# Multi-Agent Systems <br> Multi-Agent Path Finding 

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## Agents moving in a spatial environment

A central problem in many applications is the coordinated movement of agents/robots/vehicles in a given spatial environment.


Logistic robots (KARIS)


Airport ground traffic control (atrics)

# Multi-agent path finding (MAPF) 

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## Multi-agent path finding

## Definition (Multi-agent path finding (MAPF) problem)

Given a set of agents $A$, an undirected, simple graph $G=(V, E)$, an initial state modelled by an injective function $\alpha_{0}: A \rightarrow V$, and a goal state modelled by another injective function $\alpha_{*}$, can $\alpha_{0}$ be transformed into $\alpha_{*}$ by movements of single agents without collisions?

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- Existence problem: Does there exist a successful sequence of movements (= plan)?


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- Bounded existence problem: Does there exist a plan of a given length $k$ or less?


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- Plan generation problem: Generate a plan.


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- Existence problem: Does there exist a successful sequence of movements (= plan)?
- Bounded existence problem: Does there exist a plan of a given length $k$ or less?
- Plan generation problem: Generate a plan.
- Optimal plan generation problem: Generate a shortest plan.


## Example

Can we find a (central) plan to move the square robot $S$ to $v_{3}$ and the circle robot $C$ to $v_{2}$ ?


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Plan:

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Plan: $\left(C, v_{3}, v_{2}\right)$,

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$G=(V, E)$ with $V=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{3}, v_{4}\right\}$ and $E=\left\{\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}\right\},\left\{v_{2}, v_{3}\right\},\left\{v_{2}, v_{4}\right\}\right\}$
$A=\{S, C\}$ and $\alpha_{0}(S)=v_{1}, \alpha_{0}(C)=v_{3}, \alpha_{*}(S)=v_{3}, \alpha_{*}(C)=v_{2}$

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| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 12 | 13 | 14 | 5 |
| 11 |  | 15 | 6 |
| 10 | 9 | 8 | 7 |

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Pictures from Wikipedia article on 15-Puzzle


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## Lecture plan

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- MAPF: variations, algorithms, complexity
- Distributed MAPF (each agent plans on it own): DMAPF
- Distributed MAPF with destination uncertainty: MAPF/DU

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## Sequential MAPF

- Sequential MAPF (or pebble motion on a graph) allows only one agent to move per time step.
- An agent $a \in A$ can move in one step from $s \in V$ to $t \in V$ transforming $\alpha$ to $\alpha^{\prime}$, if
$\square \alpha(a)=s$,
$\square\langle s, t\rangle \in E$,
- there is no agent $b$ such that $\alpha(b)=t$.
$\square$ In this case, $\alpha^{\prime}$ is determined as follows:
- $\alpha^{\prime}(a)=t$,
- for all agents $b \neq a: \alpha(b)=\alpha^{\prime}(b)$,
- One usually wants to minimize the number of single movements (= sum-of-cost over all agents)


## Parallel MAPF

- Parallel MAPF allows many agents to move in parallel, provided they do not collide.
- Two models:
- Parallel: A chain of agents can move provided the first agent can move on a an unoccupied vertex.
- Parallel with rotations: A closed cycle in move synchronously.
- In both cases, one is usually interested in the number of

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Literature parallel steps (= make-span).

- However, also the sum-of-cost is sometimes considered.


## Anonymous MAPF

- There is a set of agents and a set of targets (of the same cardinality as the agent set).
- Each target must be reached by one agent.
- This means one first has to assign a target and then to
- Interestingly, the problem as a whole is easier to solve (using flow-based techniques).


## Types of MAPF algorithms

- $\mathrm{A}^{*}$-based algorithm (optimal)

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## Types of MAPF algorithms

- A*-based algorithm (optimal)
- Conflict-based search (optimal)

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## Types of MAPF algorithms

- A*-based algorithm (optimal)
- Conflict-based search (optimal)
- Reduction-based approaches: Translate MAPF to SAT, ASP or to a CSP (usually optimal)

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- Suboptimal search-based algorithms (may even be incomplete): Cooperative A* (CA*), Hierarchical Cooperative $A^{*}\left(\mathrm{HCA}^{*}\right)$ and Windowed HCA* (WHCA*).


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- Rule-based algorithms: Kornhauser's algorithm, Push-and-Rotate, BIBOX, ... (complete on a given class of graphs, but suboptimal)


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## A*-based algorithm

- Define state space:
- A state is an assignment of agents to vertices (modelled by a function $\alpha$ )
- There is a transition from one state $\alpha$ to $\alpha^{\prime}$ iff there is a legal move from $\alpha$ to $\alpha^{\prime}$ according to the appropriate semantics (sequential, parallel, or parallel with rotations)
- Search in this state space using the $A^{*}$ algorithm.
- Possible heuristic estimator: Sum or maximum over the length of the individual movement plans (ignoring other agents).
- Problem: Large branching factor because of many agents

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## Example: State space for A* algorithm



# MAPF Variations 

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A*-based algorithm

Convention: Function $\alpha$ is represented by $\langle\alpha(S), \alpha(C)\rangle$

## Example: State space for A* algorithm



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MAPF Algorithms
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Convention: Function $\alpha$ is represented by $\langle\alpha(S), \alpha(C)\rangle$ Question: How many states?

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## Example: State space for $\mathrm{A}^{*}$ algorithm



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Convention: Function $\alpha$ is represented by $\langle\alpha(S), \alpha(C)\rangle$ Question: How many states?


Question: Heuristic value for states $\left\langle v_{1}, v_{2}\right\rangle$ and $\left\langle v_{2}, v_{3}\right\rangle$ under the sum-aggregation?

Problems with $A^{*}$ on MAPF state space:

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Problems with $A^{*}$ on MAPF state space:

- super-exponential state space


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- Problems with $A^{*}$ on MAPF state space:
- super-exponential state space, i.e., $m$ !/( $m-n$ )! with $m$ nodes and $n$ agents;


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- super-exponential state space, i.e., $m$ !/( $m-n$ )! with $m$ nodes and $n$ agents;
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- CA*: Decoupled planning in space \& time
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- When planning, take the reservation table into account and avoid nodes at time points, when they are reserved for other agents; wait action is possible.
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- Solvability depends on chosen order.
- Problems with $A^{*}$ on MAPF state space:
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Summary \&
$\square$ Solvability depends on chosen order.

- Our small example is not solvable with this method!


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## Example CA* run

- Linear order: $\langle C, S\rangle$


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## Example CA* run

- Linear order: $\langle C, S\rangle$
- Plan for $C$ :
- Reservation table: $\left(0: v_{1}\right),\left(0: v_{3}\right)$


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## Example CA* run



- Linear order: $\langle C, S\rangle$
- Plan for $C$ : $\left(C, V_{3}, V_{2}\right)$
- Reservation table: (0: $v_{1}$ ), ( $0: v_{3}$ )


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- Linear order: $\langle C, S\rangle$
- Plan for $C$ : $\left(C, v_{3}, v_{2}\right),\left(C, v_{2}, v_{4}\right)$
- Reservation table: $\left(0: v_{1}\right),\left(0: v_{3}\right),\left(1: v_{2}\right)$

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- Plan for $C$ : $\left(C, v_{3}, v_{2}\right),\left(C, v_{2}, v_{4}\right)$
- Reservation table: $\left(0: v_{1}\right),\left(0: v_{3}\right),\left(1: v_{2}\right),\left(2-n: v_{4}\right)$


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- Linear order: $\langle C, S\rangle$
- Plan for $C$ : $\left(C, v_{3}, v_{2}\right),\left(C, v_{2}, v_{4}\right)$
- Reservation table: $\left(0: v_{1}\right),\left(0: v_{3}\right),\left(1: v_{2}\right),\left(2-n: v_{4}\right)$
- Plan for S:
- Reservation table: $\left(0: v_{1}\right),\left(0: v_{3}\right),\left(1: v_{2}\right),\left(2-n: v_{5}\right)$


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- Linear order: $\langle C, S\rangle$
- Plan for $C$ : $\left(C, v_{3}, v_{2}\right),\left(C, v_{2}, v_{4}\right)$
- Reservation table: $\left(0: v_{1}\right),\left(0: v_{3}\right),\left(1: v_{2}\right),\left(2-n: v_{4}\right)$
- Plan for S: wait
- Reservation table: $\left(0: v_{1}\right),\left(0: v_{3}\right),\left(1: v_{2}\right),\left(2-n: v_{5}\right)$

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- Plan for $C$ : $\left(C, v_{3}, v_{2}\right),\left(C, v_{2}, v_{4}\right)$
- Reservation table: $\left(0: v_{1}\right),\left(0: v_{3}\right),\left(1: v_{2}\right),\left(2-n: v_{4}\right)$
- Plan for S: wait
- Reservation table: $\left(0: v_{1}\right),\left(0: v_{3}\right),\left(1: v_{2}\right),\left(2-n: v_{5}\right)$, (1: $v_{1}$ )

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■ Not solvable with different order!

BIBOX is a rule-based algorithm that is complete on all bi-connected graphs with at least two unoccupied nodes in the graph.

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## Loop decomposition

Every bi-connected graph can be constructed from a cycle by adding loops iteratively.

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A loop decomposition into a basic cycle and additional loops can be done in time $O\left(|V|^{2}\right)$.

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## Loop decomposition

Every bi-connected graph can be constructed from a cycle by adding loops iteratively.


A loop decomposition into a basic cycle and additional loops can be done in time $O\left(|V|^{2}\right)$.
Let us name them $C_{0}, L_{1}, L_{2}, \ldots$, where the index depends on the time when the loop is added.

## Moving unoccupied nodes and agents around



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## Moving unoccupied nodes and agents around



- An unoccupied place can be sent to any node.

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## Moving unoccupied nodes and agents around



- An unoccupied place can be sent to any node.
- This can be done without disturbing loops with a higher index than the one the agent starts and finishes in.


## Filling loops

- Starting with highest-index loop: Move agents to destination loop, then shift agents to their destinations.
- Special case: When agents are already in the destination loop, they have to be rotated out of the loop.



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- When done with one loop, repeat for next one with next lower index.


## Reordering agents in the cycle

- Assumption: The destinations for the empty places are in the cycle $C_{0}$ (can be relaxed).
- If the agents are in the right order, just rotate them to their destinations.
- Otherwise reorder by successively take one out and re-insert.


## Runtime and plan length estimation

- Moving an empty place around is in $O(|V|)$ steps.


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$\rightarrow$ Runtime and number of steps is bounded by $O\left(|V|^{3}\right)$.


## Computational Complexity of MAPF

- Existence: For arbitrary graphs with at least one empty place, the problem is polynomial $\left(O\left(|V|^{3}\right)\right.$ using Kornhauser's algorithm). For BIBOX on bi-connected with at least two empty places also cubic, but smaller constant.


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■ Question: Is the problem also NP-hard?

## The Exact Cover By 3-Sets (X3C) Problem

## Definition (Exact Cover By 3-Sets (X3C) Problem)

Given a set of elements $U$ and a collection of subsets $C=\left\{s_{j}\right\}$ with $s_{j} \subseteq U$ and $\left|s_{j}\right|=3$. Is there a sub-collection of subsets $C^{\prime} \subseteq C$ such that $\bigcup_{s \in C^{\prime}} S=U$ and all subsets in $C^{\prime}$ are pairwise disjoint, i.e., $s_{a} \cap s_{b}=\emptyset$ for each $s_{a}, s_{b} \in C^{\prime}$ with $s_{a} \neq s_{b}$ ?

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X3C is NP-complete.

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$$
C=\{\{1,2,3\},\{2,3,4\},\{2,5,6\},\{1,5,6\}\}
$$

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## NP-hardness of MAPF: Reduction from X3C

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Claim: There is an exact cover by 3 -sets iff the constructed MAPF instance can be solved in at most $k=11 / 3|U|$ moves.

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## Going beyond MAPF

- In MAPF, planning is performed centrally, then the plan is communicated to all agents and execution is done decentrally.


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- What if there is no central instance and communication of plans is impossible?
- In this setting, which we call DMAPF, we assume that everybody wants to achieve the common goal of reaching all destinations.
$\rightarrow$ Each agent needs to plan decentrally.
$\Rightarrow$ What kind of plans do we need to generate?
$\Rightarrow$ How do we define the joint execution of such plans?


## Implicitly coordinated plans (in a cooperative setting)

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## Implicitly coordinated plans (in a cooperative setting)

An agent plans its own actions ... common goal.

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## Implicitly coordinated plans (in a cooperative setting)

An agent plans its own actions ... common goal.

- This implies to plan for the other agents.

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## Implicitly coordinated plans (in a cooperative setting)

- An agent plans its own actions ... i.e., a state from which the other agents cannot reach the common goal.


## Implicitly coordinated plans (in a cooperative setting)

- An agent plans its own actions ...
- ... in a way to empower the other agents to reach the common goal.
- This implies to plan for the other agents.
- We consider one possibility for the other agent to continue the plan, i.e., the plan will be a linear plan.
- We assume that plans are non-redundant, i.e., that they are cycle-free.
- Executing such a plan will thus never lead to a dead end, i.e., a state from which the other agents cannot reach the common goal.
- However, almost certainly, agents will come up with different (perhaps conflicting) plans.


## Implicitly coordinated plans (in a cooperative setting)

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- Executing such a plan will thus never lead to a dead end, i.e., a state from which the other agents cannot reach the common goal.
- However, almost certainly, agents will come up with different (perhaps conflicting) plans.
- How do we define joint execution of such conflicting plans?


## Example: Two implicitly coordinated plans



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## Example: Two implicitly coordinated plans



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How to solve the problem?

## Example: Two implicitly coordinated plans

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## Example: Two implicitly coordinated plans

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$$
\begin{aligned}
\pi_{C}= & \left\langle\left(C, v_{3}, v_{2}\right),\left(C, v_{2}, v_{4}\right),\left(S, v_{1}, v_{2}\right),\left(S, v_{2}, v_{3}\right),\left(C, v_{4}, v_{2}\right)\right\rangle \\
\pi_{S}= & \left\langle\left(S, v_{1}, v_{2}\right),\left(S, v_{2}, v_{4}\right),\left(C, v_{3}, v_{2}\right),\left(C, v_{2}, v_{1}\right),\left(S, v_{4}, v_{2}\right),\right. \\
& \left.\left(S, v_{2}, v_{3}\right),\left(C, v_{1}, v_{2}\right)\right\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

## Joint execution

- Let us assume, all agents have planed and a subset of them came up with a family of plans $\left(\pi_{i}\right)_{i \in A}$.
- Among the agents that have a plan with their own action as the next action to execute, one is chosen.
- The action of the chosen agent is executed.
- Agents, which have anticipated the action, track that in their plans.
- All other agents have to replan from the new state.
- Since everybody has a successful plan, no acting agent will ever execute an action that leads to a dead end.


## Example execution



Planning, executing, and replanning:

## Example execution



Planning, executing, and replanning:

$$
C:\left\langle\left(C, v_{3}, v_{2}\right),\left(C, v_{2}, v_{4}\right),\left(S, v_{1}, v_{2}\right),\left(S, v_{2}, v_{3}\right),\left(C, v_{4}, v_{2}\right)\right\rangle
$$

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\begin{aligned}
C: & \left\langle\left(C, v_{3}, v_{2}\right),\left(C, v_{2}, v_{4}\right),\left(S, v_{1}, v_{2}\right),\left(S, v_{2}, v_{3}\right),\left(C, v_{4}, v_{2}\right)\right\rangle \\
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\end{aligned}
$$

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## Example execution



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\end{aligned}
$$

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\end{aligned}
$$

Done!

## Lazy and eager agents

## What can go wrong?

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## Lazy and eager agents

## What can go wrong?

- Agents could be lazy: Sometimes they choose a plan where they expect that another agent should act, although they could act.
$\rightarrow$ Agents may wait forever for each other to act (dish washing dilemma).


## Lazy and eager agents

## What can go wrong?

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$\rightarrow$ Agents might create cyclic executions (without creating plans that are cyclic), leading to infinite executions.

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$\pi_{1}(S$ initially $): \quad\left\langle\left(S, v_{2}, v_{3}\right),\left(S, v_{3}, v_{4}\right),\left(S, v_{4}, v_{5}\right),\left(C, v_{6}, v_{7}\right), \ldots\right\rangle$

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$\begin{array}{ll}\pi_{1}(S \text { initially }): & \left\langle\left(S, v_{2}, v_{3}\right),\left(S, v_{3}, v_{4}\right),\left(S, v_{4}, v_{5}\right),\left(C, v_{6}, v_{7}\right), \ldots\right\rangle \\ \pi_{2}(C \text { initially }): & \left\langle\left(C, v_{6}, v_{5}\right),\left(C, v_{5}, v_{4}\right),\left(C, v_{4}, v_{3}\right),\left(S, v_{2}, v_{1}\right), \ldots\right\rangle \\ \pi_{3}\left(C \text { after }\left(S, v_{2}, v_{3}\right)\right): & \left\langle\left(C, v_{6}, v_{5}\right),\left(C, v_{5}, v_{4}\right),\left(S, v_{3}, v_{2}\right),\left(C, v_{4}, v_{3}\right), \ldots\right\rangle\end{array}$
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$\pi_{1}\left(S\right.$ initially): $\quad\left\langle\left(S, v_{2}, v_{3}\right),\left(S, v_{3}, v_{4}\right),\left(S, v_{4}, v_{5}\right),\left(C, v_{6}, v_{7}\right), \ldots\right\rangle$
$\pi_{2}(C$ initially $): \quad\left\langle\left(C, v_{6}, v_{5}\right),\left(C, v_{5}, v_{4}\right),\left(C, v_{4}, v_{3}\right),\left(S, v_{2}, v_{1}\right), \ldots\right\rangle$
$\pi_{3}\left(C\right.$ after $\left.\left(S, v_{2}, v_{3}\right)\right):\left\langle\left(C, v_{6}, v_{5}\right),\left(C, v_{5}, v_{4}\right),\left(S, v_{3}, v_{2}\right),\left(C, v_{4}, v_{3}\right), \ldots\right\rangle$
$\pi_{4}\left(S\right.$ after $\left.\left(C, v_{6}, v_{5}\right)\right):\left\langle\left(S, v_{3}, v_{2}\right),\left(S, v_{2}, v_{1}\right), \overline{\left(S, v_{1}, v_{8}\right)},\left(S, v_{8}, v_{7}\right), \ldots\right\rangle$

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$\pi_{1}$ (S initially): $\quad\left\langle\left(S, v_{2}, v_{3}\right),\left(S, v_{3}, v_{4}\right),\left(S, v_{4}, v_{5}\right),\left(C, v_{6}, v_{7}\right), \ldots\right\rangle$
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| :--- | :--- |
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## Optimally eager agents

- Eager agents avoid deadlocks, however they are hyper-active.
- They might even move away from their destination!
- So, let force them to be smart: They should generate only optimal plans ... and among those optimal plans they should also be eager.
- In our previous example: After the square agent moved

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Literature right, the circle agent will choose to move left!
$\rightarrow$ Does it always work out?

## Optimally eager agents are always successful

Theorem
Optimally eager agents are always successful on all solvable DMAPF instances.

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Assume the claim is true for $k$. Consider a DMAPF instance such that there exists a shortest plan of length $k+1$. Because the agents are eager, at least one agent wants to move. One agent will move (according to an optimal plan) and by this reduce the necessary number of steps by one. Hence, we have now an instance with plan length $k$ and the induction hypothesis applies.

## Conservative replanning

- Optimally eager agents have to solve a sequence of NP-hard problems.

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## Conservative replanning

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- Optimally eager agents have to solve a sequence of NP-hard problems.
- Is it possible to solve the problem more efficiently?
- Conservative replanning: Always start at the initial state and consider the already executed movements as a prefix of the new plan.
$\rightarrow$ Avoids infinite executions because plans have to be cycle-free.


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- Assume agents are selected for execution following a pattern similar to a Gray counter.


## Other ways to coordinate?

- One way to avoid NP-hardness or exponentially longer plans might be to use polynomial-time approximation algorithms. However, if different such algorithm are used, also an exponential blowup could result.


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- If the agents may use different algorithms, then it is not clear how to avoid cyclic executions.
- Conservative replanning is not helpful in this context, because the executed actions might not be a prefix of a valid plan!


## MAPF/DU: MAPF under destination uncertainty

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## MAPF/DU: MAPF under destination uncertainty

MAPF under destination uncertainty (MAPF/DU):

- The common goal of all agents is that everybody reaches its destination.


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$\rightarrow$ Models multi-robot interactions without communication

## MAPF/DU: Conceptual problems

- We need a solution concept for the agents: implicitly coordinated branching plans.


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## MAPF/DU: Conceptual problems

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## MAPF/DU: Conceptual problems

- We need a solution concept for the agents: implicitly coordinated branching plans.
- We need to find conditions that guarantee success of joint execution.
- We have to determine the computational complexity for finding plans and deciding solvability.
$\rightarrow$ Since MAPF/DU is a special case of epistemic planning (initial state uncertainty which is monotonically decreasing), we can use concepts and results from this area.


## MAPF/DU representation \& state space

- In addition to the sets of agents $A$, the graph $G=(V, E)$, and the assignment of agents to nodes $\alpha$, we need a function to represent the possible destinations $\beta: A \rightarrow 2^{V}$.


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- A MAPF/DU instance is given by $\left\langle A, G, s_{0}, \alpha_{*}\right\rangle$, where $s_{0}=\left\langle\alpha_{0}, \beta_{0}\right\rangle$.


## MAPF/DU: Implicitly coordinated branching plans

- Square agent $S$ wants to go to $v_{3}$ and knows that circle agent $C$ wants to go to $v_{1}$ or $v_{4}$.



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- $S$ needs shifting its perspective in order to plan for all possible destinations of $C$ (branching on destinations).
- Planning for $C, S$ must forget about its own destination.


## Branching plans：Building blocks

Branching plans consist of：
－Movement actions：（〈agent $\rangle,\langle$ sourcenode $\rangle,\langle$ targetnode $\rangle$ ）， i．e．，a movement of an agent
－Success announcement：（ $\langle$ agent $\rangle, \mathcal{S}$ ），after that all agents know that the agent has reached its destination and it cannot move anymore
－Perspective shift：［〈agent〉 ：．．．］，i．e．，from here on we assume to plan with the knowledge of agent $\langle$ agent $\rangle$ ．This can be unconditional or conditional on 〈agent〉＇s destinations． find a successful plan to reach the goal state．

## Semantics of branching plans

■ Movement actions modify $\alpha$ in the obvious way.

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■ Movement actions modify $\alpha$ in the obvious way.

- A success announcement of agent $i$ transforms $\beta$ to $\beta^{\prime}$ such that $\beta^{\prime}(i)=\emptyset$ in order to signal that $i$ cannot move anymore.
- A perspective shift from $i$ to $j$ with subsequent branching on destinations transforms the subjective state $s^{i}=\left\langle\alpha, \beta, i, v_{i}\right\rangle$ to a set of subjective states $s^{j k}=\left\langle\alpha, \beta, j, v_{j_{k}}\right\rangle$ with all $v_{j_{k}} \in \beta(j)$.


## Semantics of branching plans

- Movement actions modify $\alpha$ in the obvious way.
- A success announcement of agent $i$ transforms $\beta$ to $\beta^{\prime}$ such

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## Strong plans

Similar to the notion of strong plans in non-deterministic single-agent planning, we define $i$-strong plans for an agent $i$ to be:

- cycle-free, i.e., not visiting the same objective state twice;
- always successful, i.e. always ending up in a state such that all agents have announced success;
- covering, i.e., for all combinations of possible destinations of agents different from $i$, success can be reached.

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## Subjectively and objectively strong plans

- A plan is called subjectively strong if it is $i$-strong for some agent $i$.
- A plan is called objectively strong if it is $i$-strong for each agent $i$.
- An instance is objectively or subjectively solvable if there exists an objectively or subjectively strong plan, respectively.


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$\rightarrow$ There does not exist a $T$-strong plan, but an $S$ - and a $C$-strong plan.
- Difference between subjective and objective solvability
 concerns only the first acting agent!


## Structure of strong plans: Stepping stones

- A stepping stone for agent $i$ is a state in which $i$ can move to each of its possible destinations, announcing success, and afterwards, for each possible destination, there exists an $i$-strong plan to solve the resulting states.



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## Stepping Stone Theorem

Theorem
Given an i-solvable
MAPF/DU instance, there
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Proof sketch.
Remove non-stepping stone branching points by picking one branch without success announcement.

Proof by example $\left(S, v_{1}, v_{4}\right)$


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## Execution cost

The execution cost of a branching plan is the number of atomic actions of the longest execution trace.

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## Theorem

Given an i-solvable MAPF/DU instance over a graph $G=(V, E)$, then there exists an $i$-strong branching plan with execution cost bounded by $O\left(|V|^{4}\right)$.

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## Joint execution and execution guarantees

- Joint execution is defined similarly to the fully observable case: One agent is chosen; afterwards the plan is tracked or the agent has to replan.


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- In the MAPF/DU framework not all agents might have a plan initially!
- One might hope that optimally eager agents are always successful.
- In epistemic planning this was proven to be true only in the uniform knowledge case.
- We do not have uniform knowledge ... and indeed, execution cycles cannot be excluded.


## A counter example



A number on an edge means that there are as many nodes on a line.

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- Agent 2 has then a shortest eager plan moving first to $v_{5}$.

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## Conservatism

- Perhaps conservatism can help!
- Similarly to DMAPF, conservative replanning means that the already executed actions are used as a prefix in the plan to be generated.
- Differently from DMAPF, we assume that after a success announcement, the initial state is modified so that the real destination of the agent is known in the initial state.
- Otherwise we could not solve instances that are only subjectively solvable.

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## Conservative, optimally eager agents

- Conservative, eager agents are always successful, but might visit the entire state space before terminating.


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## Theorem

For solvable MAPF/DU instances, joint execution and replanning by conservative, optimally eager agents is always successful and the execution length is polynomial.

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## Conservative replanning example

Assume $S$ moves first to $v_{4}$.


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## Conservative replanning example

- Assume $S$ moves first to $v_{4}$.
- Assume $C$ re-plans. From now on, in replanning from the beginning, it has to do a perspective shift to $S$, because it now has to extend the partial plan starting with $\left(S, v_{4}, v_{1}\right)$, i.e., it has to create an objectively strong plan.



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- Assume that $C$ moves now to $v_{1}$.
- From now on, also $S$ has to make a perspective shift to $C$, effectively "forgetting" its own destination, i.e., it also has to create a objectively strong plan.


## Computational Complexity: Algorithms and Turing machines

- We use Turing machines as formal models of algorithms
- This is justified, because:
- we assume that Turing machines can compute all computable functions
- the resource requirements (in term of time and memory) of a Turing machine are only polynomially worse than other models
- The regular type of Turing machine is the deterministic one: DTM (or simply TM)
- Often, however, we use the notion of nondeterministic TMs: NDTM


## Computational Complexity: <br> Problems, solutions, and complexity

- A problem is a set of pairs $(I, A)$ of strings in $\{0,1\}^{*}$. $I$ : instance; $A$ : answer
If all answers $A \in\{0,1\}$ : decision problem


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- Complexity of an algorithm: function

$$
T: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}
$$

measuring the number of basic steps (or memory requirement) the algorithm needs to compute an answer depending on the size of the instance

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## Computational Complexity: Problems, solutions, and complexity

- A problem is a set of pairs $(I, A)$ of strings in $\{0,1\}^{*}$.
$I$ : instance; $A$ : answer
If all answers $A \in\{0,1\}$ : decision problem
$\square$ A decision problem is the same as a formal language: the set of strings formed by the instances with answer 1
- An algorithm solves (or decides) a problem if it computes the right answer for all instances.
- Complexity of an algorithm: function

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measuring the number of basic steps (or memory requirement) the algorithm needs to compute an answer depending on the size of the instance

- Complexity of a problem: complexity of the most efficient algorithm that solves this problem.

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## Computational Complexity: Complexity classes P and NP

Problems are categorized into complexity classes according to the requirements of computational resources:

- The class of problems decidable on deterministic Turing machines in polynomial time: $P$
- Problems in P are assumed to be efficiently solvable (although this might not be true if the exponent is very large)
- In practice, a reasonable definition
- The class of problems decidable on non-deterministic Turing machines in polynomial time, i.e., having a poly. length accepting computation for all positive instances: NP
- More classes are definable using other resource bounds on time and memory


## Computational Complexity: <br> Upper and lower bounds

- Upper bounds (membership in a class) are usually easy to prove:


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- show that the resource bounds are respected
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- Lower bounds (hardness for a class) are usually difficult to show:
- the technical tool here is the polynomial reduction (or any other appropriate reduction)
- show that some hard problem can be reduced to the problem at hand


## Computational Complexity: Polynomial reduction

- Given languages $L_{1}$ and $L_{2}, L_{1}$ can be polynomially reduced to $L_{2}$, written $L_{1} \leq_{p} L_{2}$, if there exists a polynomial time-computable function $f$ such that

$$
x \in L_{1} \Longleftrightarrow f(x) \in L_{2} .
$$

Rationale: it cannot be harder to decide $L_{1}$ than $L_{2}$

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- $L$ is hard for a class $C$ ( $C$-hard) if all languages of this class can be reduced to $L$.
$\square L$ is complete for $C$ ( $C$-complete) if $L$ is $C$-hard and $L \in C$.


## Computational Complexity: NP-complete problems

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- Membership is obvious, hardness follows because computations on a NDTM correspond to satisfying truth assignments of certain formulae


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## Computational Complexity: <br> The complexity class co-NP

Note that there is some asymmetry in the definition of NP:

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# classes P and NP 

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- co-NP $=\left\{L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}: \Sigma^{*} \backslash L \in N P\right\}$
- Examples: UNSAT, TAUT $\in$ co-NP!
- Note: P is closed under complement, in particular,

$$
\mathrm{P} \subseteq \mathrm{NP} \cap \operatorname{co-}-\mathrm{NP}
$$

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## Computational Complexity: PSPACE

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## Computational Complexity: PSPACE

There are problems even more difficult than NP and co-NP...

## Definition ((N)PSPACE)

PSPACE (NPSPACE) is the class of decision problems that can be decided on deterministic (non-deterministic) Turing machines using only polynomially many tape cells.

## Computational Complexity: PSPACE

There are problems even more difficult than NP and co-NP...

## Definition ((N)PSPACE)

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# Computational Complexity: PSPACE-completeness 

## Definition (PSPACE-completeness)

A decision problem (or language) is PSPACE-complete if it is in PSPACE and all other problems in PSPACE can be polynomially reduced to it.

## Computational Complexity: PSPACE-completeness

## Definition (PSPACE-completeness)

A decision problem (or language) is PSPACE-complete if it is in PSPACE and all other problems in PSPACE can be polynomially reduced to it.

Intuitively, PSPACE-complete problems are the "hardest" problems in PSPACE (similar to NP-completeness). They appear to be "harder" than NP-complete problems from a practical point of view.

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## Definition (PSPACE-completeness)

A decision problem (or language) is PSPACE-complete if it is in PSPACE and all other problems in PSPACE can be polynomially reduced to it.

Intuitively, PSPACE-complete problems are the "hardest" problems in PSPACE (similar to NP-completeness). They appear to be "harder" than NP-complete problems from a practical point of view.
An example for a PSPACE-complete problem is the NDFA equivalence problem:

Instance: Two non-deterministic finite state automata $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$.
Question: Are the languages accepted by $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$ identical?

## Computational complexity of MAPF/DU bounded plan existence

## Theorem

Deciding whether there exists an eager MAPF/DU i-strong or objectively strong plan with execution cost $k$ or less is PSPACE-complete.

Since plans have polynomial depth, all execution traces can be generated non-deterministically and tested using only polynomial space, i.e., PSPACE-membership.

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Example construction for
$\forall x_{1} \exists x_{2} \forall x_{3}$ :
$\left(x_{1} \vee x_{2} \vee \neg x_{3}\right) \wedge\left(\neg x_{1} \vee x_{2} \vee x_{3}\right)$

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## Computational complexity of MAPF/DU bounded plan existence

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## Deciding whether there exists an eager MAPF/DU i-strong or

 objectively strong plan with execution cost $k$ or less is PSPACE-complete.
## The reduction enlarged



## Complexity with a fixed number of agents

## These results probably imply that the technique could not be used online.

For a fixed number of agents, however, the bounded planning problem is polynomial.

## Theorem

For a fixed number c of agents, deciding whether there exists a MAPF/DU i-strong or objectively strong plan with execution cost of $k$ or less can be done in time $O\left(n^{c^{2}+c}\right)$.

That means, for two agents, it takes "only" $O\left(n^{6}\right)$ time - but in practice it should be faster.

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## An algorithm for generating an objective MAPF/DU plan for two agents

1 Determine in the state space of all node assignments the distance to the initial state using Dijkstra: $O\left(|V|^{4}\right)$ time.

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## An algorithm for generating an objective MAPF/DU plan for two agents

1 Determine in the state space of all node assignments the distance to the initial state using Dijkstra: $O\left(|V|^{4}\right)$ time.
2 For each of the $O\left(|V|^{2}\right)$ configurations check, whether it is a potential stepping stone for one agent, i.e., whether all potential destinations of this agent are reachable using Dijkstra on the modified graph, where the other agent blocks the way: $O\left(|V|^{4}\right)$ time.

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3 For all $O\left(|V|^{2}\right)$ potential stepping stones, check whether for each of the $O(|V|)$ possible destination of the first agent, the second agent can reach its possible destinations and use Dijkstra to compute the shortest path: altogether $O\left(|V|^{5}\right)$ time.

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4 Consider all stepping stones and minimize over the maximum plan depth. Among the minimal plans select those that are eager for the planning agent.

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## Summary \& Outlook

- DMAPF generalizes the MAPF problem by dropping the assumption that plans are generated centrally and then communicated.
- MAPF/DU generalizes the MAPF problem further by dropping the assumptions that destinations are common knowledge.
- A solution concept for this setting are $i$-strong branching plans corresponding to implicitly coordinated policies in the area of epistemic planning.
- The backbone of such plans are stepping stones.
- Joint execution can be guaranteed to be successful and polynomially bounded if all agents are conservative and optimally eager.
- While plan existence in general is PSPACE-complete, it is polynomial for a fixed number of agents.


## Outlook

$\rightarrow$ Do the results still hold for planar graphs?

- Is MAPF/DU plan existence also PSPACE-complete?
- How would more general forms of describing the common knowledge about destinations affect the results?
$\rightarrow$ Overlap of destinations or general Boolean combinations
- Can we get similar results for other execution semantics?
$\rightarrow$ Concurrent executions of actions
- Can we be more aggressive in expectations about possible destinations?
$\rightarrow$ Use forward induction, i.e., assume that actions in the past were rational.
- Are other forms of implicit coordination possible?
$\rightarrow$ More communication? Coordination in competitive scenarios?


## Literature

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