InE]) #>= 1,
At[T,A,V] #=> sum([F[T,Ed,A] : Ed in OutE]) #= 0
    end.
    % relation constraint
    foreach(V in 1...N, A in Grps[G], A != R)
         InE = in_edges(V)
         foreach(Ed in InE)
             F[T,Ed,A] #=< sum([At[T,An,V] : An in Grps[G]])</pre>
         end
    end
end.
```

Figure 4: A snippet of Picat code. Adding these constraints to the ones from Figure 3 model the Connected Colored MAPF via the MCF model.

that the instance has a solution. Each of the settings is created 5 times. This gives us a total of 720 instances.

#### 5.3 Results

solve(At).

Each of the created instances was run on a PC with an AMD Ryzen 7 4700U CPU running at 2.00 GHz with 16 GB of RAM. We used a time limit of 300 seconds per problem instance.

First, we compare the two models for navigating agents in a connected manner. The ratio of solved instances in the given time limit is shown in Table 1 for the MCF model and in Table 2 for the SCF model. We split the results based on the size of the grid, the number of agents present in a single team, and whether there are obstacles present in the grid. Based on the presented results it can be clearly seen that the MCF model outperforms the SCF model in all of the settings. Furthermore, with the increasing size of the grid, the problem becomes much harder. Only around 10% of instances on the largest grids are solved by the MCF model and these correspond to the instances with the least number of agents. The best performance is achieved in the smallest grids. Both adding obstacles and increasing the number of agents per team negatively influence the success ratio. The rea-

```
foreach(T in 1..M, G in 1..GL)
       = Grps[G,1],
    AinG = len(Grps[G]),
    % varaibles domain
foreach (Ed in 1..E)
         F[T,Ed,G] #< AinG
    % source constraint
     foreach(V in 1..N)
InE = in_edges
         InE = in_edges(V),
OutE = out_edges(V),
         At[T,R,V] #=> sum([F[T,Ed,G] : Ed in OutE]) #= (AinG - 1),
At[T,R,V] #=> sum([F[T,Ed,G] : Ed in InE]) #= 0
    end.
    foreach(V in 1..N)
          InE = in_edges(V),
foreach(Ed in InE)
              F[T,Ed,G] #=<
    AinG * sum([At[T,An,V] : An in Grps[G], An != R])</pre>
     end
end.
solve(At).
```

Figure 5: A snippet of Picat code. Adding these constraints to the ones from Figure 3 model the Connected Colored MAPF via the SCF model.

soning behind these results is that with the increasing size of the grid and the number of agents, the number of variables entering the solver increase as well. Furthermore, on larger grids, the average traveling distance also increases which further increases the number of variables. The traveling distance also increases when obstacles are present.

Table 1: The ratio of instances that were solved within a given time limit divided by the number of agents per one team and by the grid type. Results for MCF model.

	agents per team		grid type	
size	5	10	empty	random
8	0.85	0.65	0.9	0.66
16	0.37	0.14	0.34	0.25
32	0.14	0.1	0.13	0.12

Table 2: The ratio of instances that were solved within a given time limit divided by the number of agents per one team and by the grid type. Results for SCF model.

	agents per team		grid type	
size	5	10	empty	random
8	0.62	0.31	0.53	0.5
16	0.14	0.06	0.12	0.11
32	0.09	0.02	0.05	0.07

We further investigate the instances on grids 8 by 8 with obstacles, since they seem to provide the most interesting results. Comparison of runtimes of Connected Colored MAPF via MCF and SCF, and Col-

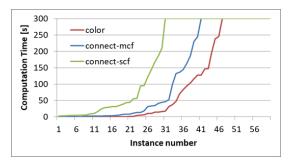


Figure 6: Comparison of runtime of Connected Colored MAPF and Colored MAPF on the same instances.

ored MAPF is shown in Figure 6. The instances are ordered by their runtime, on the x-axis is shown the instance number and on the y-axis, the runtime is shown. This graph represents the number of instances solvable in a given time limit. The lower the line, the better. We can clearly see that the Colored MAPF is easier to solve. This is caused only by the added constraints and not by an increase in makespan in which the instance is solvable (recall that adding the connectivity requirement can cause the makespan to increase). The case that the makespan increased occurred only in 6 cases out of 60 instances and each time the makespan increased by 1.

# 6 PRACTICAL DEMONSTRATION

To visualize the proposed algorithm, we created a software *OzoMorph* that allows the user to build a (Connected) Colored MAPF instance, solve it with a provided solver, see a simulation of the solution, and even produce a code that is executable on a real robot Ozobot. The application is written in Java so that it can run on various platforms.

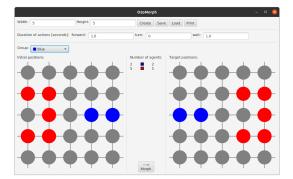


Figure 7: The user interface of OzoMorph that allows its user to create and solve an instance of Connected Colored MAPF.

The user interface is shown in Figure 7. First, the user can specify the dimensions of the underlying grid graph. We are working with grid graphs as it is the most common in MAPF instances and the easiest to apply to real robots. The user also has the option to print the defined graph on paper. Then, choosing a color and clicking on vertices on the lefthand side, the initial locations for that color (team) are chosen. Similarly, by clicking on the vertices on the right-hand side, the target locations are chosen. The software automatically checks whether the instance is consistent. By clicking on the Morph button, the software creates an instance for the solver and runs the solver. We use the solver described in the previous section; however, the users can provide their own solver given that the input and output formats are the same.

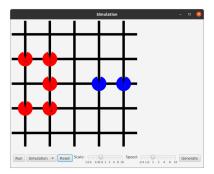


Figure 8: Simulation window of the OzoMorph software.

If the instance has a solution, the simulation window (see Figure 8) pops up. The simulation aims to show the actual continuous positions of real robots that would execute the given instance instead of the sequence of vertices produced by the theoretical model (Barták et al., 2019). The properties (moving and turning speeds) can be adjusted in the main user interface of OzoMorph. Videos of the instance defined in Figure 7 solved in both Connected Colored and Colored way can be found at a repository together with the source codes and experimental data from the previous section <sup>1</sup>.

If desired, the found plan can be exported into a file that can be uploaded into Ozobot robots (Evollve, Inc., 2018). An instance of Connected Colored MAPF executed on Ozobots is shown in Figure 9. The size of the grid in the simulation window is adjustable, so the execution of the robots can be done on a flat screen or tablet rather than on a printed grid to verify that the simulation corresponds to reality.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>https://github.com/svancaj/Connected-colored-MAPF



Figure 9: An instance of Connected Colored MAPF run on robots Ozobot (Evollve, Inc., 2018).

# 7 DISCUSSION AND FUTURE WORK

The additional requirement for connectivity makes the Colored MAPF problem significantly more challenging for designing efficient declarative models. Our formulation is proper on relatively small instances, which we demonstrated with real physical robots Ozobots. The solution time for large instances becomes prohibitively long, which suggests substantial room for improvement of the model. Another option of potential future research is to develop both optimal and inexact imperative algorithms. The adaptation of the existing CBM algorithm that solves Colored MAPF to solve Connected Colored MAPF seems complicated, as repairing conflicts arising from unsatisfied connectivity within a group would lead to substantial branching factors.

There is a natural generalization of Connected Colored MAPF, in which the agents do not need to be adjacent to each other but need to keep within a vicinity given by a defined distance. In our case, we considered this distance to be 1, but this can be generalized to any value.

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