

# The Small Solution Hypothesis for MAPF on Strongly Connected Directed Graphs Is True

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## Abstract

The determination of the computational complexity of multi-agent pathfinding on directed graphs (diMAPF) has been an open research problem for many years. While diMAPF has been shown to be polynomial for some special cases, it has only recently been established that the problem is NP-hard in general. Further, it has been proved that diMAPF will be in NP if the short solution hypothesis for strongly connected directed graphs is correct. In this paper, it is shown that this hypothesis is indeed true, even when one allows for synchronous rotations.

## Introduction

Multi-agent pathfinding (MAPF), often also called pebble motion on graphs or cooperative pathfinding, is the problem of deciding the existence of or generating a collision-free movement plan for a set of agents moving on a graph, most often a graph generated from a grid, where agents can move to adjacent grid cells (Ma and Koenig 2017; Stern et al. 2019). Two examples are provided in Figure 1.

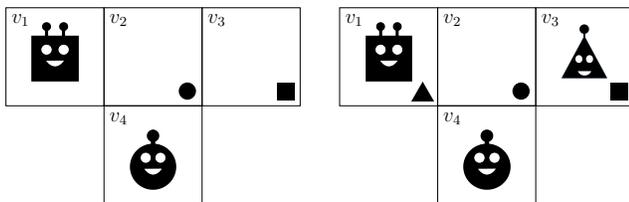


Figure 1: Multi-agent pathfinding examples

In the left example, the circular agent  $C$  needs to move to  $v_2$  and the square agent  $S$  has to move to  $v_3$ .  $S$  could move first to  $v_2$  and then to  $v_3$ , after which  $C$  could move to its destination  $v_2$ . So, in this case, a collision-free movement plan exists. In the right example, where additionally the triangle agent has to move to  $v_1$ , there is no possible way for the square and triangle agent to exchange their places, i.e., there does not exist any collision-free movement plan.

Kornhauser et al. (1984) had shown already in the eighties that deciding MAPF is a polynomial-time problem and

movement plans have polynomial length, although it took a while until this result was recognized in the community (Röger and Helmert 2012). The optimizing variant of this problem, assuming that only one agent can move at each time step, had been shown to be NP-complete soon after the initial result (Goldreich 1984; Ratner and Warmuth 1986).

Later on, variations of the problem have been studied (Stern et al. 2019). It is obvious that all robots that move to different empty nodes could move in parallel, which may lead to shorter plans. Assuming coordination between the agents, one can also consider train-like movements, where only the first robot moves to an empty node and the others follow in a chain, all in one time step (Ryan 2008; Surynek 2009, 2010). Taking this one step further, synchronous rotations of agents on a cycle without any empty nodes have been considered (Standley 2010; Yu and LaValle 2013; Yu and Rus 2014). And even distributed and epistemic versions have been studied (Nebel et al. 2019).

Concerning plan existence and polynomial plan length, parallel and train-like movements do not make a difference to the case when only simple moves are permitted. Synchronous rotations are a different story altogether. There are problem instances which cannot be solved using only simple moves, but are solvable when synchronous rotations are allowed. Nevertheless, it has been shown that MAPF is a polynomial-time problem as well (Yu and Rus 2014). Distributed and epistemic versions are more difficult, however. They are NP-complete and PSPACE-complete, respectively (Nebel et al. 2019).

Optimizing wrt. different criteria turned out to be NP-complete (Surynek 2010; Yu and LaValle 2013) for all kinds of movements, and this holds even for planar and grid graphs (Yu 2016; Banfi, Basilico, and Amigoni 2017; Geft and Halperin 2022). Additionally, it was shown that there are limits to the approximability of the optimal solution for makespan optimizations (Ma et al. 2016).

The mentioned results all apply to undirected graphs only. However, a couple of years ago, researchers also considered MAPF on directed graphs (diMAPF) (Wang and Botea 2008), and it has been proved that diMAPF can be decided in polynomial time, provided the directed graph is strongly biconnected<sup>1</sup> and there are at least two unoccupied ver-

<sup>1</sup>This means that each pair of nodes is located on a directed

tices (Botea and Surynek 2015; Botea, Bonusi, and Surynek 2018). The general case for directed graphs is still open, though. It has only been shown that diMAPF is NP-hard (Nebel 2020), but membership in NP was not established.

In general, the state space of (di)MAPF has size  $O(n!)$ ,  $n$  being the number of vertices of the graph. However, for directed acyclic graphs, a quadratic upper bound for the plan length is obvious, because steps are not reversible in this case, and so each single agent can perform at most  $n$  steps. This leads immediately to NP-completeness for directed acyclic graphs. For strongly connected directed graphs, this argument is not valid, however. It was nevertheless conjectured that plans can be polynomially bounded (Nebel 2020), since this holds also for undirected graphs and for directed strongly biconnected graphs with two empty nodes. In this paper, we will show that this *small solution hypothesis* is indeed true.

The crucial observation is that each movement in a strongly connected directed graph can be reversed, which essentially means that movements of single agents can also be thought of taking place against the direction of an arc in directed graphs, something already noted by Ardizzoni et al. (2022). This implies that we can reuse almost all results about undirected graphs with only a polynomial overhead in plan length—provided we are talking about single-agent movements. However, this does not apply to synchronous rotations. Here, a reduction to movements on the corresponding undirected graph is impossible. By using techniques similar to the ones Kornhauser et al. (1984) employed, we show that any movement plan using only synchronous rotations on strongly connected directed graphs can be polynomially bounded. Finally, we consider the case, when both kinds of movements are allowed, and prove a polynomial bound as well, which allows us to conclude that the small solution hypothesis is indeed true regardless of what kind of movements are possible, and therefore diMAPF is NP-complete.

The rest of the paper is structured as follows. In the next section, we will introduce the necessary notation and terminology that is needed for proving the small solution hypothesis to be true. We will cover basic notation and terminology from graph theory and permutation groups, and will formally introduce MAPF and diMAPF. In the three subsequent sections, the small solution hypothesis will then be proven, first for the case of simple movements, then for the more complicated case when only synchronous rotations are permitted, and finally for the case, when both kinds of movements are possible. The paper ends with a short discussion of the results.

## Notation and Terminology

### Graph Theory

A *graph*  $G$  is a tuple  $(V, E)$  with  $E \subseteq \{\{u, v\} \mid u, v \in V\}$ . The elements of  $V$  are called *nodes* or *vertices* and the elements of  $E$  are called *edges*. A *directed graph* or *digraph*  $D$  is a tuple  $(V, A)$  with  $A \subseteq V^2$ . The elements of  $A$  are called *arcs*. Graphs and digraphs with  $|V| = 1$  are called *trivial*. We assume all graphs and digraphs to be *simple*, i.e.,

cycle.

not containing any self-loops of the form  $\{u\}$ , resp.  $(u, u)$ . Given a digraph  $D = (V, A)$ , the *underlying graph* of  $D$ , in symbols  $\mathcal{G}(D)$ , is the graph resulting from ignoring the direction of the arcs, i.e.,  $\mathcal{G}(D) = (V, \{\{u, v\} \mid (u, v) \in A\})$ .

Given a graph  $G = (V, E)$ ,  $G' = (V', E')$  is called *subgraph* of  $G$  if  $V \supseteq V'$  and  $E \supseteq E'$ . Similarly, for digraphs  $D = (V, A)$  and  $D' = (V', A')$ ,  $D'$  is a *sub-digraph* if  $V \supseteq V'$  and  $A \supseteq A'$ .

A *path* in a graph  $G = (V, E)$  is a non-empty sequence of vertices of the form  $v_0, v_1, \dots, v_k$  such that  $v_i \in V$  for all  $0 \leq i \leq k$ ,  $v_i \neq v_j$  for all  $0 \leq i < j \leq k$ , and  $\{v_i, v_{i+1}\} \in E$  for all  $0 \leq i < k$ . A *cycle* in a graph  $G = (V, E)$  is a non-empty sequence of vertices  $v_0, v_1, \dots, v_k$  with  $k \geq 3$  such that  $v_0 = v_k$ ,  $\{v_i, v_{i+1}\} \in E$  for all  $0 \leq i < k$  and  $v_i \neq v_j$  for all  $0 \leq i < j < k$ .

In a digraph  $D = (V, A)$ , *path* and *cycle* are similarly defined, except that the direction of the arcs has to be respected. This means that  $(v_i, v_{i+1}) \in A$  for all  $0 \leq i < k$ . Further, the smallest cycle in a digraph has 2 nodes instead of 3. A digraph that does not contain any cycle is called *directed acyclic graph* (DAG). A digraph that consists solely of a cycle is called *cycle digraph*. A digraph that consists of a directed cycle  $v_0, v_1, \dots, v_{k-1}, v_k = v_0$  and any number of arcs connecting adjacent nodes in a backward manner, i.e.,  $(v_i, v_{i-1}) \in A$ , is called *partially bidirectional cycle graph*.

A graph  $G = (V, E)$  is *connected* if there is a path between each pair of vertices. A connected graph that does not contain a cycle is called *tree*.

Similarly, a digraph  $D = (V, A)$  is *weakly connected*, if the underlying graph  $\mathcal{G}(D)$  is connected. It is *strongly connected*, if for every pair of vertices  $u, v$ , there is a path in  $D$  from  $u$  to  $v$  and one from  $v$  to  $u$ . The smallest strongly connected digraph is the trivial digraph. The *strongly connected components* of a digraph  $D = (V, A)$  are the maximal subdigraphs  $D_i = (V_i, A_i)$  that are strongly connected.

### Permutation Groups

In order to be able to establish a polynomial bound for diMAPF movement plans containing synchronous rotations, we introduce some background on permutation groups.<sup>2</sup>

A *permutation* is a bijective function over a set  $X$   $\sigma: X \rightarrow X$ . In what follows, we assume  $X$  to be finite.

A permutation has *degree*  $d$  if it exchanges  $d$  elements and fixes the rest of the elements in  $X$ . We say that a permutation is an  *$m$ -cycle* if it exchanges elements  $x_1, \dots, x_m$  in a cyclic fashion, i.e.,  $\sigma(x_i) = x_{i+1}$  for  $1 \leq i < m$ ,  $\sigma(x_m) = x_1$  and  $\sigma(y) = y$  for all  $y \notin \{x_i\}_{i=1}^m$ . Such a cyclic permutation is written as a list of elements, i.e.,  $(x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_m)$ . A 2-cycle is also called *transposition*. A permutation can also consist of different disjoint cycles. These are then written in sequence, e.g.,  $(x_1 \ x_2)(x_3 \ x_4)$ .

The composition of two permutations  $\sigma$  and  $\tau$ , written as  $\sigma \circ \tau$  or simply  $\sigma\tau$ , is the function mapping  $x$  to  $\tau(\sigma(x))$ .<sup>3</sup>

<sup>2</sup>A gentle introduction to the topic is the book by Mulholland (2021).

<sup>3</sup>Note that this order of function applications, which is used in the context of permutation groups, is different from ordinary func-

This operation is associative because function composition is. The special permutation  $\epsilon$ , called *identity*, maps every element to itself. Further,  $\sigma^{-1}$  is the *inverse* of  $\sigma$ , i.e.,  $\sigma^{-1}(y) = x$  if and only if  $\sigma(x) = y$ . The  $k$ -fold composition of  $\sigma$  with itself is written as  $\sigma^k$ , with  $\sigma^0 = \epsilon$ . Similarly,  $\sigma^{-k} := (\sigma^{-1})^k$ . We also consider the *conjugate* of  $\sigma$  by  $\tau$ , written as  $\sigma^\tau$ , which is defined to be  $\tau^{-1}\sigma\tau$ . Such conjugations are helpful in creating new permutations out of existing ones. We use exponential notation as in the book by Mulholland (2021):  $\sigma^{\alpha+\beta} := \sigma^\alpha\sigma^\beta$  and  $\sigma^{\alpha\beta} := (\sigma^\alpha)^\beta$ .

A set of permutations closed under composition and inverse forms a *permutation group* with  $\circ$  as the *product operation* (which is associative),  $\cdot^{-1}$  being the *inverse operation*, and  $\epsilon$  being the *identity element*. Given a set of permutations  $\{g_1, \dots, g_i\}$ , we say that  $\mathbf{G} = \langle g_1, \dots, g_i \rangle$  is the *permutation group generated by*  $\{g_1, \dots, g_i\}$  if  $\mathbf{G}$  is the group of permutations that results from product operations over the elements of  $\{g_1, \dots, g_i\}$ . We say that  $\sigma \in \mathbf{G} = \langle g_1, \dots, g_i \rangle$  is  $k$ -expressible if it can be written as a product over the generators using  $< k$  product operations. The *diameter* of a group  $\mathbf{G} = \langle g_1, \dots, g_i \rangle$  is the least number  $k$  such that every element of  $\mathbf{G}$  is  $k$ -expressible. Note that this number depends on the generator set.

A group  $\mathbf{F}$  is a subgroup of another group  $\mathbf{G}$ , written  $\mathbf{F} \leq \mathbf{G}$ , if the elements of  $\mathbf{F}$  are a subset of the elements of  $\mathbf{G}$ . In our context, two permutation groups are of particular interest. One is  $\mathbf{S}_n$ , the *symmetric group* over  $n$  elements, which consists of all permutations over  $n$  elements. A permutation in  $\mathbf{S}_n$  is *even* if it can be represented as a product of an even number of transpositions, *odd* otherwise. Note that no permutation can be odd and even at the same time (Mulholland 2021, Theorem 7.1.1). The set of even permutations forms another group, the *alternating group*  $\mathbf{A}_n \leq \mathbf{S}_n$ . Since any  $m$ -cycle can be equivalently expressed as the product of  $m-1$  transpositions,  $m$ -cycles with even  $m$  are not elements of  $\mathbf{A}_n$ .

A permutation group  $\mathbf{G}$  is  $k$ -*transitive* if for all pairs of  $k$ -tuples  $(x_1, \dots, x_k), (y_1, \dots, y_k)$ , there exists a permutation  $\sigma \in \mathbf{G}$  such that  $\sigma(x_i) = y_i, 1 \leq i \leq k$ . In case of 1-transitivity we simply say that  $\mathbf{G}$  is transitive.

A *block* is a non-empty subset  $B \subseteq X$  such that for each permutation  $\sigma$ , either  $\sigma(B) = B$  or  $\sigma(B) \cap B = \emptyset$ . Singleton sets and the entire set  $X$  are *trivial blocks*. Permutation groups that contain only trivial blocks are *primitive*.

## Multi-Agent Pathfinding

Given a graph  $G = (V, E)$  and a set of *agents*  $R$  such that  $|R| \leq |V|$ , we say that the injective function  $S: R \rightarrow V$  is a *multi-agent pathfinding (MAPF) state* (or simply *state*) over  $R$  and  $G$ . Any node not occupied by an agent, i.e., a node  $v \in V - S(R)$ , is called *blank*.

A *multi-agent pathfinding (MAPF) instance* is then a tuple  $\langle G, R, I, T \rangle$  with  $G$  and  $R$  as above and  $I$  and  $T$  MAPF states. A *simple move* of agent  $r$  from node  $u$  to node  $v$ , in symbols  $m = \langle r, u, v \rangle$ , transforms a given state  $S$ , where we need to have  $\{u, v\} \in E$ ,  $S(r) = u$  and  $v$  is a blank, into

tion composition.

the successor state  $S^{[m]}$ , which is identical to  $S$  except at the point  $r$ , where  $S^{[m]}(r) = v$ .

If there exists a (perhaps empty) sequence of simple moves, a *movement plan*, that transforms  $S$  into  $S'$ , we say that  $S'$  is *reachable* from  $S$ . The MAPF problem is then to decide whether  $T$  is reachable from  $I$ .

The MAPF problem is often defined in terms of parallel or train-like movements (Ryan 2008; Surynek 2010), where one step consists of parallel non-interfering moves of many agents. However, as long as we are interested only in solution existence and polynomial bounds, there is no difference between the MAPF problems with parallel and sequential movements. If we allow for *synchronous rotations* (Standley 2010; Yu and LaValle 2013; Yu and Rus 2014), where one assumes that all agents in a fully occupied cycle can move synchronously, things are a bit different. In this case, even if there are no blanks, agents can move. A *rotation* is a set of simple moves  $M = \{\langle r_1, u_1, v_1 \rangle, \dots, \langle r_k, u_k, v_k \rangle\}$ , where  $k \geq 3$ , with (1)  $\{u_i, v_i\} \in E$  for  $1 \leq i \leq k$ , (2)  $u_i \neq u_j$  for  $1 \leq i < j \leq k$ , (3)  $v_i = u_{i+1}$  for  $1 \leq i < k$ , and  $v_k = u_1$ . Such a rotation  $M$  is executable in  $S$  if  $S(r_i) = u_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq k$ . The successor state  $S^{[M]}$  of a given state  $S$  is identical to  $S$  except at the points  $r_1, \dots, r_k$ , where we have  $S^{[M]}(r_i) = v_i$ .

*Multi-agent pathfinding on directed graphs (diMAPF)* is similar to MAPF, except that we have a directed graph and the moves have to follow the direction of an arc, i.e., if there is an arc  $(u, v) \in A$  but  $(v, u) \notin A$ , then an agent can move from  $u$  to  $v$  but not vice versa. Since on directed graphs there are also cycles of size two, one may also allow rotations on only two nodes, contrary to the definition of rotations on undirected graphs. In the following, we consider both possibilities, allowing or prohibiting rotations of size 2, and show that it does not make a difference when it comes to bounding movement plans polynomially.

The hypothesis that we want to prove correct can now be formally stated.

**Hypothesis 1** (Short Solution Hypothesis for diMAPF on strongly connected digraphs). *For each solvable diMAPF instance on strongly connected digraphs, there exists a movement plan of polynomial length.*

When this hypothesis holds, then diMAPF is in NP, as follows from Theorem 4 in the paper that established NP-hardness of diMAPF (Nebel 2020). The short justification for this is that in each movement plan on a digraph, each agent only linearly often enters and leaves strongly connected components. If the movements inside each component can be polynomially bounded, then the overall plan is polynomially bounded, i.e., can be guessed in polynomial time. Together with the NP-hardness result (Nebel 2020, Theorem 1), it follows that diMAPF is NP-complete.

## DiMAPF Without Rotations

As mentioned in the Introduction, one crucial observation is that any simple move on strongly connected components can be undone. When considering cycle graphs, it is obvious that it is always possible to restore a previous state.

**Proposition 2.** *Let  $S$  be a diMAPF state over the set of agents  $R$  and the cycle digraph  $D = (V, A)$ , and let  $S'$  be a state reachable from  $S$  with simple moves, then one can reach  $S$  from  $S'$  in at most  $O(|V|^2)$  simple moves.*

*Proof.* Since the relative order of agents on a cycle cannot be changed by movements, one can always reach the initial state, regardless of what movements have been made in order to deviate from the initial state. Further, the maximal distance of an agent from its position in  $S$  is  $|V| - 1$ , which is the maximal number of moves the agent has to make to reach  $S$ . Since there are at most  $|V|$  agents, the stated upper bound follows.  $\square$

If we now consider a simple move on a strongly connected digraph, then it is obvious that we can restore the original state, because all movements in such a graph take place on a cycle.

**Proposition 3.** *Let  $S$  be a diMAPF state over  $R$  and a strongly connected digraph  $D = (V, A)$  and let  $m = \langle r, u, v \rangle$  be a simple move to transform  $S$  into  $S^{[m]}$ . Then there exists a plan consisting of simple moves of length  $O(|V|^2)$  to reach  $S$  from  $S^{[m]}$ .*

*Proof.* Each move  $m$  in a strongly connected digraph is a move on a cycle in the digraph. Hence, we can apply Proposition 2 and restore the original state  $S$  using  $O(v^2)$  simple moves, provided  $v$  is the number of nodes in the cycle. Note that by restoring the configuration on the cycle, we restore the entire state. Further, since  $v \leq |V|$ , the claim about the plan length follows.  $\square$

The plan of restoring the state before move  $m$  is executed can actually be seen as the “inverse move”  $m^{-1}$ , which moves an agent against the direction of an arc!

Although such a “synthesized” move against the arc direction is costly—it may involve  $O(|V|^2)$  simple moves—this opens up the possibility to view a diMAPF instance on the digraph  $D$  as a MAPF instance on the underlying undirected graph  $\mathcal{G}(D)$ .<sup>4</sup> Because of the existence of inverse moves for each possible simple move with only polynomial overhead, the next corollary is immediate.

**Corollary 4.** *Let  $\langle D, R, I, T \rangle$  be a diMAPF instance with  $D$  a strongly connected digraph. Then the MAPF instance  $\langle \mathcal{G}(D), R, I, T \rangle$  has a polynomial movement plan consisting of simple moves if and only if  $\langle D, R, I, T \rangle$  has a polynomial movement plan consisting of simple moves.*

Using Corollary 4 together with the result about an upper bound for the plan length on undirected graphs from the paper by Kornhauser et al. (1984, Theorem 2) gives us the first partial result on the small solution hypothesis.

**Theorem 5.** *The Small Solution Hypothesis for diMAPF on strongly connected digraphs is true, provided only simple moves are allowed.*

<sup>4</sup>This had already been noted by Ardizzoni et al. (2022, Theorem 4.3). However, the proof appears to be incomplete, and the implication for plan length had not been stated.

## DiMAPF With Rotations Only

As a next step, we will consider the case that the only kind of movements are rotations. In this case, we can unfortunately not reduce the reachability on the directed graph to reachability on the underlying undirected graph. In order to see the problem, consider the directed graph in Figure 2(a). The cycle in the underlying undirected graph formed by the nodes  $c_2, c_3, c_4, e_2, e_1, c_2$  could be used for a rotation on the undirected graph, but there is no obvious way to emulate such a rotation on the directed graph. In fact, there exist unsolvable diMAPF instances such that the corresponding MAPF instance on the underlying undirected graph is solvable. For this reason, we will employ permutation group theory in order to derive a polynomial upper bound for plan length in this case.

### Cycle Pairs

Firstly, let us have a closer look at the structure of strongly connected non-trivial digraphs that are not partially bidirectional cycle digraphs. These can be decomposed into a *basic cycle* and one or more *ears* (Bang-Jensen and Gutin 2009, Theorem 5.3.2). This means that each such graph contains at least a sub-graph consisting of a directed cycle (such as, e.g.,  $c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4, c_5, c_1$  in Figure 2, which is drawn solidly), and an ear (such as, e.g.,  $c_2, e_1, e_2, c_4$  drawn in a dotted way). An ear is a directed path or cycle that starts at some node of the basic cycle (in Figure 2(a),  $c_2$ ) and ends at a node of the basic cycle ( $c_4$ ), which however could be the same node. The ear could either be oriented in the same direction as the basic cycle, providing a detour or short-cut as in Figure 2(a), or it points back, as in Figure 2(b).

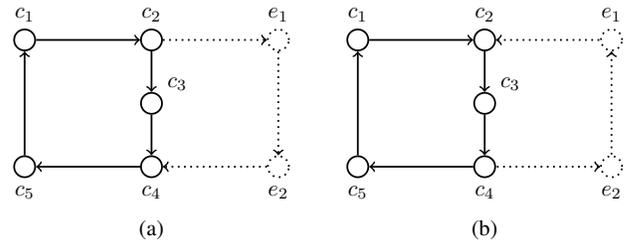


Figure 2: Strongly connected digraphs consisting of a cycle and an ear

In order to be able to deal with only one kind of cycle pair, it is always possible to view a graph as in Figure 2(a) as one in Figure 2(b). This can be accomplished by considering the outer, larger cycle as the basic cycle and the path with  $c_2, c_3, c_4$  as an ear, as illustrated in Figure 3. Note that in the extreme one may have an ear with no additional nodes.

This means that in a strongly connected digraph which is not a bidirectional cycle, one can always find two connected directed cycles of a particular form as stated in the following proposition.

**Proposition 6.** *Any strongly connected non-trivial digraph that is not a partially bidirectional cycle graph contains two directed cycles that share at least one node, where at least*

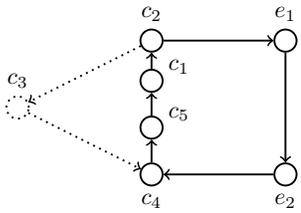


Figure 3: Different perspective on graph from Figure 2(a)

one cycle contains more nodes than the shared ones. Further, if one cycle contains only shared nodes, then there are at least three shared nodes.

*Proof.* There at least two cycles, since otherwise it is a partially bidirectional cycle graph. At least two of these cycle need to share at least one node, since the graph is strongly connected. One of these cycles needs to contain more than the shared nodes because otherwise we would not have two cycles. Finally, if one cycle contains only the shared nodes, then there needs to be at least three shared nodes, because otherwise the structure would be a partially bidirectional cycle (in case of two shared nodes), or a non-simple digraph (in case of only one shared node), which we excluded above.  $\square$

## Rotations as Permutations

Rotations on cycles in the digraph will now be viewed as permutations. Note that such permutations are cyclic permutations. If we refer to such a cyclic permutation of degree  $m$ , we may call them  $m$ -cycle. If we refer to a graph cycle consisting of  $n$  nodes, we will write *cycle of size  $n$* .

Given a diMAPF instance  $\langle D, R, I, T \rangle$  on a strongly connected graph  $D$  with no blanks, we will view the sequence of rotations that transforms  $I$  into  $T$  as a sequence of permutations on  $V$  that when composed permutes  $I$  into  $T$ . The permutation group rotation-induced by such an instance will also often be called *permutation group rotation-induced by  $D$* , since the concrete sets  $R, I$ , and  $T$  are not essential for our purposes. By the one-to-one relationship between rotations and permutations, it is obvious that a polynomial diameter of the rotation-induced group implies that the length of movement plans can be polynomially bounded.

In the following, we will also often use arguments about possible movements of agents in order to prove that a particular permutation exists.

On a fully occupied strongly connected digraph, it is possible to move any agent to any node by using the right combination of rotations, i.e., the rotation-induced permutation group is transitive. However, this holds only, as long as we allow for rotations on directed cycles of size two. If we require rotations to use at least 3 nodes, then the rotation-induced group might not be transitive any longer (see Figure 4). However, then there are *transitive components* (dashed circles in Figure 4), in which each agent can reach each node, but no other nodes, i.e., these transitive components are independent of each other.

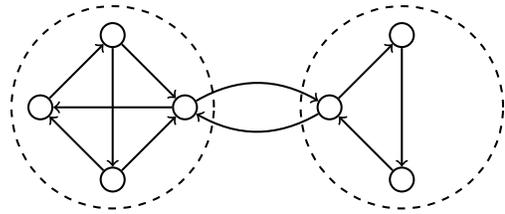


Figure 4: Non-transitive strongly connected digraph with transitive components—provided rotations are disallowed for cycles of size 2

One can solve these transitive components in isolation and then combine the respective permutations or movement plans (as also done by Kornhauser et al. (1984)). For this reason, it is enough to consider rotation-induced permutation groups that are transitive.

In order to show that the permutation groups rotation-induced by diMAPF instances have polynomial diameter, we will use the following result by Driscoll and Furst (1983, Theorem 3.2).

**Theorem 7** (Driscoll & Furst). *If  $G$  is a primitive group containing a polynomially expressible 3-cycle, then the diameter of  $G$  is polynomially bounded.*

Incidentally, if the conditions of the Theorem are satisfied, then  $G = A_n$  or  $G = S_n$ , as follows from a Lemma that is used in Driscoll and Furst’s (1983, Lemma 3.4) paper.

**Lemma 8.** *A primitive group that contains a 3-cycle is either alternating or symmetric.*

It should be noted that primitiveness is implied by 2-transitivity, because for a non-trivial block  $Y$  there would exist one permutation that fixes one element (staying in the block) and moves another element out of the block, which contradicts that  $Y$  is a block.

**Proposition 9.** *Every 2-transitive permutation group is primitive.*

In other words, it is enough to show 2-transitivity and the polynomial expressibility of a 3-cycle in order to be able to apply Theorem 7, which enables us to derive a polynomial bound for the diameter.

Further, for demonstrating that a rotation-induced group is the symmetric group, given 2-transitivity and a 3-cycle, it suffices to show that the rotation-induced group contains an odd permutation. This follows from the fact that  $A_n$  contains only even permutations and Lemma 8. Note that in case the permutation group is the symmetric group, it means that the diMAPF instance is always solvable, a fact we will later use in the proof of Lemma 17.

## 2-Transitivity

Almost all transitive permutation groups rotation-induced by diMAPF instances on strongly connected digraphs are 2-transitive, as shown next. Intuitively, it means that we can move any two agents to any two places in the digraph—moving perhaps other agents around as well.

**Lemma 10.** *Transitive permutation groups rotation-induced by strongly connected non-trivial digraphs that are not partially bidirectional cycle graphs are 2-transitive.*

*Proof.* In order to prove this lemma, we will show that for two fixed nodes  $x$  and  $y$ , it is possible to move any pair of agents  $a_u$  and  $a_v$  from the node pair  $(u, v)$  to the node pair  $(x, y)$ . This implies that we also could move any pair  $(a_{u'}, a_{v'})$  from  $(u', v')$  to  $(x, y)$ . Composing the first plan with the inverse of the second plan means that we can move agents from any pair of nodes  $(u, v)$  to any other pair of nodes  $(u', v')$ , which means the group is 2-transitive.

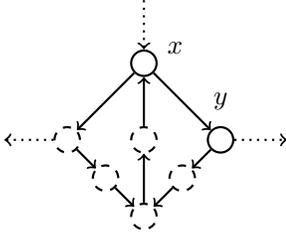


Figure 5: Strongly connected component containing at least two cycles: Demonstrating 2-transitivity

By Proposition 6, the digraph must contain at least two cycles, both containing at least 2 nodes, where the left cycle may consist of only shared nodes, as depicted in Figure 5. The dashed nodes signify possible additional nodes. The dotted arcs exemplify potential connections to other nodes in the digraph.

By transitivity, we can move any agent  $a_u$  from node  $u$  to node  $x$ . After that, we can move any agent  $a_v$  from node  $v$  to node  $y$ . This may lead to rotating the agent  $a_u$  out of the left cycle. In order to prohibit that, we modify the movement plan as follows. As long as  $a_v$  has not entered one of the two cycles yet, every time  $a_u$  is threatened to be rotated out of the left cycle in the next move, we rotate the entire left cycle so that  $a_u$  is moved to a node that will not lead to rotating  $a_u$  out of the left cycle.

If  $a_v$  arrives in the right cycle (including the shared nodes), we rotate the right cycle iteratively. Whenever  $a_u$  is placed on  $x$  and  $a_v$  has not yet arrived at  $y$ , we rotate on the left cycle. Otherwise, we stop and are done. When  $a_v$  is placed on  $x$ , then in the next move, we rotate the right cycle and  $a_v$  is placed on  $y$ . After that, we can rotate the left cycle until  $a_u$  arrives at  $x$ . This is possible, because  $a_u$  never leaves the left cycle.

If  $a_v$  arrives on nodes not belonging to the right cycle, we rotate the left cycle. When  $a_v$  arrives at  $x$ , we rotate right and then we rotate left until  $a_u$  arrives again at  $x$ .  $\square$

### 3-Cycles

The construction of 3-cycles will be shown by a case analysis over the possible forms of two connected cycles. By Proposition 6, we know that every strongly connected non-trivial digraph that is not a partially bidirectional cycle contains a subgraph as shown in Figure 6.

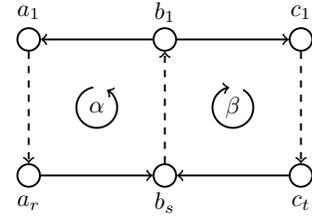


Figure 6: Strongly connected component consisting of at least two cycles inducing two permutations

We characterize such connected cycles by the three parameters  $(r, s, t)$  and will talk about *cycle pairs of type*  $(r, s, t)$ , assuming wlg.  $r \leq t$ . Below, we will show that for almost all cycle pairs one can construct a 3-cycle, save for cycle pairs of type  $(2, 2, 2)$  and  $(1, 3, 2)$ . These are the directed counterparts of Kornhauser et al.'s (1984)  $T_0$ - and Wilson's (1974)  $\theta_0$ -graph. We will therefore call such cycle pairs  $T_0$ -pairs.

**Lemma 11.** *Each transitive permutation group rotation-induced by a cycle pair that is not a  $T_0$ -pair contains a polynomially expressible 3-cycle.*

*Proof.* The 3-cycles will be constructed from  $\alpha = (a_1 \dots a_r b_s \dots b_1)$  and  $\beta = (c_1 \dots c_t b_s \dots b_1)$ . We prove the claim by case analysis over the parameters  $(r, s, t)$  (see Fig. 6).

- $(0, -, -)$ : This implies by Proposition 6 that  $s \geq 3$  and  $t \geq 1$  and we have  $\beta \alpha^{-1} \beta^{-1} \alpha = (b_s c_t b_1)$  as a 3-cycle.
- $(\geq 1, 1, -)$ : In this case, the same expression delivers a slightly different 3-cycle:  $\beta \alpha^{-1} \beta^{-1} \alpha = (b_1 a_1 c_t)$ .
- $(1, 2, -)$ :  $\alpha$  is a 3-cycle.
- $(1, \geq 3, 1)$ :  $\alpha^{-1} \beta = (b_s a_1 c_1)$  is the desired 3-cycle.
- $(1, 3, 2)$ : This is a  $T_0$ -pair, so there is nothing to prove here. It can be shown by exhaustive enumeration that the rotation-induced permutation group does not contain 3-cycles.
- $(1, 3, \geq 3)$ :  $\beta \alpha^{-1} \beta^{-1} \alpha = (b_s c_t)(b_1 a_1)$ . Consider now  $\chi = \beta^2 (\alpha^{-1} \beta)^2 \beta^{-2}$ . This permutation fixes  $b_s$  and  $c_t$  and moves  $c_{t-2}$  to  $a_1$  and  $a_1$  to  $b_1$  while also moving other things around. This means:

$$\begin{aligned} (\beta \alpha^{-1} \beta^{-1} \alpha)^{\chi^{-1}} &= \chi \beta \alpha^{-1} \beta^{-1} \alpha \chi^{-1} \\ &= \chi (b_s c_t) (b_1 a_1) \chi^{-1} \\ &= (b_s c_t) (a_1 c_{t-2}). \end{aligned}$$

Composing the result with the original permutation is now what results in a 3-cycle.<sup>5</sup> That is,  $\lambda = (\beta \alpha^{-1} \beta^{-1} \alpha)^{\epsilon + \chi^{-1}}$  is the permutation, we looked for:

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda &= (\beta \alpha^{-1} \beta^{-1} \alpha)^{\epsilon + \chi^{-1}} \\ &= ((b_s c_t) (b_1 a_1)) \circ ((b_s c_t) (b_1 a_1))^{\chi^{-1}} \\ &= ((b_s c_t) (b_1 a_1)) \circ ((b_s c_t) (a_1 c_{t-2})) \\ &= (b_1 c_{t-2} a_1). \end{aligned}$$

<sup>5</sup>This construction is similar to one used by Kornhauser (1984) in the proof of Theorem 1 for  $T_2$ -graphs.

(1,  $\geq 4$ ,  $\geq 2$ ): In this case,  $\xi = (\alpha \beta^{-1} \alpha^{-1} \beta)^{\beta(\epsilon+\alpha^{-2})}$  is the claimed 3-cycle:<sup>6</sup>

$$\begin{aligned}\xi &= (\alpha \beta^{-1} \alpha^{-1} \beta)^{\beta(\epsilon+\alpha^{-2})} \\ &= ((b_s a_r)(b_1 c_1))^{\beta(\epsilon+\alpha^{-2})} \\ &= ((b_{s-1} a_r)(c_1 c_2))^{\epsilon+\alpha^{-2}} \\ &= ((b_{s-1} a_r)(c_1 c_2)) \circ ((b_{s-1} a_r)(c_1 c_2))^{\alpha^{-2}} \\ &= ((b_{s-1} a_r)(c_1 c_2)) \circ ((b_2 a_r)(c_1 c_2)) \\ &= (b_{s-1} b_2 a_r).\end{aligned}$$

(2, 2, 2): This is the other case that is excluded in the claim and the same comment as in case (1, 3, 2) applies.

(2,  $\geq 3$ , 2): For this case, the sought 3-cycle is  $\zeta = (\beta \alpha^{-1} \beta^{-1} \alpha)^{\alpha(\epsilon+\beta^{-2})}$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\zeta &= (\beta \alpha^{-1} \beta^{-1} \alpha)^{\alpha(\epsilon+\beta^{-2})} \\ &= ((b_s c_t)(a_1 b_1))^{\alpha(\epsilon+\beta^{-2})} \\ &= ((b_{s-1} c_t)(a_1 a_2))^{\epsilon+\beta^{-2}} \\ &= ((b_{s-1} c_t)(a_1 a_2)) \circ ((b_{s-1} c_t)(a_1 a_2))^{\beta^{-2}} \\ &= ((b_{s-1} c_t)(a_1 a_2)) \circ ((b_1 c_t)(a_1 a_2)) \\ &= (b_{s-1} b_1 c_t).\end{aligned}$$

( $\geq 2$ ,  $\geq 2$ ,  $\geq 3$ ): Interestingly, the above product of basic permutations works for the general case, when a cycle pair is “large enough,” as well. Because of the different structure of the cycle pairs, the result is slightly different, though (differences are underlined>):

$$\begin{aligned}\zeta &= (\beta \alpha^{-1} \beta^{-1} \alpha)^{\alpha(\epsilon+\beta^{-2})} \\ &= ((b_s c_t)(a_1 b_1))^{\alpha(\epsilon+\beta^{-2})} \\ &= ((b_{s-1} c_t)(a_1 a_2))^{\epsilon+\beta^{-2}} \\ &= ((b_{s-1} c_t)(a_1 a_2)) \circ ((b_{s-1} c_t)(a_1 a_2))^{\beta^{-2}} \\ &= ((b_{s-1} c_t)(a_1 a_2)) \circ ((\underline{c_{t-2} c_t})(a_1 a_2)) \\ &= (b_{s-1} \underline{c_{t-2} c_t}).\end{aligned}$$

This covers all possible cases. Note that when taking  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  as generators, then the inverses  $\alpha^{-1}$  and  $\beta^{-1}$  can be expressed by linearly many products. Since the expressions for all cases have constant length, in all cases the 3-cycles are linearly expressible. So, the claim holds.  $\square$

In order to be able to do away with  $T_0$ -pairs, we will assume that our digraphs contain at least seven nodes. For all smaller digraphs, the diameter of the rotation-induced permutation group is constant. One only has then to show that strongly connected digraphs with seven or more nodes admit for the generation of a 3-cycle.

**Lemma 12.** *Each transitive permutation group rotation-induced by a strongly connected digraph with at least 7 nodes that is not a partially bidirectional cycle contains a polynomially expressible 3-cycle.*

<sup>6</sup>This construction of a permutation as well as the ones for the cases further down are similar to one that has been used in a similar context by Bachor et al. (2023).

*Proof.* By Lemma 11, it is enough to prove the claim for digraphs that contain a  $T_0$ -pair. In order to do so, it is sufficient to analyze all one ear extensions of  $T_0$ -pairs. We first need to check whether a new cycle pair is created that is not a  $T_0$ -pair, in which case Lemma 11 is applicable. If the newly created cycle pairs are all  $T_0$ -pairs, one has to demonstrate that by the addition of the additional ear a new permutation is added that can be used to create a 3-cycle.

Because the longest ear in  $T_0$ -pairs has a length of 2, we consider ears up to length 2. Adding a longer ear would result in a pair of type  $(-, -, \geq 3)$ , which admits a 3-cycle according to Lemma 11. Since the  $T_0$ -pairs contain six nodes each, there are two different  $T_0$  pairs, and we consider ears of length one and two, we need to analyze  $6^2 \times 2 \times 2 = 144$  cases. This has been done using a *SageMath* (The Sage Developers 2022) script, which is listed in the appendix. This script identified three non-isomorphic extensions of the (1, 3, 2)- and (2, 2, 2)-type cycle pairs that contain only  $T_0$ -pairs as cycle pairs. These are shown in Figure 7.

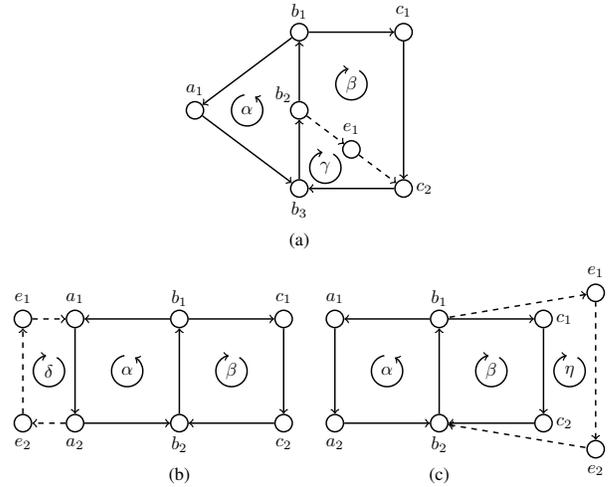


Figure 7: Extensions of  $T_0$ -pairs containing only  $T_0$ -pairs

It is now an easy exercise to identify 3-cycles for these cases:

- (a):  $\beta \alpha \beta^{-1} \gamma^{-1}$ ,
- (b):  $\beta^{-1} \delta^{-1} \alpha^{-1} \beta^2 \delta^{-1} \alpha^{-1} \delta^{-1}$ ,
- (c):  $\alpha \beta \eta \alpha^{-1} \beta^{-1} \eta^{-1}$ .

So, the claim holds for all cases.  $\square$

The above results enable us now to prove the claim that the rotation-induced permutation groups have a polynomial diameter.

**Lemma 13.** *Each transitive permutation group rotation-induced by a strongly connected digraph has a polynomial diameter.*

*Proof.* We prove the claim by case analysis. Let  $n$  be the number of nodes.

1.  $n < 7$ : There exist only finitely many permutation groups rotation-induced by such graphs. The diameter is therefore  $O(1)$  in this case.
2.  $n \geq 7$ :
  - (a) *The digraph is a partially bidirectional cycle of  $n$  nodes*: If rotations of size 2 are disallowed, then each possible permutation can be expressed by at most  $O(n)$  compositions of the permutation corresponding to the rotation of all agents by one place. If rotations of size 2 are permitted and the cycle has at least one backward-pointing arc, the rotation-induced group is  $S_n$  and any cyclic order is achievable using  $O(n^2)$  swaps and rotations on the cycle, similar to the way bubble sort works.
  - (b) *The digraph is a strongly connected digraph that is not a partially bidirectional cycle*: For this case, we use Theorem 7, i.e., it is enough to show that a permutation group is 2-transitive and contains a polynomially expressible 3-cycle. By Proposition 6, we know that the digraph contains a cycle pair. Now, 2-transitivity follows from Lemma 10. The existence of a polynomially expressible 3-cycle follows from Lemma 12. So, in this case, the claim holds as well.

This covers all possible cases, so the claim holds.  $\square$

With that, another partial result on the small solution hypothesis follows.

**Theorem 14.** *The Small Solution Hypothesis for diMAPF on strongly connected digraphs is true, provided only rotations are allowed.*

*Proof.* Decompose the graph into its transitive components, i.e., the components on which the rotation-induced permutation group is transitive. The only way to solve such an instance is to solve the instance for each transitive component in isolation and afterward combine the result—if possible. Each transitive component has a polynomial solution because by Lemma 13 each rotation-induced group has polynomial diameter, so the combined solution will be polynomial.  $\square$

## DiMAPF: The General Case

Finally, we will consider the case that simple moves as well as rotations are permitted. In order to be able to apply permutation group theory, we will initially restrict ourselves to diMAPF instances on strongly connected digraphs  $\langle D, R, I, T \rangle$  such that the set of occupied nodes is identical in the initial and the goal state, i.e.,  $I(R) = T(R)$ , which can be viewed as permutations on the set of nodes  $V$ . This restriction is non-essential since one can polynomially transform a general diMAPF instance to such a restricted instance, as shown in Corollary 16 below.

**Lemma 15.** *Given a diMAPF instance  $\langle D, R, I, T \rangle$ , with  $D$  a strongly connected digraph, an instance  $\langle D, R, I, T' \rangle$  can be computed in polynomial time such that  $I(R) = T'(R)$ , and  $\langle D, R, I, T' \rangle$  and  $\langle D, R, T', T \rangle$  are both solvable using plans of polynomial length.*

*Proof.* In order to construct  $\langle D, R, I, T' \rangle$ , generate an arbitrary mapping from blanks in  $T$ , the *source nodes*, to blanks in  $I$ , the *target nodes*. Then “move” the blanks from the source nodes to the target nodes (against the direction of the arcs) by moving the appropriate agents. This is always possible because  $D$  is strongly connected.

The new configuration is  $T'$  and clearly  $T'(R) = I(R)$ . Further,  $T'$  is obviously reachable from  $T$  in at most  $O(n^2)$  simple moves,  $n$  being the number of nodes.

Reaching  $T$  from  $T'$  is possible by undoing each movement of a blank in the opposite order. Undoing such a movement can be done by applying Proposition 3 iteratively resulting in  $O(n^4)$  simple moves.  $\square$

Since  $T$  is reachable from  $T'$  and vice versa using only polynomial many steps, the next corollary follows immediately.

**Corollary 16.** *Let  $\langle D, R, I, T \rangle$  and  $\langle D, R, I, T' \rangle$  be as in Lemma 15. Then  $\langle D, R, I, T \rangle$  is solvable with a polynomial plan if and only if  $\langle D, R, I, T' \rangle$  is solvable with a polynomial plan.*

As in the previous section, when only rotations were permitted, we will again talk about *induced permutation groups*, however, now they are induced by simple moves as well as rotations. Again, we will only consider transitive components of strongly connected digraphs, i.e., components that induce a transitive group.

**Lemma 17.** *Each transitive permutation group induced by a strongly connected digraph  $D$  (using rotations and simple moves) has a polynomial diameter.*

*Proof.* We make the assumptions that we have at least one blank—because otherwise Lemma 13 applies—and that the digraph has at least 7 nodes—since smaller groups have obviously a diameter of  $O(1)$ .

Assuming that rotations on cycles with only 2 nodes are permitted or that the graph does not contain such cycles, we reduce this problem to the case where only rotations are allowed.

If all cycles have odd length, then using Lemma 15, move one blank to a node that is a non-articulation node. Such a node must exist. Make sure that this blank will always be blank after emulating rotations on not fully occupied cycles. This will not destroy transitivity, and it effectively introduces at least one rotation of even length (corresponding to an odd permutation). Consider now all remaining blanks as “virtual agents.” Now each possible synchronous rotation on a cycle containing such virtual agents or the fixed blank can be emulated by a sequence of simple moves on this cycle. Applying Lemmas 12 and 10 gives us together with Theorem 7 a polynomial diameter. With the presence of an odd permutation and Lemma 8, the induced group must be symmetric, i.e., the instance is solvable for all  $\langle I, T \rangle$  pairs.

Let us now assume that rotations on cycles with 2 nodes are not permitted, and that the graph contains such cycles. If the underlying graph  $\mathcal{G}(D)$  is a tree, then rotations are impossible, and simple moves alone are enough, i.e., we can rely on Theorem 2 by Kornhauser et al. (1984). Otherwise,

the underlying graph is separable and contains strongly connected components inducing a tree-like structure. One can then show  $k$ -transitivity ( $k$  being the number of agents) as Kornhauser et al. (1984, Section 2.3.1.1) did, which implies that the induced group is symmetric and has a polynomial diameter.

This means the claim follows in all possible cases.  $\square$

This implies that the *Small Solution Hypothesis* is true for all possible combinations of movements.

**Theorem 18.** *The Small Solution Hypothesis for diMAPF on strongly connected digraphs is true regardless of whether simple moves or rotations are allowed.*

*Proof.* If only simple moves are possible, Theorem 5 applies. If only synchronous rotations are possible, the claim follows from Theorem 14. In case, simple moves and rotations are possible, the claim follows from Lemma 17 and the same arguments about combining the solutions of transitive components as used in the proof of Theorem 14.  $\square$

As mentioned above, this result enables us to finally settle the question of the computational complexity of diMAPF. Using Theorem 4 from the paper establishing NP-hardness of diMAPF (Nebel 2020), the next Theorem is immediate.

**Theorem 19.** *DiMAPF is NP-complete, even when synchronous rotations are possible.*

## Conclusion and Outlook

This paper provides an answer to an open question about the computational complexity of the multi-agent pathfinding problem on directed graphs. Together with the results from an earlier paper (Nebel 2020), we can conclude that diMAPF is NP-complete, even when synchronous rotations are permitted.

While the result might have only a limited impact on practical applications, it nevertheless provides some surprising insights. First, it shows that if only simple moves are permitted, then the inverse of such a move can be polynomially synthesized, meaning that agents can move against the direction of an arc with only polynomial overhead. This is something that should have been obvious to everybody, but apparently was missed. Second, it shows that permutation group theory is applicable to the analysis of diMAPF, something that was not recognized previously (Botea, Bonusi, and Surynek 2018). As it turned out, there are quite a number of differences to the undirected case, though, e.g., Kornhauser et al.'s (1984) Lemma 1 is not valid in the directed case and there are two counterparts to the  $T_0$ -graph. Third, although only implicitly, the results show that the special case of diMAPF on strongly connected digraphs is a polynomial-time problem. One needs to identify the transitive components, though, which although not necessarily straight-forward (de Wilde, ter Mors, and Witteveen 2014, Section 3.1), is always a polynomial problem. Alternatively, one might be able to adapt the feasibility check by Auletta et al. (1999). Fourth, this result provides an answer to a question about the generalization of the *robot movement problem* (Papadimitriou et al. 1994) to directed graphs with a variable

number of robots (Wu and Grumbach 2010). For a variable number of mobile obstacles and mobile robots, the problem is NP-complete in the general case. For strongly connected digraphs, the above mentioned polynomiality of diMAPF on strongly connected graphs carries over to the robot movement problem.

## SageMath Script for the Proof of Lemma 12<sup>7</sup>

```
def shared(c1, c2):
    return len(set(c1) & set(c2))
def ptype(c1, c2):
    if len(c1) > len(c2): c1,c2 = c2,c1
    if c1 != c2 and shared(c1,c2) > 0:
        return (len(c1)-shared(c1,c2)-1,
                shared(c1,c2),
                len(c2)-shared(c1,c2)-1)
def t0pairs(dig):
    for c1 in dig.all_simple_cycles():
        for c2 in dig.all_simple_cycles():
            if ptype(c1,c2) not in \
                [(2,2,2), (1,3,2), None]: return
    return True
t0a={"a1":["b3"],"b3":["b2"],"b2":["b1"],
     "b1":["a1","c1"],"c1":["c2"],"c2":["b3"]}
t0b={"a1":["a2"],"a2":["b2"], "b2":["b1"],
     "b1":["a1","c1"],"c1":["c2"],"c2":["b2"]}
ears = [{"e1"}, {"e1", "e2"}]
tested = []
for g, p in ((t0a, (1,3,2)), (t0b, (2,2,2))):
    for h in g.keys():
        for t in g.keys():
            for e in ears:
                t0 = DiGraph(g)
                t0.add_path([h]+e+[t])
                if all([not t0.is_isomorphic(d) \
                        for d in tested]):
                    tested += [t0]
                    if t0pairs(t0): print(p, [h]+e+[t])
```

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<sup>7</sup>You find this SageMath script and others related to this paper at <https://github.com/BernhardNebel/small-solution-hypothesis>.

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