

Pattern Formation and Adaptation in Multi-Robot Systems

Mrs. MUTYALAPALLI KANAKA DURGA¹, Mrs. K. APARNA JYOTHI², Mrs. RACHAPOTU SINDHU³
ASST PROFESSOR¹, ASSISTANT PROFESSOR², ASSISTANT PROFESSOR³ DEPARTMENT OF ECE,
SWARNANDHRA COLLEGE OF ENGINEERING AND TECHNOLOGY, NARASAPUR

Abstract

Recent advances in robotics have started making it feasible to deploy large numbers of inexpensive robots for tasks such as surveillance and search. However, coordination of multiple robots to accomplish such tasks remains a challenging problem. This report reviews some of the recent literature in multi-robot systems. It consists of two parts. In the first part, we reviewed the studies on the pattern formation problem, that show how a group of robots can be controlled to get into and maintain a formation. The second part reviews the studies that used adaptation strategies in controlling multi-robot systems. Specifically, we have investigated (1) how learning (lifelong adaptation) is used to make multi-robot systems respond to changes in the environment as well as the capabilities of individual robots, and (2) how evolution is used to generate group behaviors.

Introduction

Large-scale, low-cost robot deployment is becoming viable for activities like search and surveillance because of recent advancements in robotics. Coordination of several robots to carry out such jobs is still a difficult issue, though. Prior assessments of multi-robot systems, such as those authored by Dudek et al. [7] and Cao et al. [25], have adopted a broad perspective. In contrast to this, the scope of this article is restricted to the most recent

research on pattern creation and adaptability in multi-robot systems. There are two sections to the report. In the first section, we looked at research on the pattern formation problem—that is, the difficulty of controlling a group of robots to form and stay in a formation. The research that employed adaptation techniques to control multi-robot systems are reviewed in the second section. In particular, we have looked into (1) how lifelong learning

Pattern formation in multi-robot systems

The coordination of a collection of robots to enter and maintain a formation with a specific shape, such as a chain or a wedge, is known as the pattern formation issue. Pattern formation is being used in search and rescue operations, mine clearance, remote terrain and space research, satellite array control, and unmanned aerial vehicle (UAV) operations. Several animal species exhibit cooperative activities that lead to pattern creation. In these behaviors, animals maintain a set orientation and distance from one another while moving, or they occupy a specific region as uniformly as possible. Animals that develop patterns include fish schools, ant colonies, and flocks of birds [18].

The pattern formation investigations have been divided into two categories by us. The

first group consists of studies where a centralized system handles coordination.

Centralized pattern formation

A computational unit manages the entire group in centralized pattern formation methods and schedules the members' movements appropriately [3, 13, 23, 24]. The robots then communicate with each other through a communication channel to convey their movements. A coordination technique is put out by Egerstedt and Hu [13] to move a collection of robots along a specified path in a desired arrangement. The path tracking task and route planning are two different tasks. The tracking of virtual reference points is handled independently and centrally. Robots use the path of a virtual leader as a point of reference, which is computed. They used the technique to plan and direct the motion of robotic models arranged in a triangle to avoid a barrier. In this instance, the robots that made up the triangle's corners traveled

Decentralized pattern formation

There is a trade-off between the need for global information and communication and the accuracy and viability of developing and maintaining patterns in communication and completeness of information understood by robots. Research requiring worldwide information or broadcast transmission [29, 19, 12] may not be scalable or have expensive physical setup expenses, but they enable more precise construction of a wider variety of structures.

However, studies that just use local communication and sensor data [21, 22, 10, 5, 17, 15, 9, 11] are often easier to construct, more scalable, and more reliable; however, the diversity and precision of the formations in these studies is constrained. Pattern formation was accomplished by Sugihara and Suzuki [12] by giving each robot access to the

global positions of every other robot. For every pattern in this study, an algorithm is created. The suggested approach can consistently Fujibayashi et al. have presented a different approach that is comparable to crystal production and uses a type of probabilistic control [11]. Virtual springs are used in this study to maintain the proximity of two agents. Every robot pair that is in close proximity to one another is joined by a simulated spring. The number of surrounding agents (or links) that each agent has within this range is used to classify them. The robots create randomly outlined triangle lattices. Particular robots break their virtual springs with a particular probability in order to achieve the correct contour. The amount of connections the robots it unites has determines which springs are candidates to be broken. The likelihood of breaking and this breaking preference vary from formation to formation. The algorithm is decentralized and solely utilizes local data. One drawback of the approach is

Desai [10] offers a graph-theoretic framework for controlling a group of robots that are moving through an obstacle-filled region while keeping a predetermined formation. The technique defines the actions of the robots in the formation using control graphs. Transitions between formations, or between control graphs, can be handled by this framework. There are proofs provided for the mathematical outcomes needed to list and categorize control graphs. The methods provided can be scaled to large groups even though the number of robots increases the computations for control graphs because these computations are decentralized.

By Fierro and Das [17], another graph-based solution to the moving in formation problem is presented. For formation control, they suggested a four-layer modular design. The top layer, known as the group control layer, creates the intended path for the group as a

whole to follow. Formation Control Layer described which can manage control of robots with unknown dynamics and learns the robot dynamics on-the field. Hence using a different robot requires no change in the system. The method described is scalable (control algorithms scale linearly) and flexible (it allows various formations). Centralized and decentralized versions of control graph assignment algorithm is also described in the study.

just sensor data and local communication. This method additionally provides for obstacle avoidance. By using social roles to represent positions in the formation and local communication to enhance performance, it expands on standard behavior-based techniques. The formation's shape is maintained when more agents join it through local communications and, if needed, role adjustments. The leader, or front-most robot, receives the locally conveyed information. This robot determines the necessary modifications because it is aware of the entire configuration of the current setup. The formation is then updated after this information is disseminated to the appropriate followers. Robots don't need to have their social roles or positions predetermined. As the formation expands, everything is done in a dynamic manner. This technique allows you to create several shapes and transition between them, therefore it's

Adaptation in multi-robot systems

The study on adaptation techniques used in multirobot system control is compiled in this section. Specifically, we have looked at two approaches: (1) using evolution to generate collective behaviors; and (2) using learning (life-long adaptation) to enable multi-robot systems to adjust to changes in both the

environment and the individual robots' capabilities.

Multi-robot systems allow for two different levels of adaptability: group level and individual level. These levels are used to categorize the existing studies, which are then evaluated in the following subsections.

Individual level adaptation

When the state space is too big, reinforcement learning models lose their usefulness. One way to address this issue is to use many learning modules tailored to different states rather than a single complex learning module. One such study is Takayashi's work [26]. His research focuses on a condensed version of the robo-soccer challenge. It is presumed that opponents operate in various ways, each with a distinct policy. Planners and predictors make up modules. Predictor uses the opponent's past conduct to forecast what it will do next. On the other hand, the planner uses this forecast to determine the best move. Only the best prediction module receives reinforcement as predictors strive for increased accuracy. This produces customized modules for the many ways the adversary operates. In this paper, ball chasing in the presence of a randomly moving object is the difficulty. a solution to the robosoccer issue. He reports better performance while learning with many robots compared to normal Q learning, assuming that only one agent is learning at a time.

Since reinforcement learning is designed for single entities, it lacks any mechanisms that would encourage cooperative behavior. Tangamchit's research [16] addresses this issue. The difference between task-level and action-level systems is discussed in this paper. Action level systems provide reactive behaviors in order to solve challenges. However, task level systems provide tasks that may be divided among several agents

and consist of subtasks. According to Tangamchit, cooperation is an activity at the task level in which robots can share tasks and resources. Two distinct reward schemes—global and local—are taken into consideration. The reinforcement that a unit receives under the global rewards scheme is given to the entire group. Conversely, in the local incentive Averaging is used in Monte Carlo learning to determine the importance of every action in every state. Every state action pair in an episode receives the same reward. This system is slower because it doesn't take into account the significance of the latter activities in the episode, which are typically more successful in yielding rewards.

The case study for this research looks at puck collecting behavior, which is a type of foraging issue. Pucks must be collected by robots and placed in the bin. With the exception of depositing a puck, every action carries a negative reward. The field is made up of a home area without any pucks, a deposit container, and pucks strewn over the area. For this purpose, two heterogeneous robots are employed. In the area outside of its home territory, the first robot moves and gathers more efficiently. Parker's [6] The L-ALLIANCE concept fosters cooperation by utilizing global communications and a variety of behavior sets. Every collection of behaviors has a watcher. These monitors evaluate the agent's and other agents' capabilities in addition to verifying the prerequisites for behavior set activation. Parker presents impatience and acceptance as two motivations. Acquiescence denotes a tendency to hand up a task to be completed by another robot, whereas impatience corresponds to a tendency to take up a task being completed by other robots. During learning, the L-ALLIANCE architecture modifies these motivational characteristics. According to the architecture, robots must broadcast their current behaviors

to other robots. This architecture makes the assumption that all changes in the environment that may arise from a robot's declaration of action are ascribed to that robot. This solves the issue of credit assignment. The L-ALLIANCE architecture is capable of managing diverse groups and adjusting to errors or

Group level adaptation

Reinforcement learning is by definition centralized which is inefficient to implement in multi-robot systems. Yanli's study [27] on opportunistically cooperative neural learning proposes a trade-off for centralized versus decentralized learning debate. In pure decentralized learning models each agent keeps its learning experience hidden from other agents. This seriously affects performance of the group since the experience can not be shared. Yanli solves this problem by adding 'opportunistic' search. This strategy is similar to survival of fittest concept in genetic algorithms. Less t networks copy highly t networks to improve their performance.

Yanli reports the comparison of three cases, central, distributed and opportunistically distributed. These cases are tested on searching task where agents are required to cover as much of a given space as possible avoiding multiple passes as much as possible. The best strategy clearly is one that utilizes cooperation. All agents act simultaneously and plan their movements ahead of action. Agents also share their plans with other agents. Each agent uses these plans to forecast what the other agents will do next. In these predictors, learning occurs. Reward can be computed when it is possible to forecast other agents' forthcoming actions with precision.

The outcomes demonstrate that central learning performs better than any of these techniques. Nonetheless, there are numerous issues with communication and

fault tolerance in central learning. Opportunistically cooperative learning, or OCL, outperforms distributed only cases and works nearly as well as central learning.

In his work, Agah[1] integrates both group and individual adaptability. Agah approaches the multirobot learning problem with a technique known as Tropism Architecture. A learning module that bridges the gap between senses and actions is tropism architecture. A tendency to trigger a response for a certain stimuli is termed as a tropism. Tropism architecture maintains a record pairs). Based on matching tropisms to the current condition, agents make decisions. The decisions about which actions to take based on the tropism values are made using a stochastic process.

This architecture is applied to both types of learning. The list of tropisms in each learning scheme is updated in response to input from the environment. These modifications involve modifying the action when an invalid or negatively reinforced action is found, adding a new legitimate action for the current state, and boosting the tropism value for a pair that has received positive reinforcement.

Each agent's tropism lists are transformed into variable-length bit strings for population learning. These bit strings are used to conduct a genetic algorithm. Each person's level of fitness is determined by the incentives they obtained from their own learning. Findings show that this two-step approach is successful even in

Conclusion

We went over the most recent research on the creation and modification of patterns in multi-robot systems. Two groups comprise the pattern formation

studies. Studies in the first group are coordinated by a single, centralized unit that can monitor the entire group and give commands to the individual robots as needed. To achieve the coordination, the second group uses dispersed pattern generation techniques. Two levels of classification were applied to the studies that employed adaptation techniques for multi-robot system control: group level and individual level.

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