

Multi-Agent Systems for Evasive Maneuvers of Mobile Robots through Agreements

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Abstract: This paper presents a new methodical approach to the problem of collision avoidance of mobile robots taking advantages of multi-agents systems to deliver solutions that benefit the whole system. The approach proposed is based on the information interchange among the involved agents. The implemented method has the next phases: collision detection, obstacle identification, negotiation, agreement, and collision avoidance. In addition of simulations with virtual robots, in order to validate the proposed algorithm, an implementation with real mobile robots has been developed. The robots are based on Lego NXT, and they are equipped with a ring of proximity sensors for the collisions detections. The platform for the implementation and management of the multi-agent system is JADE.

1 INTRODUCTION

The area of artificial intelligence (AI) has expanded considerably in recent years. It not only dominates the area of games versus computers, but nowadays it applies in many sectors like databases management or web pages. As it is well known, the main topic of AI is the concept of intelligent agent defined as an autonomous entity which observes through sensors and acts upon an environment using actuators (Russell, 2009). This definition is very close to services that a robot can provide, so the concept of agent often is related with robots, (Bruce et al., 1997), (van Leeuwen, 1995), (Michalewicz, 1996).

On the other hand, detecting and avoiding a collision is a previous step for overcoming the motion planning problem. In fact, collision detection has been inherently connected with the motion-planning algorithms from the very beginning. Current planning algorithms require the collision detection of mobile and nondeterministic obstacles.

Collision-detection techniques for mobile robots and obstacles can be divided into discrete collision detection (DCD), and continuous collision detection (CCD).

The DCD algorithms involve stepping the motion of both the mobile robot and the mobile obstacle at a sample time rate. Collision tests are

then checked for such configurations. A recent example is found in (Urmson et al., 2008). Nevertheless, the DCD algorithms may miss a collision between two consecutive configurations. This problem, termed tunneling, is overcome by using a dynamic time-step strategy (Schwarzer, Saha, Latombe, 2005).

The CCD techniques are more effective because motions are not stepped. CCD algorithms basically make a return if a collision between the motion of two given objects is presented or not; and if a collision is going to occur then, the instant in time of the first contact is returned (Schwarzer et al., 2005); (Choi et al., 2006); (Redon et al., 2002); (Cameron, 1990); (Tang et al., 2009); (van den Bergen, 2005), and (Bernabeu, 2009).

In this paper, local collision detection strategies of autonomous mobile robots based on (Bernabeu et al., 2001) are improved with artificial intelligence and multi-agent coordination strategies to offer a new method of collision avoiding management.

Two representative local collision-detection methods are ORCA (van den Berg, et. al., 2011) and DRCA (Lalish and Morgansen, 2008). These methods estimate the velocities of the nearby objects by means of a sensor system. In the presented work, the information perceived by each agent or robot is transmitted only to the in-sight agents using wireless communications. Then, the collision avoidance

technique in this paper combines local with quasi-global strategies.

2 METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

This paper expects to present a new methodical approach to the problem of collision avoidance of mobile robots, taking advantages of multi-agents systems (MAS) to deliver solutions that benefit the whole system. The method is divided into three basic concepts (see Figure 1) which are merged in this paper: obstacle detection by a mobile robot, the concept of abstraction robotic agent as a software agent within MAS, and distributed artificial intelligence as a method of communication and negotiation between these software agents.

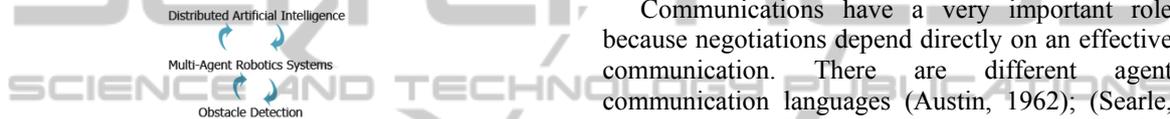


Figure 1: Diagram of the connection between concepts.

Nowadays, the obstacle detection by mobile robots is not a new problem. In fact, there are many sensors on the market that allow, with more or less certainty, robots to know if there is an obstacle that stands between them and its trajectory, and where is that obstacle. This process is local, i.e. it is performed inside the robot. In the case of two mobile robots at the same scenario, each one represents an obstacle to the other, but neither is aware of it because it is handled as a local process. Therefore, the concept of robotic agent in a multi-agent robotic system is proposed as a next level or upper layer to fix it and to manage a more intelligent solution.

Multi-agent robot systems (MARS) represent a complex distributed system, consisting of a large number of agents-robots cooperating for solving a common task. Each agent of MARS is an independent system which manages subsystems like tasks execution, perception of environment by sensors, trajectory control, robots communications, etc. In this case, each agent of MARS represents a real physical mobile robot that informs its software agent of all it perceives.

The ability of the MAS to provide intelligent solutions in a distributed architecture is well known. The ability of communication, cooperation and coordination between the agents, allows conversations, negotiations and deductions that local

system itself could not perform.

When a group of individual agents is involved in a MAS, it is necessary a mechanism for the agents coordination and communication. There are two main coordination mechanisms: one for cases in which the agents have common objectives and, therefore, they have to cooperate, and in other cases for which the agents are competitive and objectives are conflicting with each other, for which purpose, negotiation mechanisms are required (Huhns and Malhotra, 1999); (Singh and Huhns, 1999). Some of the negotiations mechanisms more used in the literature are the coalition, market mechanisms, bargaining theory, voting, auctions and allocation of tasks between two agents. More specifically, for automated negotiation techniques (Fatima et al., 2001), (Rahwan et al., 2004) there are mainly three ones, based on: game theory, heuristics and argument.

Communications have a very important role because negotiations depend directly on an effective communication. There are different agent communication languages (Austin, 1962); (Searle, 1969), FIPA-ACL (FIPA Agent Communication Language) and KQML (Knowledge Query and Manipulation Language).

In the development of methodologies for the design of multi-agent systems, researchers have focused their efforts on extending existing methodologies. These extensions have been made mainly on two areas: on the object-oriented methodologies and on Knowledge Engineering (Iglesias et al., 1999). A MAS is inherently multithreaded, each agent has at least one thread of control (Wooldridge, 2002). These characteristics make the MAS particularly suitable for the development of systems that operate in complex, dynamic and unpredictable environments.

3 AVOIDING COLLISION METHOD

The aim of this section is showing a review for obtaining the instant in time when two robots or agents in motion will be located at their maximum-approach positions while they are following straight-line trajectories (Bernabeu et al., 2001).

The mentioned maximum approach is also calculated. Therefore, if the involved robots do not collide while they are following their respective motions, then their minimum separation is returned. Otherwise, their maximum penetration is computed

as a minimum translational distance (Cameron and Culley, 1986).

A remarkable aspect is that both the instant in time and the corresponding minimum separation or maximum approach are computed without stepping any involved trajectory.

Some collision avoiding configurations for the involved robots or agents are directly generated from the computed instant in time and maximum penetration. These collision-free configurations are determined in accordance with a given coordination between the robots or agents.

3.1 Obtaining the Instant in Time and the Maximum Approach

Consider two robots or agents in motion each one enveloped or modeled by a circle. Let A be a circle in motion whose start position at time t_s is $A(t_s)=(c_A(t_s),r_A)$, where $c_A(t_s)\in\mathfrak{R}^2$ is the A 's center at t_s and $r_A\in\mathfrak{R}$ is its radius. A is following a straight-line trajectory whose final position at t_g is given by $A(t_g)=(c_A(t_g),r_A)$. Let $v_A\in\mathfrak{R}^2$ be the A 's velocity for the time span $[t_s,t_g]$.

Let B be a second circle in motion whose start and goal positions at the respective instants in time t_s and t_g are $B(t_s)=(c_B(t_s),r_B)$ and $B(t_g)=(c_B(t_g),r_B)$. The B 's velocity for the time span $[t_s,t_g]$ is $v_B\in\mathfrak{R}^2$.

All the infinite intermediate positions of the mobile circle A for $t\in[t_s,t_g]$ while A is in motion is parameterized by λ with $\lambda\in[0,1]$, as follows:

$$(\lambda)=\{c_A(\lambda),r_A\}:c_A(\lambda)=c_A(t_s)+\lambda\cdot(c_A(t_g)-c_A(t_s)) \quad (1)$$

$$\text{and } t=t_s+\lambda(t_g-t_s); \quad \forall\lambda\in[0,1].$$

Note that the positions $A(\lambda)$ and $A(t)$, with $t=t_s+\lambda(t_g-t_s)$, are equal for all $t\in[t_s,t_g]$ and $\lambda\in[0,1]$. All the infinite intermediate positions of the mobile circle B are analogously parameterized for $\lambda\in[0,1]$ as indicated in (1).

Observing equation (1) is easy to conclude that the maximum approach d_M between in-motion circles A and B will be obtained by finding the parameter $\lambda_c\in[0,1]$ that minimizes

$$\|c_A(\lambda)-c_B(\lambda)\|-(r_A+r_B) \quad (2)$$

Once λ_c is obtained, d_M and the associated instant in time t_M are computed as

$$\begin{aligned} d_M &= \|c_A(\lambda_c)-c_B(\lambda_c)\|-(r_A+r_B) \\ t_M &= t_s+\lambda_c(t_g-t_s) \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Note that d_M might be negative. If d_M is negative,

then d_M holds a penetration distance and, consequently A and B will collide and the maximum penetration d_M will be given at t_M . If the maximum approach, d_M , is zero, then A and B will be in contact at t_M . Finally, if d_M is strictly greater than zero, A and B will not collide for $t\in[t_s,t_g]$, being its minimum separation d_M at t_M .

The parameter $\lambda_c\in[0,1]$ is simply obtained by minimizing $\|c_A(\lambda)-c_B(\lambda)\|$ for all $\lambda\in[0,1]$, i.e. by computing the distance from the origin point O to the straight-line $c_A(\lambda)-c_B(\lambda)$ (Bernabeu, Tornero, Tomizuka, 2001). Graphically, the previously explained distance computation is shown in Figure 2, in accordance with equation (1),

$$\begin{aligned} c_A(\lambda)-c_B(\lambda) &= c_A(t_s)+\lambda(c_A(t_g)-c_A(t_s))- \\ & \quad -c_B(t_s)-\lambda(c_B(t_g)-c_B(t_s)) \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

$$\forall\lambda\in[0,1].$$

Operating:

$$\begin{aligned} c_A(\lambda)-c_B(\lambda) &= c_A(t_s)-c_B(t_s)+ \\ & \quad +\lambda((c_A(t_g)-c_B(t_g))-(c_A(t_s)-c_B(t_s))) \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

$$\forall\lambda\in[0,1].$$

Note that $c_A(\lambda)-c_B(\lambda)$ for all $\lambda\in[0,1]$ is really a segment whose extreme points are respectively $c_A(t_s)-c_B(t_s)$ and $c_A(t_g)-c_B(t_g)$. These points are now referred to as $c_0=c_A(t_s)-c_B(t_s)$ and $c_1=c_A(t_g)-c_B(t_g)$. Then, the parameter $\lambda_c\in[0,1]$ is obtained by projecting O onto mentioned segment, O^\perp , as

$$\lambda_c = -\frac{c_0\cdot(c_1-c_0)}{\|c_1-c_0\|^2} \quad \text{with } \lambda_c\in[0,1]. \quad (6)$$

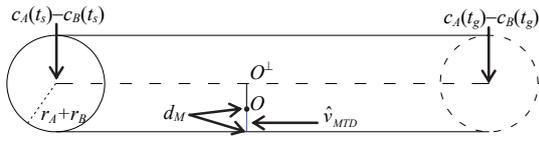
The projected O^\perp is then

$$O^\perp = c_0 + \lambda_c\cdot(c_1-c_0) \quad (7)$$

If the obtained λ_c verifies $\lambda_c\notin[0,1]$, then the instant in time when A and B will be located at their maximum approach positions is out of the given time span $[t_s,t_g]$.

In case of collision, the positions where A and B present their maximum penetration are, as mentioned, $c_A(\lambda_c)$ and $c_B(\lambda_c)$ respectively. One of these positions can be minimally translated in order to bring both circles into contact by using the unit vector \hat{v}_{MTD} , with $\|\hat{v}_{MTD}\|=1$,

$$\hat{v}_{MTD} = \frac{O^\perp}{\|O^\perp\|}. \quad (8)$$


 Figure 2: Finding the parameters λ_c , d_M , O^\perp , and \hat{v}_{MTD} .

3.2 Determining Avoiding Collision Configurations

Let two circles A and B be considered enveloping two mobile robots or agents, and following the straight-line trajectories previously shown. Assuming that the previous distance-computation technique returns the parameters: $\lambda_c \in [0, 1]$, $d_M < 0$, $t_M \in [t_s, t_g]$, and the unit vector \hat{v}_{MTD} , then a collision between both mobile robots or agents has been predicted. The A and B positions where they would be at their maximum penetration d_M , are respectively $A(t_M)$ and $B(t_M)$ with

$$\begin{aligned} A(t_M) &= (c_A(t_M), r_A): \\ c_A(t_M) &= c_A(t_s) + \lambda_c (c_A(t_g) - c_A(t_s)) \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

$$\begin{aligned} B(t_M) &= (c_B(t_M), r_B): \\ c_B(t_M) &= c_B(t_s) + \lambda_c (c_B(t_g) - c_B(t_s)) \end{aligned}$$

An avoiding-collision configuration (position and time) for mobile circles A and B are generated by simple translating $A(t_M)$ and $B(t_M)$. Let $A_f(t_M)$ and $B_f(t_M)$ be the mention collision-free configurations,

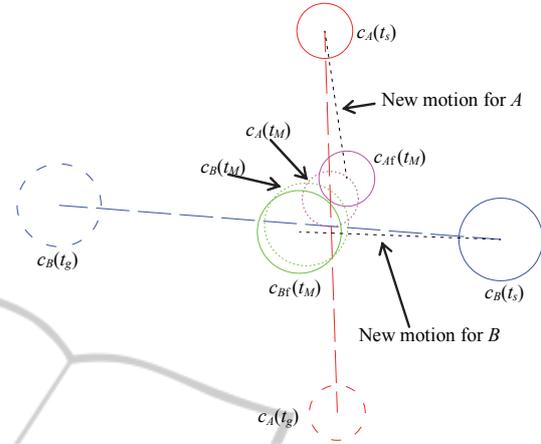
$$\begin{aligned} A_f(t_M) &= (c_{Af}(t_M), r_A): \\ c_{Af}(t_M) &= c_A(t_M) - \delta \cdot \alpha \cdot d_M \cdot \hat{v}_{MTD} \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

$$\begin{aligned} B_f(t_M) &= (c_{Bf}(t_M), r_B): \\ c_{Bf}(t_M) &= c_B(t_M) + \delta \cdot (1 - \alpha) \cdot d_M \cdot \hat{v}_{MTD} \end{aligned}$$

where $c_A(t_M)$ and $c_B(t_M)$ has been defined by (9). Parameter $\delta \geq 1$ is a safety threshold. If $\delta = 1$, then configurations $c_{Af}(t_M)$ and $c_{Bf}(t_M)$ will be in contact. Finally, parameter $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ configures the degree of motion modification applied to each mobile robot or agent. In this way, if $\alpha = 1$, then $c_B(t_M)$ and $c_{Bf}(t_M)$ are equal and, consequently, mobile robot or agent B do not change its current motion. A graphical example is shown in Figure 3.

The original A and B motions are divided in order to avoid a predicted collision. Therefore, A 's first submotion is defined from start position $c_A(t_s)$ at time t_s to goal position $c_{Af}(t_M)$ at time t_M . Meanwhile, A 's second submotion is defined from start position

$c_{Af}(t_M)$ at time t_M to goal position $c_A(t_g)$ at time t_g . B 's motion is analogously divided.


 Figure 3: Avoiding collision configurations with $\alpha=0.7$ and $\delta=1.03$.

4 HYBRID CONTROL COLLISION AVOIDANCE

The implementation of the collision avoidance proposed methodology has six phases (see Figure 4). A scenario where multiple robots follow a path infinite straight line between two target points is considered. These two points are alternated when they are achieved. All robots have their representation as a software agent in the MAS which encompasses the whole system, so there is no moving object within the scene that is not a software agent.

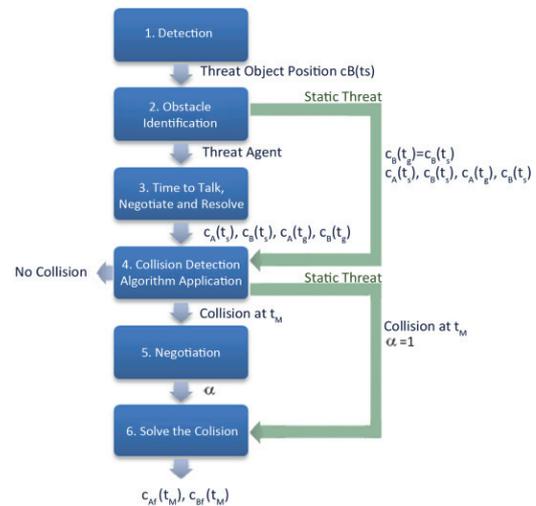


Figure 4: Phases of the proposed methodology.

Observing equation (1) is easy to conclude that the maximum approach d_M between in-motion circles A and B will be obtained by finding the parameter $\lambda_c \in [0,1]$ that minimizes

- Phase 1: Detection. The local system (each robot) has defined a detection object area. In the first phase, the local system of the robot detects an obstacle that may be a threat of collision at some point (from now threat-object) and calculates the position of threat-object in the global scenario. This position is sent to the agent who represents the local system in MAS to manage the threat as is described below.
- Phase 2: Obstacle Identification. When an agent receives the position of a threat-object (from now threat-position) by the local system, it must identify what kind of threat it is: a moving object or a static object. To know this, it adds a distance (formula) to the threat-position to create a circular area of position of threat-object. The agent detects the threat (from now detector-agent), consults the other agents to know who is located within that area of threat. If there is not any agent within that area, then the threat is identified as a static object threat (static-threat) and directly the Phase 4 is performed. Otherwise, the threat-agent is identified through communication among agents and the Phase 3 starts.
- Phase 3: Time to Talk, Negotiate and Resolve. When the two involved agents in a possible threat have been identified, the communication between them is used to obtain the information needed to apply the detection algorithm presented in 3.1. As already mentioned, the inputs of the algorithm are four: the positions of each of the agents involved in that instant ($c_A(t_s)$, $c_B(t_s)$) and the target positions where they will be at time t_g ($c_A(t_g)$, $c_B(t_g)$). The problem is that this time t_g must be the same for the two robots and each one may take a different time to reach the assigned destination. Therefore, to calculate the time t_g , the agents communicate to each other to know which one reaches its destination before. The agent that plans to take more time to reach their destination calculates an intermediate destination from its current trajectory and the arrived time of the other agent to its destination. In this way the two agents shared the time it takes to reach their destination and collision detection algorithm can be implemented.
- Phase 4: Collision Detection Algorithm Application. As already mentioned, the input

requirements to implement collision detection algorithm are: current position coordinates of detector-agent ($c_A(t_s)$), its destination, ($c_A(t_g)$), current position of threat-object ($c_B(t_s)$) and its destination ($c_B(t_g)$). If in the Phase 2, the threat-object was identified as a static-threat, the target is the same as the initial position ($c_B(t_s) = c_B(t_g)$). Therefore the inputs are applied to the algorithm and it returns the probability of collision with the threat-object. In case there is no collision, threat is discarded and the method ends but if a collision is detected, the method informs to detector-agent the time of maximum penetration (t_M) to be produced.

The next step is to avoid the collision by the method described in section 3.2. If the object is a static-threat, the detector-agent should take over the entire cost of the collision avoidance ($\alpha=1$) and jump to Phase 6. Otherwise the negotiations between the two agents involved are opened to decide how much charge is allocated to each

- Phase 5: Negotiation. To decide the load percentage (α) that each robot will have in the collision avoidance, the two agents communicate with each other and exchange parameters such as priority, the weight of the transported load, the difficulty of manoeuvring, speed at which each one moves, etc. In summary, they exchange a number of parameters that define the easiness or availability that each agent offers to change its trajectory and avoid collision. Once each agent agreed with the selection of α , the detector-agent runs the last method described below.
- Phase 6: Solve the Collision. The detector-agent, by the method 3.2, computes the two new positions that the robot should be achieve at time t_M to avoid collision. The threat-agent receives, from the detector-agent, the avoidance position ($c_B(t_M)$) and the time in which must be achieve. Both change their trajectories to go to the new destination partial ($c_A(t_M)$, $c_B(t_M)$) at the right time. Once it's reached, the collision is resolved, each robot continues its original path and the method ends.

In order to test the effectiveness of this method, different scenarios with mobile robots has been simulated. Figures 5 and 6 show the executions obtained in two simulations. In the first one four robots (circles green, blue, black and pink) are considered. The robot initial positions are the corners of the arena, and they must arrive to the opposite corner (marked by a star). The figure also shows the detection area (a trapezoid in front of each

robot), and the final path described by the robot for the first seconds of the simulation.

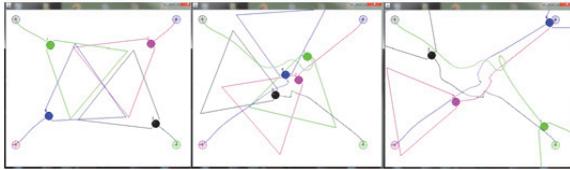


Figure 5: Simulation 1: Collision avoidance simulation with four robots.

Figure 6 shows a similar situation but in this case there are four static obstacles, marked with black squares.

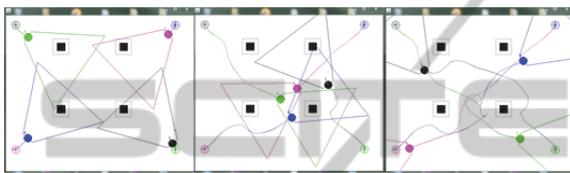


Figure 6: Simulation 2: Collision avoidance simulation with four robots and static obstacles.

5 PRACTICAL IMPLEMENTATION WITH MOBILE ROBOTS

A practical implementation with mobile robots has been developed in order to test the robustness of the presented algorithm. The mobile robots used are LEGO Mindstorms NXT and the platform for the management of MAS chosen was JADE.

The JADE platform is completely implemented in JAVA. It supports coordination of multiple agents according to FIPA specifications and provides a standard implementation of agent communication language FIPA-ACL.

JADE (<http://jade.tilab.com>) was originally developed by Telecom Italia and is distributed as free software being completely compatible with Java Development Kit (JDK) 1.4 or higher, including the functionality for basic agents, scheduling agents' behavior, the implementation of FIPA ACL specification for sending and receiving messages, classes useful for programming FIPA protocols, information management using ontologies, etc... In addition, the platform also provides FIPA (AMS, directory facilitator and MTS) to run on one or more Java Virtual Machine (JVM) where each JVM is seen as an environment where agents can execute concurrently and exchange messages, organizing

containers.

On the other hand, LEGO Mindstorms NXT (<http://mindstorms.lego.com>) was introduced by on the International Consumer Electronics Show in 2006 and nowadays is often used in the research community to prove theories and carry out practical developments. The firmware of the robot chosen to program this work has been LeJOS (<http://lejos.sourceforge.net>) because it offers object-oriented programming in JAVA.

For the practical experiment, two LEGO differential wheeled mobile robots have been built (Campion, Bastin, Dandrea-Novel, 1996). Each robot has defined two destinations points. In order to achieve the trajectory, a control strategy based on a pure pursuit algorithm (Wallace, et. al., 1985) was implemented in the robots. The LEGO robots have been equipped with a ring of proximity sensors to detect possible obstacles. Each ring has four SHARP IR (www.sharpsma.com) proximity sensors as peripherals of an I2C multi-master serial single-ended computer bus. Those sensors provide a detection range over forty centimeters.

Robots are connected to their software agents (computers) via Bluetooth and those computers are part of a network that forms the overall MAS through JADE. The connection diagram is presented in Figure 7. Each robot carries a triangle to detect its position from an overhead camera located at the top of the scenario. This camera is also used to monitoring and minimizing odometry problems.

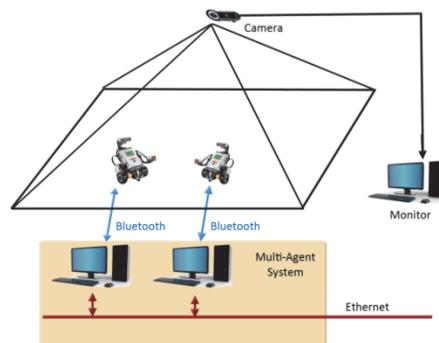


Figure 7: Control architecture for the practical experiments.

These robots have multiple threads running different functional modules. Each of them has one module to control the robot trajectory, a second one for detection that manages the IR sensors and a third one for communication that receives and sends information to the software agent (see Figure 8).

While IR sensors does not detect anything, the robot follows its fixed trajectory, but when

something is detected by IR, the communication module informs to the software agent and expects a solution to the possible collision from MAS. If the solution leads to a new destination for the robot, the communication module receives the new destination and sends it to the control module for change the path.

The management of the agents in JADE is simple. When a software agent receives the position of a detected threat, the agent asks everyone if anyone is located in the threat area. Thus, if other robot is the threat, it's identified as the threat agent and they exchange their destinations and speeds to verify if there will be a collision or not. If finally there is it, they negotiate the way to avoid it and send the new destinations and speeds to their respective robots.

In <http://idecona.ai2.upv.es>, a video demonstration of practical experiment with Lego robots (*Robots Móviles* folder, at videos multimedia gallery) and two compiled versions of the platform that allow the simulation with robots (*Desarrollos de Software* folder, at Results option, Project menu) can be obtained. The video shows how the robots try to follow their trajectories but they have to change them in order to avoid the collisions.

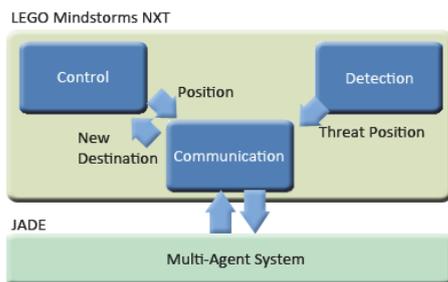


Figure 8: Modules connection scheme between the robot and the MAS.

6 CONCLUSIONS

A collision avoidance method that takes advantages and benefits of MAS has been presented in this work. This method is located one level above the traditional methods of obstacle avoidance where the management is performed locally and the possible communications between the local systems are solved functionally. The application of techniques provided by the area of artificial intelligence to the robotic area opens a wide range of possibilities that offers more natural results and gives human characteristics of communication like negotiation between robots.

This paper also introduces a degree of flexibility and negotiation between two agents or robots by means of a parameter, α , in the collision avoidance strategy. This parameter quantifies the percentage of the original trajectory deviation of an agent while avoiding a predicted collision. In a future work, this percentage will be negotiated in accordance with an optimization of the dynamics and kinematic properties of the involved agents.

This work has succeeded in unifying concepts of agent theory with concepts from the area of mobile robotics, providing more intelligence to robots and offering solutions that otherwise cannot be provided. The methodology has been tested both in simulations and in real executions with mobile robots.

The kinematic configuration of the used agents is holonomic, then considering only linear trajectories might be acceptable. However, as a future work, the collision detection using another kind of movements, like natural Splines and Bezier curves are being considered. In this way, collision detection involving more than two agents are also being developed.

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