Simultaneous task allocation and motion scheduling for complex tasks executed by multiple robots

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Abstract—The coordination of multiple robots operating simultaneously in the same workspace requires the integration of task allocation and motion scheduling. We focus on tasks in which the robot's actions are not confined to small volumes, but can also occupy a large time-varying portion of the workspace, such as in welding along a line. The optimization of such tasks presents a considerable challenge mainly due to the fact that different variants of task execution exist, for instance, there can be multiple starting points of lines or closed curves, different filling patterns of areas, etc. We propose a generic and computationally efficient optimization method which is based on constraint programming. It takes into account the kinematics of the robots and guarantees that the motions of the robots are collision-free while minimizing the overall makespan. We evaluate our approach on several use-cases of varying complexity: cutting, additive manufacturing, spot welding, inserting and tightening bolts, performed by a dualarm robot. In terms of the makespan, the result is superior to task execution by one robot arm as well as by two arms not working simultaneously.

Index Terms—task scheduling, dual-arm manipulation, motion planning, multi-robot systems,

I. Introduction

In a multi-robot system, the individual robots are programmed to collectively perform a given task. Such a system not only can achieve goals that are infeasible for a single robot, but it also increases the overall performance thanks to the parallelization and combination of complementary robot capabilities. However, to fully leverage the robots' capabilities and to reduce their idle times, the individual tasks and motions must be properly coordinated. Coordination of multiple robots operating in the same workspace requires the integration of task allocation and motion scheduling. Proper task scheduling determines the effectiveness and efficiency of the manufacturing process, while motion planning is necessary to compute collision-free plans for each of the robots. This is a non-trivial problem, given the huge state space spanned by the many degrees of freedom at task and motion planning level [1].

In the sequel, we refer to the integration of task allocation and motion scheduling as task optimization. The tasks to be optimized can be divided into two categories: (i) tasks in which the robot's actions are confined to a small portion of the workspace (e.g., pick, place, apply glue to a point, etc.) – we call them confined tasks, and (ii) tasks occupying a larger volume which also varies in time (e.g., welding along a line,

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Fig. 1. Scheduling tasks and motions for confined and extended tasks with a dual-arm robot. Left: Swept volumes are represented as voxels which allow for efficient collision checking and are naturally representable for the constraint solver used. Right: Task allocation, sequencing, and motion scheduling of two robotic arms offers many opportunities to optimize the makespan.

cutting a metal sheet, etc.) – we call them extended tasks. While the optimization of confined tasks has been sufficiently addressed in the literature [2], [3], extended tasks present a considerable challenge. This is due to the time-varying space usage of the manipulator during task execution, and mainly due to the fact that different variants of task execution exist, for instance, there can be multiple starting points of lines or closed curves, different filling patterns of areas, etc. In this paper, we extend the constraint programming based STAAMS solver [3], to find collision-free and for short makespans optimized plans for use-cases with extended tasks.³ The main improvements to [3] follow. The proposed method:

- is generic, i.e., not restricted to a specific family of tasks and able to schedule both confined and extended tasks,
- guarantees that the planned motions are collision-free and can exploit the time-dependent space occupancy of extended tasks,
- can handle alternative, mutually exclusive task variants, e.g., multiple starting points or allocation to robot arms.

The method also (same as [3]):

- is computationally efficient and scales well with the number of tasks,
- enables easy definition of the task requirements as well as changes of the individual system parameters,
- takes into account the kinematics of the robot.

II. PROBLEM DEFINITION

We address the following problem: Let $P = \{P, C\}$ be a set of tasks P to be executed while maintaining the set of constraints C. Individual tasks $P_k \in P, k \in \{1, ..., N\}$ can have multiple degrees of freedom (e.g., multiple starting

³Videos and additional materials can be found at the project webpage: http://imitrob.ciirc.cvut.cz/schedulComplex.html.

locations, etc.). Let \mathbf{R} be a set of available active components (robots). Each robot $R_j \in \mathbf{R}, j \in \{1, \dots, M\}$ has its given kinematic model. The execution of task P_k during the time interval $[t_{S_k}, t_{F_k}]$ by a robot R_j leads to time and robot dependent occupancy of space: at each time interval $[t_i, t_{i+1}]$, where $i \in \{S_k, S_k + 1, \dots, F_k - 1\}$ a region $V_j^i \subset V$ (V denotes the whole workspace) is occupied by robot R_j . A solution to the problem is given by a selection of the to be executed variant of each task $P_k \in \mathbf{P}$, an allocation of all $P_k \in \mathbf{P}$ to the individual robots $R \in \mathbf{R}$, a sequencing S of tasks and motions between the task executions for each robot $R \in \mathbf{R}$, such that (i) the robots do not collide, (ii) the constraints \mathbf{C} on the tasks are satisfied, and (iii) the overall execution time (makespan) is minimized: min $\max_{k \in N} t_{F_k}$, w.r.t. \mathbf{C} .

III. RELATED WORK

We first give a brief overview of the literature on sequencing complex tasks with volume occupancy. Then, we describe existing works on integrating sequencing of such tasks with motion planning, with a focus on robot-specific approaches.

Task sequencing. A thorough survey on robotic task sequencing is given in [1]. The sequencing of tasks which allow freedom in their execution order can be modeled as Traveling Salesman Problem with Neighborhoods (TSPN) [4]: given a set of polygons, the goal is to find a minimal-cost cyclic tour, such that it visits each polygon at its internal point. Alatertsev et al. [5] proposed a heuristic to optimize the sequencing of closed-contour robotic tasks and demonstrated the solution on a robot cutting holes in plastic. However, robot kinematics and motion planning are not included into this approach. In [6], the authors deployed the solution on one KUKA arm and demonstrated how the production time decreases on test instances from the cutting-deburring domain. In [7], integrated task sequencing and motion planning for a welding robot was specified as an instance of TSPN problem. Also here, only one robotic arm was used. In [8], a solution to the robotic task sequencing problem is proposed which has a very short computational time. The authors applied their solution to the airbus shopfloor challenge and discussed the relation to TSPN. In [9], a disjunctive temporal constraint network is used to deal with scheduling tasks including temporal and ordering constraints and their allocation to 2 Barrett arms with no close cooperation.

The limitations of the above works are that they: (i) only address the sequencing of abstract actions and do not consider robot kinematics and motion planning; (ii) deal with one robot and do not address collision avoidance for multirobot systems; (iii) do not allow for constraints in the form of task subsequences with a fixed order.

Integrated task and motion planning. Although task and motion planning are often considered separately, in the case of multiple robots, it is important to plan both simultaneously. This entails decisions about *what* has to be done by which robot, *when* each subtask has to be performed and what is the concrete sequence of motions to realize.

Integrated task and motion planning (ITAMP) is a subset of hybrid planning which deals with such problems. The difficulty of these planning problems stems from the fact that a task-level decision might be geometrically infeasible on the motion-level. The ratio of geometrically infeasible actions determines the best way to combine task and motion planning [10], [11]. Kimmel et al. [2] employ a time-scaling approach to schedule two given sequences of pick-and-place tasks. In [3], we compared simultaneous task allocation and motion scheduling approach for primitive tasks with pure time-scaling using an experimental setup similar to the one used by Kimmel et al. Akbari et al. [12] used ITAMP for a dual-arm robot in constrained table-top problems where the arms do not operate simultaneously. However, these planning problems try to generate sequences of actions which lead ultimately to the goal. In the industrial problems we are considering, it is by design known which actions have to be performed. The ITAMP approaches so far do not consider the optimization of cost criteria.

Constraint-based approach to task scheduling. The applications of constraint programming (CP) to multi-robot task planning and scheduling often use a simplified robot motion model and ignore the spatial interaction among robots in the scheduling process [13]. In this work, we employ CP to model the abstract task specification and the robot motion. Similarly, Ejenstam et al. [14] use CP to solve the problem of dual-arm manipulation planning and cell layout optimization via a coarse discretization of the workspace. Conversely, we create dense roadmaps to enable the close coordination of arms, thus allow simultaneous movements of arms.

Kurosu et al. [15] describe a decoupled MILP-based approach to solve a simultaneous task allocation and motion planning, where the motion planner is prone to failure due to simplified motion and cost models used in the one-shot MILP formulation. This is not the case for us, as a single CP solver finds a mutually feasible solution for all sub-problems. In our previous work [3], we introduced a coherent formalism to model the robot and workspace as well as the abstract task plan and its invariants. We proposed ordered visiting constraints (OVCs) as task model primitives and time-scalable motion series as motion model primitives. In [16], we show how these tasks can be specified in a user-friendly manner by natural language and demonstration. However, only confined tasks were considered, without the freedom in action execution (e.g., selecting a starting point).

This paper's approach goes beyond the state-of-the-art in the works mentioned. The main contribution is that it performs simultaneous task and motion scheduling for multiple robots in the case of extended tasks including trajectory actions. It also handles constraints on the order of subtask sequences.

IV. TASKS AND MOTION SCHEDULING FOR EXTENDED TASKS

Simultaneous task and motion scheduling (STAAMS) is concerned with the scheduling and allocation of high-level actions, while taking into account constraints at the motion level. Robot-robot collisions must be prevented, kinematic constraints and joint limits may not be violated. The result is a time-scaled trajectory for every robot arm that does not violate any constraints at the task and motion level during the task execution. The solver is based on constraint optimization, that is sequentially solving constraint satisfaction problems. The structure of such a problem is shown in Fig. 2. A Constraint Satisfaction Problem (CSP) is generally specified by the triple (X, D, C), where X is a set of variables, D a set of domains, and C a set of constraints. The solution of a CSP is a complete assignment of values to variables that satisfies all constraints C. To find such a solution, the underlying solver performs a backtracking search over the variables with suitable variable and value selection heuristics. The search is interleaved with constraint propagation, which prunes the search by removing from the variables' domains those values that violate constraints in C. For the subsequent optimization of the makespan $m_{\rm end}$, a series of CSPs with additional constraints on the makespan: $m_{\rm end} \le c_i$ (c_i being a current upper bound for the makespan), where $c_i < c_{i-1}$, is solved.

The extended STAAMS model as shown in Fig.2 is organized in a task layer and a robot layer (similar to [3]). The changes and extensions (of [3]) to handle extended tasks are described in the following subsections.

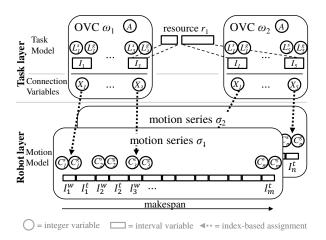


Fig. 2. CP model for task (task layer) and motion (robot layer) scheduling.

A. Task layer

The tasks are specified as a set of Ordered Visiting Constraints (OVC) with combinatorial and temporal constraints. Each OVC specifies a series of tasks which have to be executed by a single robot in a given order, e.g., a pick action followed by a place action, depositing of material along a trajectory followed by coating. In [3] these tasks were considered to (i) only consist of very small movements with a near constant spatial footprint and controllable execution time, and (ii) start and end in the same configuration. Also it was assumed that (iii) all motions follow roadmap edges and therefore pre-computed collision tables for the roadmap nodes could be used (see Section IV-C). However, many relevant tasks violate these assumptions. Therefore, we

extend the model to drop these assumptions. Consider, for instance, a welding seam: the robot positions the welding torch at the beginning of the seam, activates it and then tracks the seam at a constant speed. These extended tasks are characterized by the following properties:

- The start and ending configurations can be distinct and far apart.
- The volume occupied by the whole motion (swept volume) is large and the ratio of actually occupied volume to the swept volume is low.
- There might be multiple valid starting points for executing the task (e.g., each end point of the seam).
- The task duration can be long.

An extended task is defined by a list of possible starting locations L_i^s , corresponding goal locations L_i^g and trajectories T_i each represented by a list of k tuples (L_i, t_i^c) , where L_i denotes the six degrees of freedom of the end-effector at time t_i^c . When the solver assigns the task to a given robotic arm and selects a starting location, then the motion plan of the robot is created and the corresponding robot configurations are assigned to each of these locations. The result is a list of ktuples (c_i, t_i^c) , where c_i denotes the configuration robot visits at time t_i^c . These motion plans can be precomputed for each task variant in advance to save planning time. The system in [3] would require to reserve the whole space occupied by the execution of the extended task and the robot would have to return to the task start location after execution. The extensions described in the following enable closer and more efficient cooperation of the robots.

Extended Ordered Visiting Constraints. Since extended tasks can be used interchangeably with confined tasks in OVCs, we add starting (L^s) and ending (L^g) locations in the OVCs (note that for confined action $L^s = L^g$) and corresponding robot configurations c^s and c^g to the motion series (see Fig. 2 top).

An OVC generalized for extended tasks is defined as the tuple

$$\omega = (A, [P_1, ..., P_l], [[L_1^s], ..., [L_l^s]], [[L_1^g], ..., [L_l^g]],$$

$$[I_1, ..., I_l], [\text{cal}_1, ..., \text{cal}_l], C_{\text{intra}}).$$
(1)

An OVC ω models a sequence of confined and extended tasks to be executed at different locations L_i (6DoF of endeffector) by a given manipulator. A is a variable representing the active component, i.e. the manipulator, P_i defines the task type, e.g. apply glue, pick up an object or follow a line. These tasks have to be executed from an initial robot configuration corresponding to starting location L_i^s to a final robot configuration corresponding to location L_i^g . To execute the given task at the given starting location, a scripted task definition cal_i is called. This scripted task definition navigates the robot from the starting location L^s through the task, ending at a specified ending location L^g . Compared to [3], we replaced the task locations L_i with the pair of start and goal locations L_i^s , L_i^g . These scripted task definitions can be defined by the user. The time interval variables I_i model the time windows for the task execution and C_{intra} is a set of constraints to model arbitrary relations between the OVC internal variables.

Extended tasks often can be fulfilled in multiple ways. Open contours can be started at either end and circular paths can be started anywhere on the path. With the OVC constraint variables, defining these variants is very easy. An example for the line task to be executed by arm r_1 would be: ($[r_1]$, make_line', $[l_1, l_2]$, $[l_2, l_2]$), where l_1 and l_2 are the respective end points of the line. For each of the possible variants, the corresponding robot motion plan is generated based on the predefined scripted task definition 'make_line'.

B. Robot layer

Industrial robots typically follow a workflow of alternating phases of effective and supporting movements [17]. In the case of multiple robots cooperating on the same task, this model does not provide enough flexibility, as the robots might block each other on their way to the next positions. Therefore, we allow waiting times after or instead of actions. This allows a time-scaling of the effective motions and evading movements during the support motions. The robot's motions are represented as a series of n joint configurations, n intervals modeling the time spent in these configurations, and n-1 intervals modeling the traveling time between the configurations (see Fig. 2 bottom). Precomputed roadmaps [18] are used to discretize the configuration space per arm (see Fig. 3). Therefore, the domain of the configuration variables is the set of all roadmap nodes of the corresponding arm. Path planning for supporting movements is performed by graph search on these roadmaps. In the case of the extended tasks when the occupancy of the space changes in time or when the starting and ending points are different, we have to allow connections of the starting and ending point of the task to different nodes of the roadmap, see Fig. 3.

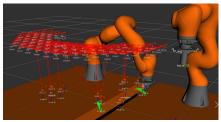


Fig. 3. Starting and ending locations of the extended tasks are connected to the closest nodes in the roadmap. This is done for the roadmaps of both arms (roadmap only for the left arm is displayed).

C. Collision-free plans

Space representation for collision-free plans. The introduction of extended actions brings a huge number of robot configurations which have to be checked for collisions. To avoid extensive pair-wise collision checks, we utilize a voxel-based swept volume representation [19] for collision checking with precomputed swept volumes for each of the extended task trajectory. Additionally, we show how this space representation can be used that we do not have to reserve the whole swept volume (volume occupied by the whole motion) for the task duration, which would prevent multiple robots from working efficiently in parallel.

Collision bodies of robots are typically represented as (triangular) meshes or compositions of primitive bodies like spheres, cylinders or cuboids. Although, optimized methods exist to check for the intersection of two bodies, the general case of checking two meshes against each other is computationally expensive. Since the solver considers a large number of sequencing and task allocations, many robot configurations have to be checked for robot-robot collisions. As the STAAMS solver is implemented as a constraint program, the notion of resources is a natural way of modeling. Therefore, we create a partition of the robot's workspace set V into n subsets v_i (v_i treated as unary resources). A voxelization of the volume V fulfills these requirements.

The space occupancy of a robot in configuration c_i can then be expressed as the set $V_i \subseteq \{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$. Figure 4 shows voxel occupancy for KUKA robot during a line movement. The space occupancy is piece-wise constant, i.e. V_i is constant from t_i to t_{i+1} . A new interval is added when the occupancy of the space changes. For efficiency reasons, this discretization can be limited by a temporal resolution or a maximum number, without sacrificing the safety of the execution. To account for kinodynamic constraints, we require that the robot always has enough free space in the direction of the movement to perform an emergency stop. The overall stopping time T_e is dependent on the velocity of the joints \dot{x}_j and the acceleration limits $a_{j,\min} \leq \ddot{x}_j \leq a_{j,\max}, t_{\text{stop,i}}^j$ denominates the minimal stopping time for a joint j at time t_i : $T_e = \max_{j \in \text{Joints}} t_{\text{stop},i}^j$. Let T_e be the time to break to the full stop at time t_i . Then the volume to be reserved is $V_i^r =$ $\bigcup V_k$, where $K = \{i, i+1, ..., p\}$, p and corresponding time t_p is determined by the condition that: $t_p - t_i \ge T_{\rm e}$ (see Fig.5). We determined empirically the worst-case runtime of the stopping trajectory calculation $t_{\rm calc} \leq 0.5$ s. The task execution has to be deterministic for in the sense that the actual motion is always contained in the reserved space V_i^r . Violations of this have to be handled by communication during execution (changed resource requirements). There is a trade-off between reserving the resources early and being able to move quicker and reserving less resources at the time.

To enable efficient use of resources, we free the space after a part of the task is fulfilled and the arm moves out of the given region.

Collision-checking To ensure collision-free motions of the arms, we determine the set of required resources and their timing relative to the respective action or traveling interval and cast temporal disjunctive constraints on potentially colliding motions. This ensures that intervals of the actions or supporting robotic movements which spatially overlap do not occur concurrently in the robotic plan. A fast collision check for two sets of voxels (vox₁ and vox₂) is done with the worst case runtime $\mathcal{O}(mn)$, where m and n are the sizes of the sets. For colliding sets, the runtime is quicker as we can report collision after the first common element is found. For a voxel size of $10\,\mathrm{cm}$ the occupied volume is represented by 80-90 voxels. Empirically, the runtime was found to be $10^{-5}\mathrm{s}$. This sparse volume representation enables collision checks for



Fig. 4. Voxel occupancy during the line movement - light blue is the voxel occupancy for the whole trajectory (swept volume), dark blue is the occupancy for the current configuration - this is used for collision checking in the trajectory task computation (4 out of 45 configurations visualised).

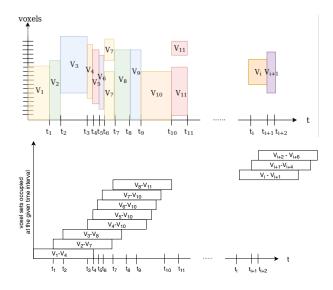


Fig. 5. (top) voxel occupancy at each time interval of one robot (V_i is the corresponding voxel set at the time interval $[t_i, t_{i+1}]$), (bottom) reserved and freed voxel sets are visualised at each time point (e.g. you can see that at time t_3 , voxels from set V_2 are freed and voxels from voxel set V_9 and V_{10} are newly reserved - resulting in the reservation of voxel sets V_3 - V_{10}).

arbitrary workspace sizes. As a result we get a collisionfree motion plan (for visualisation of voxel occupancy for individual robotic arms during the executed motion plan see Fig. 1, left.).

V. IMPLEMENTATION AND SETUP

The proposed method is applied to a pair of simulated KUKA LBR iiwa robots with overlapping workspaces (see Fig. 1 left). The robots are controlled via the Robot Operating System (ROS). Motion planning is done with the MoveIt! Framework [20]. The roadmaps are based on the Graph-Tool library [21]. The STAAMS problems are translated into Constraint Programs which are solved by the Google Operations Research Tools Constraint Solver [22]. The STAAMS solver is accessible using ROS services. To create the voxelization, we arrange the meshes for the robot links according to the URDF model and the joint state of the robot. Then, we use the trimesh library [23] to retrieve the occupied voxels for the combined mesh. The evaluation was performed on an ASUS ZenBook Pro laptop with Intel i7-8750H CPU and 16 GB RAM. The solver runs in a single process on the CPU.

VI. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

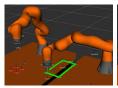
We evaluate our approach on multiple use-cases of varying complexity - cutting, additive manufacturing, spot welding, and inserting and tightening bolts where multiple tasks by dual-arm robot have to be performed (see Fig.6). For cutting and welding, the robots have the same capabilities and for additive manufacturing and bolt tightening they do not. Extended tasks are in some use-cases combined with confined tasks (bolt tightening, spot welding). The makespan over planning time for individual found solutions is compared to the lower bound (not avoiding collisions). For each of the use-cases we compare multiple variants to show how the solver can handle the constraints imposed. These include comparisons to single arm performance (for tasks with shared capabilities), to arms which cannot execute potentially colliding motions simultaneously, enabling variants by starting point selection, automated allocation of tasks to individual arms, following/not following partial ordering constraints of tasks (e.g. first deposit material, then put coating). We show final makespan, time to the 1^{st} solution, number of solutions found and the improvement of the final solution compared to the initial solution-time to the 1^{st} solution shows how quick an executable solution is available, while final makespan is important for the repeated tasks. The mean and standard deviation (in brackets) over 10 executions with varied random seeds are shown.

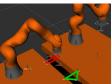
Cutting showcases - (SC1) Making 8 line cuts (4 in the shared workspace), (SC2) making 11 line cuts (7 in the shared workspace). In Table I we compare results for the case where no alternative start location can be selected (No alt.). when selection is enabled (Alt.start). We present a lower bound (Col.) to the optimal makespan, where we relaxed the problem by dropping the collision avoidance constraint. An upper bound is constructed by restricting the solver to only using a single arm. We can see that the overall makespan is improved by parallelization to 2 arms (No alt.) and further by utilizing the option of selecting a starting location for each line (Alt). This allows to optimize the traveled distances for the robots, but also can help to avoid collisions.

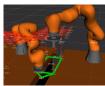
TABLE I
CUTTING TASKS WITH ALTERNATIVE STARTING LOCATIONS

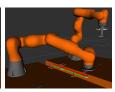
		Col.	1 arm	No alt	Alt.start
SC1	Fin. makespan [s]	23.2(0.0)	49.4(3.8)	29.3(0.0)	23.28(2.0)
	Time to 1^{st} sol. [s]	0.02(0.02)	1.04(0.14)	1.03(0.21)	0.90(0.18)
	# sol. (500 sec.)	6.3(1.2)	6.4(1.7)	3.0(1.9)	6.4(1.6)
	Improvement [%]	35(4)	26(8)	12(8)	35(4)
SC2	Fin. makespan [s]	26.4(1.6)	52.6(1.9)	43.6(2.0)	38.0(3.3)
	Time to 1^{st} sol. [s]	0.02(0.02)	1.60(0.23)	1.53(0.30)	1.44(0.16)
	# sol. (500 sec.)	10.2(2.4)	7.3(1.9)	7.7(4.0)	7.8(2.4)
	Improvement [%]	49(4)	26(5)	27(13)	34(9)

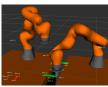
Additive manufacturing showcases (SC3) material has to be deposited and coated along multiple short lines, (SC4) material has to be deposited along a single long line. The











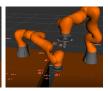


Fig. 6. Use-cases: (from left to right) 1) cutting example - multiple line cuts have to be performed; 2) cutting example in closer cooperation; 3) additive manufacturing - arm 1 is depositing material on multiple places and arm 2 is covering it with coating; 4) additive manufacturing - one arm is slowly depositing material along a long path, the other is coating it; 5) spot welding - arm 1 is making stitches on multiple places, arm 2 is making a weld seam; 6) bolt insertion - arm 1 is inserting bolts, arm 2 is tightening them (see accompanied video and project webpage http://imitrob.ciirc.cvut.cz/schedulComplex.html).

starting location can be selected, but depositing has to precede coating. We compare the cases when we allow collisions (Col.), where the arms cannot execute potentially colliding motions simultaneously (No par.), and the case with free order (No order) to the solution respecting the order of material application (Order). The planner is able to find a solution respecting the order constraints while improving the overall makespan compared to the case when the two arms cannot move simultaneously. Since the tasks in SC3 are all located in a small region, the time both robots can work in parallel is limited. (SC4, SC5 and SC6) consist of longer extended tasks where the proposed method is able to exploit the time-space occupancy of the tasks (Order (No Par.) vs. Order).

TABLE II
ADDITIVE MANUFACTURING (GIVEN ORDER OF EXTENDED ACTIONS)

		Col.	Order (No par.)	Order	No order
		42.2(2.1)	77.9(3.4)	77.8(3.6)	77.1(3.4)
	Time to 1^{st} sol. [s]	0.03(0.04)	1.2(0.2)	12.5(10.3)	5.0(3.2)
	# sol. (500 sec.)	10.5(1.4)	8.1(3.5)	5.2(1.9)	4.3(1.8)
	Improvement [%]	38(3)	20(8)	17 (4)	17(10)
2	Final makespan [s]	20.5(0.0)	31.6(0.0)	28.5(0.0)	28.5(0.0)
	Time to 1^{st} sol. [s]	0.001(0.01)	0.53(0.05)	0.8(0.7)	1.0(0.9)
	# sol. (500 s)	1.0(0.0)	1.8(0.8)	3.7(1.25)	1.8(0.8)
	Improvement [%]	0(0)	8(7)	5 (5)	5(5)

Showcases combining confined and extended tasks In (SC5) first a pair of spot welding stitches have to be done, before a weld seam can be applied. In (SC6) bolts are inserted by the first arm, then the second arm is tightening them. The performance is compared to allowed collisions (Col.), the arms not working simultaneously (No par.), and the case when the ordering constraint is omitted. The biggest improvement compared to No par. option is seen for SC6.

 $\label{table III} \textbf{TASKS COMBINING CONFINED AND EXTENDED ACTIONS}.$

	Col.	Order (No par.)	Order	No order
Fin. makespan [s]	62.5(0.3)	90.8(1.1)	83.4(2.2)	79.4(3.4)
\mathcal{L} Time to 1^{st} sol. [s]	0.03(0.04)	2.3(1.4)	16.2(19.2)	2.25(0.8)
∞ # sol. (500 sec.)	11.9(4.2)	7.3(3.1)	4.7(2.0)	6.0(2.0)
Improvement [%]	32(8)	22(4)	22(4)	29(3)
Final makespan [s]	51.4(0.0)	74.8(0.0)	55.0(0.0)	51.0(0.0)
\sim Time to 1 st sol. [s]	0.03(0.02)	1.10(0.12)	1.11(0.05)	1.14(0.11)
∞ # sol. (500 sec.)	6.0(2.1)	5.5(2.0)	5.5(1.7)	4.3(2.0)
Improvement [%]	19(9)	7(4)	19(9)	3(2)

The makespan was reduced compared to the initial solution within 500 seconds for SC1, SC2, SC3, SC4, SC5

and SC6 by 35.53%, 34.66%, 16.98%, 5.38%, 22.24%, and 18.71%, respectively.

VII. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

In this paper, we have introduced, demonstrated and evaluated an approach to the simultaneous task allocation and motion scheduling in multi-robot systems. It is an extensions of the CP-based STAAMS solver [3] to support tasks which occupy a large, time-varying volume of the workspace and have multiple alternative execution variants. We have shown that the system is able to schedule diverse use-cases (e.g., cutting, additive manufacturing, spot welding, assembly) for a pair of simulated KUKA LBR robots. The method is designed for robots cooperating in a common workspace with many potential collisions and is thus applicable to many other robots and workplaces. The proposed voxelbased space representation enables a very efficient collision checking. This makes it feasible to check and schedule the effective motions (for both confined and extended tasks) as well as the supportive motions (travelling of robots via the roadmap edges) in a fine-grained manner.

We evaluated the proposed solution on several use-cases, showing that the makespan quality outperforms task execution by one robot arm as well as by two arms that cannot work simultaneously. In addition, within 2 minutes, the planner is able to improve the makespan of an initial solution by up to 46%.

In our future research we will investigate how the quality of solutions depends on the possible supporting movements using the roadmaps. The coarse voxelization of $10\,\mathrm{cm}$ seems to prevent some potential for robot collaboration. Here, a trade-off between possible solution quality and planning time has to be made. The space representation allows us to develop an execution engine with space reservation and monitoring, which will be able to react to uncertain execution times of sub-tasks. It also allows the efficient integration of other agents and objects occupying space at execution time.

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