CS 460/560 Introduction to Computational Robotics Fall 2019, Rutgers University

Lecture 17 Multi-Robot Path Planning (2)

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Outline

NP-Hardness of MPP_r

- ⇒NP and NP-hardness
- ⇒ Reduction from 3-SAT

Algorithms for multi-robot path and motion planning

- \Rightarrow Graph search based algorithm for MPP_p
- ⇒Integer linear programming models for MPP_r

NP and NP-Hardness

Note that we are classifying **problems** here! In particular, we are NOT classifying **algorithms** (a common mistake).

A problem is in the class non-deterministic polynomial time (NP) if

- ⇒It can be solved by a **non-deterministic Turing machine** in polynomial time
- ⇒ Equivalently, a given solution can be verified in polynomial time
- ⇒E.g., graph search
- \Rightarrow E.g., given a graph G, find a Hamiltonian cycle
 - \Rightarrow To see that it is in NP, given a cycle, verifying it is part of G is doable in polynomial time

A problem P_1 is **NP-hard** if

- ⇒Solving it is harder than solving any other problems in NP
- \Rightarrow I.e., any problem $P_2 \in NP$ can be solved in polynomial time via solving P_1
- ⇒Note that a problem is NP-hard does not require it is in NP
- ⇒A problem that is NP-hard and also in NP is NP-complete
- ⇒This implies that all NP-complete problems are in a sense "equal" in hardness

Some Classical NP-Complete Problems

Boolean satisfiability (SAT): first problem proven to be NP-hard

- $\Rightarrow n$ binary variables x_1, \dots, x_n
- \Rightarrow A **literal** y of a variable x is x or $\neg x$, total 2n of these
- $\Rightarrow m$ disjunctive clauses of literals, i.e. $c_j = y_{j_1} \lor \cdots \lor y_{j_k}$
- \Rightarrow Question: are there values for x_i , ..., x_n so that $c_1 \land \cdots \land c_m = 1$?
- ⇒Shown to be NP-complete (Cook-Levin theorem)
 - ⇒ SAT is in NP because checking an answer is doable in polynomial time
 - ⇒ NP-hard via direct reduction from a generic nondeterministic Turing machine

3SAT: SAT with each clause containing up to 3 literals

- ⇒NP-hard via the **reduction** from SAT
- ⇒ Reduction is how NP-hardness is proven in general

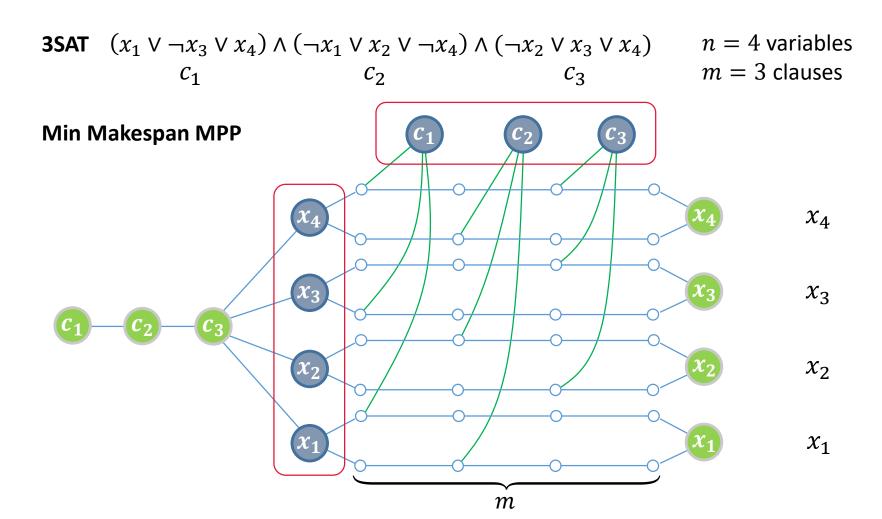
Vertex cover: G = (V, E), is there a set of K vertices that covers V?

⇒ Reduction from **3SAT**

Numerous others: Hamiltonian cycle, Traveling Salesperson Problem (TSP), Set Cover, Knapsack, ...

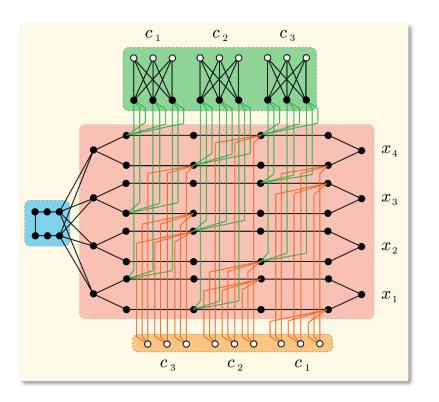
NP-Hardness of Makespan Optimal MPP_r

Min Makespan MPP_r is NP-hard



NP-Hardness of Distance Optimal MPP_r

NP-hardness of distance optimal MPP is slightly more tricky...



Theorem. MPP is NP-hard when optimizing min makespan, min total time, min max distance, and min total distance.

Implications of MPP Intractability

A problem being NP-hard means likely no polynomial time algorithm exists for solving it exactly

 \Rightarrow More precisely, unless P = NP (a million dollar question)

Implications:

- ⇒ Practitioners should not try to find polynomial time algorithm
- ⇒Aiming for solving the problem approximately
- ⇒Or aiming for solving easier cases of the problem quickly
- ⇒This is what we will try with MPP

Algorithmic solutions for MPP fall into two flavors

- ⇒ Discrete search based algorithms
- ⇒Integer programming solvers

Discrete Search Algorithms

General methods

- ⇒ Coupled search treat all robots as a "single" robot
- ⇒ **Decoupled** search treat robots as individual ones as much as possible
- ⇒Recall the basic structure of search algorithms (still applies!)

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input: G = (V, E), x_I, x_G

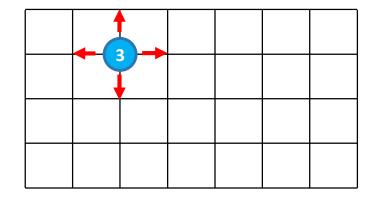
AddToQueue (x_I, Queue); // Add x_I to a queue of nodes to be expanded while (!IsEmpty (Queue))

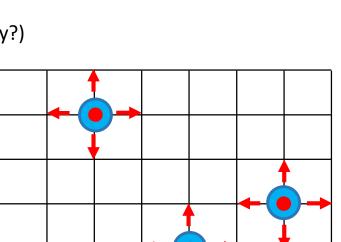
x \leftarrow \text{Front}(Queue); // Retrieve the front of the queue if (x.expanded == \text{true}) continue; // Do not expand a node twice x.expanded = \text{true}; // Mark x as expanded if (x == x_G) return solution; // Return if goal is reached for each neighbor n_i of x // Add all neighbors of to the queue if (n_i.expanded == \text{false}) AddToQueue (n_i, Queue) return failure;
```

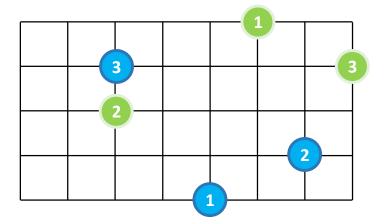
Coupled Search

Key: treat all robots as a whole

- ⇒ For a single robot, # neighbors?
 - □ Up to 4 neighbors
- ⇒What about multi-robot case?
 - ⇒ Up to 5 neighbors per robot, including staying put
- ⇒The search works in a straightforward way
 - \Rightarrow For three robots, a neighboring node may be (east, north, stay)
- ⇒But, huge branching factor!
 - \Rightarrow For n robots, 5^n "neighbors" in the graph
 - ⇒ For 3 robots, 125 neighbors per step
 - ⇒ Optimal, complete, but impractical (why exactly?)



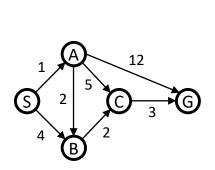


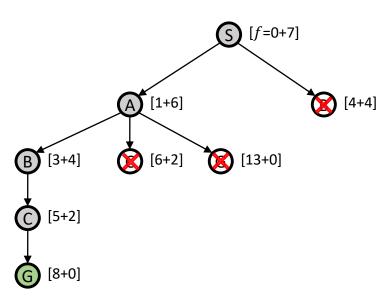


Coupled Search – Why Impractical?

How large can a priority queue be?

- \Rightarrow For a single robot, no more than |V|
- \Rightarrow For n robots, $|V|^n$
 - ⇒ Well, not exactly, a bit smaller, why?
 - ⇒ But close enough
- \Rightarrow Suppose $|V| = 10^3$, n = 10
- $\Rightarrow |V|^n = 10^{30}!$
- ⇒We cannot hope to even store the queue on hard disk
- ⇒So search will be extremely slow!





Decoupled Search

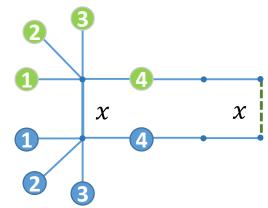
Key idea: treat robots as individual ones as much as possible

- ⇒To start, plan optimal paths for individual robots
 - \Rightarrow This reduces branching factor: $5^n \Rightarrow 4n$
- ⇒Then, simulate the "execution" of the paths
- ⇒When there are conflicts, push all choices onto the priority queue
- ⇒Then continue the "execution"
- ⇒Initial paths may get updated/changed
- ⇒In the example
 - ⇒ One queue node corresponding to robot 1 takes the junction first
 - ⇒ One queue node corresponding to robot 2 takes the junction first
 - ⇒ Both will add an additional (makespan) cost of 1
- ⇒ A rough sketch: practical implementations require lots of care-taking



Handling Different Objectives

Different objectives cause the queue to be sorted differently



⇒ Total distance

- ⇒ Initially all choose left path
- \Rightarrow Then 1-4 have conflict at t=1, generating 4 new nodes (robot i goes first)
- \Rightarrow Then at t=2, suppose we pick the node letting 1 go first, three new nodes are created
- ⇒ These three new nodes can be inserted into the front of the queue using a secondary heuristic
- ⇒ After one more iteration, 2 new nodes are generated
- ⇒ Then one last iteration resolves all conflicts
- \Rightarrow The total distance remains the same for all nodes, which is 4x + 8

⇒Total time

- \Rightarrow Initial node cost is 4x + 8
- \Rightarrow Here, at t = 1, 4 new nodes, cost is now 4x + 11 for all
- \Rightarrow At t=2, if 4 goes through the right, cost is 4x+13, otherwise, 4x+14

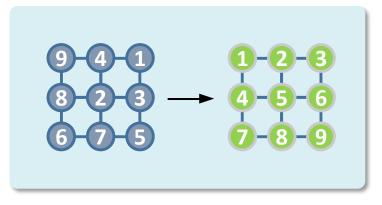
Strengths and Weakness of Discrete Search

Strengths of discrete search solutions

- ⇒When it works, the algorithm generally runs rather fast
 - ⇒ Because the overall algorithm is relatively simple due to its discrete nature
- ⇒Capable of solving large (sparse) problems
- ⇒Generally straightforward to implement and tweak

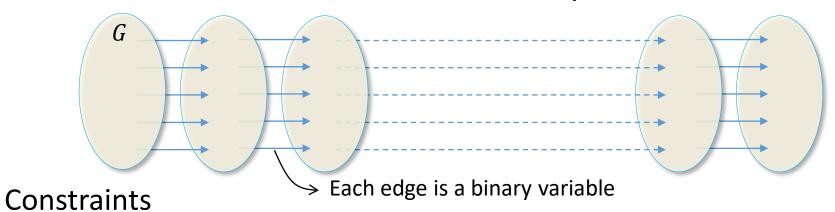
Weaknesses

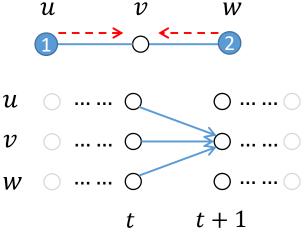
- ⇒As the interactions among the robots grow, performance degrades quickly
- ⇒As such, not suitable for solving very dense problems
- \Rightarrow Not suitable for handling MPP $_r$ as the number of possible rotations can be very large; huge branching factor
 - ⇒ For 16-puzzle, >1000 possible cycles
 - ⇒ Each cycle has two directions
 - ⇒ Enumerating becomes impossible



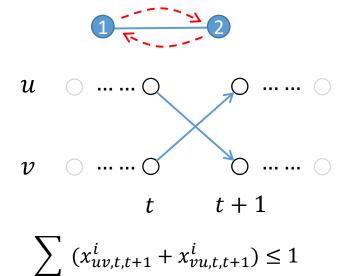
An Integer Programming Based Solver for MPP_r

Transform MPP into multiflow over time steps



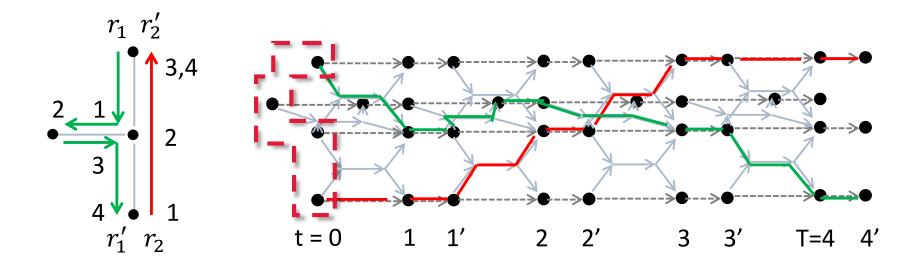


$$\sum_{1 \le i \le n} (x_{uv,t,t+1}^i + x_{vv,t,t+1}^i + x_{wv,t,t+1}^i) \le 1$$



 $1 \le i \le n$

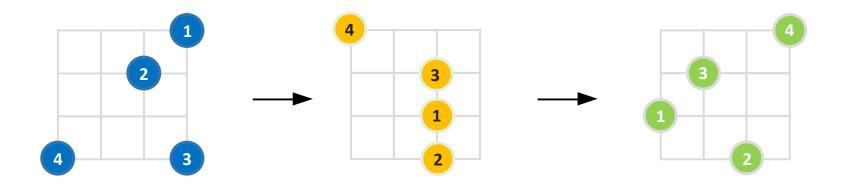
An Example



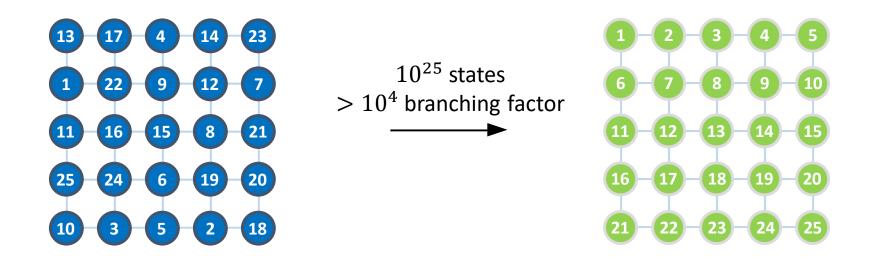
Additional Splitting Heuristic

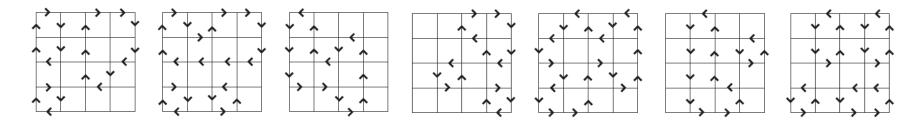
The ILP-base algorithm can require big models

- \Rightarrow 20 × 15 grid, 20 steps, 20 robots \rightarrow ~1 million variables
- ⇒ We can use a divide-and-conquer like heuristic through splitting over time
- ⇒The algorithm is no longer complete and may yield sub-optimal solutions



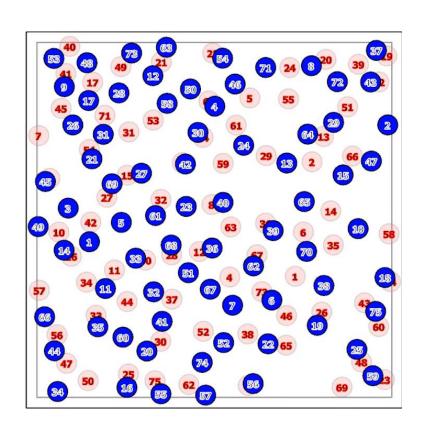
The Approach Can Solves Some Tough Problem

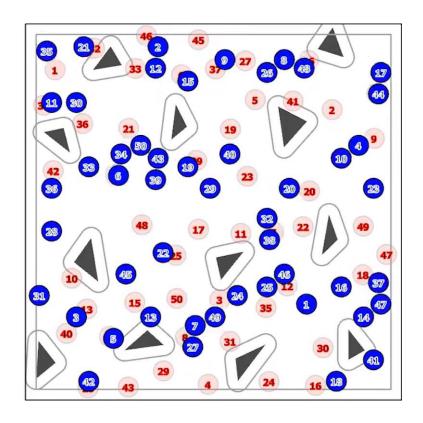




A 7-step min makespan plan

Some Examples in 2D Continuous Domain





No static obstacles, 75 robots 1.7 seconds to compute, 1.6-optimal Random obstacles, 50 robots 4.0 seconds to compute, 1.9-optimal