

Swarm SLAM: challenges and perspectives

Miquel Kegeleirs¹, Giorgio Grisetti² and Mauro Birattari^{1,*}

¹IRIDIA, Université Libre de Bruxelles, Brussels, Belgium

²DIAG, Sapienza Università di Roma, Rome, Italy

Correspondence*:

Mauro Birattari

mbiro@ulb.ac.be

2 ABSTRACT

3 A robot swarm is a decentralized system characterized by locality of sensing and communication,
4 self-organization, and redundancy. These characteristics allow robot swarms to achieve scalability,
5 flexibility and fault tolerance, properties that are especially valuable in the context of simultaneous
6 localization and mapping (SLAM), specifically in unknown environments that evolve over time. So
7 far, research in SLAM has mainly focused on single- and centralized multi-robot systems—i.e.,
8 non-swarm systems. While these systems can produce accurate maps, they are typically not
9 scalable, cannot easily adapt to unexpected changes in the environment, and are prone to failure
10 in hostile environments. Swarm SLAM is a promising approach to SLAM as it could leverage the
11 decentralized nature of a robot swarm and achieve scalable, flexible and fault-tolerant exploration
12 and mapping. However, at the moment of writing, swarm SLAM is a rather novel idea and the
13 field lacks definitions, frameworks, and results. In this work, we present the concept of swarm
14 SLAM and its constraints, both from a technical and an economical point of view. In particular, we
15 highlight the main challenges of swarm SLAM for gathering, sharing, and retrieving information.
16 We also discuss the strengths and weaknesses of this approach against traditional multi-robot
17 SLAM. We believe that swarm SLAM will be particularly useful to produce abstract maps such as
18 topological or simple semantic maps and to operate under time or cost constraints.

19 **Keywords:** swarm robotics, SLAM, distributed systems, mapping, exploration schemes, localization

1 INTRODUCTION

20 A robot swarm is a decentralized system that can collectively accomplish missions that a single robot could
21 not accomplish alone. Locality of sensing and communication, self-organization, and redundancy enable
22 desirable properties such as scalability, flexibility, and fault tolerance (Dorigo et al., 2014; Brambilla et al.,
23 2013) that make a robot swarm the ideal candidate to perform missions in large unknown environments in
24 which the risk that individual robots fail or are lost is high. In particular, a robot swarm could autonomously
25 perform simultaneous localization and mapping (SLAM) by using self-organized exploration schemes to
26 navigate in hazardous dynamic environments. Yet, no well-defined methodology exists for performing
27 SLAM with a robot swarm.

28 SLAM has been largely studied (Durrant-Whyte and Bailey, 2006) and most of the existing methods are
29 generic, platform- and application-independent. They have been developed mostly for single robots that
30 are usually heavily equipped and expensive. This implies that any hardware failure seriously affects the
31 whole system. Also, they cannot be directly adapted to centralized multi-robot systems, even less to robot

32 swarms as they usually require external infrastructures to ensure inter-robot communication or localization
33 (a single point of failure that hinders fault tolerance).

34 Some important questions need to be addressed before effective swarm SLAM can be achieved: How
35 should the swarm explore the environment and gather information? How should the robots share the
36 information gathered? How should the information be retrieved and used to produce maps?

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

37 Mapping consists in creating a representation of the environment based on known robots poses and sensors
38 data. Nowadays, it is frequently hypothesized that poses are a priori unknown and need to be estimated.
39 Hence, the SLAM problem has been studied extensively in the past decades (Parker, 2000; Durrant-Whyte
40 and Bailey, 2006; Dissanayake et al., 2011). A large number of methods have been developed through the
41 years:

- 42 • for producing different types of maps—mostly occupancy grids (Elfes, 1989), but also
43 topological (Fraundorfer et al., 2007) and semantic maps (Wolf and Sukhatme, 2008);
- 44 • to operate in generic environments (Thrun, 1998; Bailey, 2002), but also in specific ones such as
45 underwater (White et al., 2010) or highly populated regions (Hähnel et al., 2003b);
- 46 • and using a wide variety of sensors such as cameras, LIDARs, and sonars (Kelly and Sukhatme, 2011;
47 Hähnel et al., 2003a; Elfes, 1987).

48 Popular methods include GMapping (Grisetti et al., 2007, 2005), HectorSLAM (Kohlbrecher and Meyer,
49 2012), and KartoSLAM (Gerkey, 2014), as they are widely used in ROS (Madhira et al., 2017). SLAM was
50 originally developed for single-robot systems and its adaptation to multi-robot systems is a more recent
51 research direction. Mapping with multi-robot systems has been addressed in the form of two sub-problems:
52 multi-robot SLAM (Thrun et al., 2000) and multi-robot exploration (Senthilkumar and Bharadwaj, 2012).

53 Multi-robot SLAM concerns the collective production of maps and estimation of robots' position. Saeedi
54 et al. (2016) provided a review of the many methods—based on the Extended Kalman Filter (EKF-SLAM),
55 particle filters (PF-SLAM), and map merging, among others—that have been proposed. The review
56 enumerates ten open issues related to multi-robot SLAM (e.g., uncertainty on robots' relative poses, loop
57 closure detection, out-of-sequence measurements, etc.) and evaluates widely used methods against these
58 issues. Most of these methods are only able to address satisfactorily one or two issues, the maximum being
59 four. A number of challenges remain: in particular, scaling the number of robots and the environment size
60 or operating in dynamic scenarios.

61 Multi-robot exploration concerns the collective exploration of the environment. Despite the importance
62 of exploration in SLAM, this task has been directly addressed more rarely than mapping and localization.
63 Indeed, most multi-robot SLAM methods rely on path planning rather than exploration schemes specifically
64 designed for multi-robot systems (Rone and Ben-Tzvi, 2013).

65 Multi-robot SLAM is still a growing field, and a number of research directions are yet to be explored.
66 Among them, swarm SLAM is an alternative, promising approach that takes advantage of the characteristics
67 of robot swarms. Although existing SLAM methods could be implemented in robot swarms, they would
68 introduce constraints that would affect the flexibility and the fault tolerance of the system: centralized
69 mechanisms or complex inter-robot interactions. The issues that one can encounter when adapting SLAM
70 to robot swarms are described by Barca and Sekercioglu (2013). Mapping is one of the research issues
71 mentioned by Mohan and Ponnambalam (2009) in their swarm robotics review but the authors do not

72 elaborate on it. A rather simple swarm SLAM demonstration and a distributed localization algorithm have
73 been reported by Rothermich et al. (2004). However, the authors do not explain how the individual maps
74 are merged nor the role of the designer in the definition of the robots' behavior. Moreover, the method
75 was not properly evaluated and some information about the experimental conditions is missing, e.g., the
76 duration of the experiments. It is only recently that Ramachandran et al. (2020) performed a real swarm
77 SLAM experiment, which evaluates the efficiency of the so-called Informed Correlated Lévy Walk—i.e., a
78 variant of random walk. Kegeleirs et al. (2019) performed another swarm SLAM experiment. A swarm of
79 10 e-puck robots had to map different bounded indoor environments using different exploration schemes.
80 Individual maps were produced by each e-puck using GMapping and were merged afterwards on a remote
81 computer. This current limitation of the approach prevents the realization of a fully decentralized method.

3 SWARM SLAM

82 A robot swarm presents characteristics that differentiate it from centralized multi-robot systems.

83 First, robots in a swarm only interact with close peers and the neighboring environment. Contrary to
84 most centralized multi-robot systems, they do not need global knowledge nor supervision to operate.
85 Hence, modifying the size of the swarm does not require reprogramming the individual robots nor have
86 major impact on the qualitative collective behavior. This allows robot swarms to achieve scalability—i.e.,
87 preserving performances as more agents join the system—as they can cope with any size of environment,
88 within a reasonably large range. However, a method only working on very expensive robots will not be
89 practically scalable in real-world application because of economical constraints that would likely prevent
90 the acquisition of a large swarm. Hence, swarm SLAM methods should be designed taking into account
91 the cost of the individual robots.

92 Then, as swarms are decentralized and self-organized, individual robots can dynamically allocate
93 themselves to different tasks and hence meet the requirements of specific environments and operating
94 conditions, even if these conditions evolve at operation time. This adaptation capability provides swarm
95 SLAM with flexibility. The use of pre-existing infrastructures or sources of global information is not to be
96 proscribed altogether, but the method should perform well regardless of the availability of these resources.
97 For example, a pre-existing, incomplete map could be given to the robots to help them meet a critical
98 time requirement, but the robots should be able to produce satisfactory results even if they start without
99 any information. Flexibility is also required regarding the robotics platform: if a swarm SLAM method
100 only works with a very specialized hardware configuration, its flexibility is compromised. Indeed, any
101 environment or operating condition that hinder this configuration to operate would prevent the adoption of
102 the method. Also, implementing a specialized configuration on many robots might increase the required
103 amount of resources to an extent that would prevent any realistic large-scale application

104 Finally, a robot swarm is characterized by high redundancy resulting from the large number of robots
105 composing it. Redundancy, together with the absence of centralized control, prevents robot swarms from
106 having a single point of failure—i.e., a component that, if unexpectedly missing or failing, prevents correct
107 operation. Hence, a swarm SLAM method can achieve fault tolerance as the swarm can cope with the loss
108 or failure of some robots (and also with noise, thanks to redundancy of measurements). This also requires
109 that any equipment entirely depending on uncontrollable conditions should not be essential to succeed. For
110 example, robots can use Wi-Fi to transmit information only if they can make use of a local communication
111 system, should the network become unavailable. Again, fault tolerance has economical implications: losing
112 robots should not have a significant impact on either the cost of the mission or its success. If the robots in

113 the swarm are not expendable, a method using these robots cannot be considered fault tolerant as it could
114 not be used in applications where losing robots is possible.

115 Considering these characteristics, we think that swarm SLAM is not meant to target the same applications
116 as multi-robot SLAM: a robot swarm is most useful in cases where the main constraint is time or cost rather
117 than high precision. Hence, they seem best suited to produce rough abstract maps, such as topological
118 or simple semantic maps, rather than precise metric maps. Indeed, when a precise map is required, one
119 usually has sufficient time to build it: a patrolling robot has sufficient time to build a complete map of the
120 building it is supposed to protect before beginning its protection task. On the contrary, when time (or cost)
121 is the main constraint, it is usually acceptable to produce approximate but informative maps: robots sent to
122 explore a disaster area and to locate survivors can quickly give to the rescuers an approximate path to the
123 victims location. Swarm SLAM methods also seem appropriate to map hazardous dynamic environments.
124 When the environment evolves over time, a single or a small group of robots needs time to update the map,
125 while a sufficiently large swarm could do it very quickly. For example, the underground exploration of
126 unknown caverns subject to landslides could benefit from the expendable nature and the coverage offered
127 by robot swarm. Also in this case, precision is not necessarily required, as the very fact that something
128 has changed in the environment is usually the most valuable information: a rough representation of this
129 modification could be sufficient.

4 CHALLENGES

130 Given the current state of the art, it is unrealistic to expect that a swarm SLAM method can perfectly
131 satisfy all the above constraints, at least in the short term. Scalability should be assessed more often,
132 but large-scale experiments are difficult to perform, even with inexpensive robots. Flexibility should be
133 achieved within reasonable constraints: a method that works indoor but not outdoor is not flexible, but a
134 method that requires chains to be added to the robots wheels to allow them to operate in the snow could
135 still be considered flexible. Fault tolerance is still an open issue in swarm SLAM as the most common way
136 to produce a map in a multi-robot system, map-merging, implies some sort of centralization and hence a
137 single point of failure. Moreover, if an heterogeneous swarm (i.e., a swarm composed of different robot
138 types) could by itself constitute a single point of failure (if one type of robots is completely lost/destroyed),
139 fault tolerance could still be achieved if the swarm comprises sufficiently many robots of each type.

140 In addition, metrics for scalability, flexibility and fault tolerance should be defined in order to evaluate
141 swarm SLAM methods. In practice, these notions depend on aspects, such as economic or scientific
142 hypotheses, whose quantification would be either difficult or based on arbitrary decisions—e.g., is a method
143 not working in outer space flexible enough? Therefore, the researchers should thoroughly discuss the
144 scalability (i.e., how large the operating environment can be?), the flexibility (i.e., how compliant the
145 system is to different operating conditions?), and the fault tolerance (i.e., how resistant the system is to
146 failure and perturbations?) of their methods, in particular in research involving real robots. Metrics specific
147 to the SLAM algorithm, the exploration capabilities, and swarm robotics should also be taken into account.
148 The SLAM algorithm should be categorized by its complexity, computation time and footprint as well as
149 its accuracy, in the form of relative pose error (RPE) and absolute trajectory error (ATE). The exploration
150 capabilities should be evaluated in terms of completeness and time to achieve. In the case of swarm SLAM,
151 it is expected that completeness is reached once a sufficient portion of the environment has been explored
152 and mapped, due to the inherent probabilistic nature of robot swarms. Finally, the complexity in the design
153 of the swarm control software as well as the communication efforts should also be taken into account. The
154 environmental conditions, the dynamics of this environment as well as the number of robots in the swarm
155 and their cost would be parameter of the evaluation.

156 Before a scalable, flexible and fault-tolerant swarm SLAM method can be achieved, some questions need
157 to be answered.

158 **How should the swarm explore the environment and gather information?**

159 Exploration is an essential part of SLAM. Path planning is usually the adopted strategy in multi-robot
160 SLAM, but other exploration schemes such as frontier-based exploration or potential fields have also
161 been studied (Rone and Ben-Tzvi, 2013). However, in swarm robotics, simpler exploration schemes are
162 generally used, in particular random walks (Dimidov et al., 2016; Kegeleirs et al., 2019). A straightforward
163 option would be to adapt path planning techniques to robot swarms. Yet, these techniques have been
164 designed for centralized systems and do not take advantage of the decentralized, collective behaviors of
165 robot swarms. We believe that a better option would be to take advantage of swarm-specific behaviors
166 such as aggregation/dispersion and flocking. Also, when working with robot swarms, one should consider
167 how the control software of the individual robots will be designed. Studies have shown that the automatic
168 off-line design of robot swarm can outperform manual design (Birattari et al., 2019, 2020) by building
169 control software from simple atomic behaviors. A recent work in automatic design has also shown that
170 exploration capabilities might come from the interaction between atomic behaviors and not only from the
171 exploration schemes embedded in these atomic behaviors (Spaey et al., 2021). Using simple, swarm-specific
172 exploration schemes would hence be beneficial to both the design process and the efficiency of a swarm
173 SLAM method.

174 Regarding the information to be gathered, the experiment of Kegeleirs et al. (2019) has shown that a
175 robot swarm can produce an occupancy grid of a closed indoor environment in simulation, but struggles
176 in reality because of poor-quality close-range proximity sensors. This means that, provided with the
177 right sensors, a robot swarm can potentially produce any kind of map, as shown by Allen et al. (2020).
178 However, swarm SLAM methods would benefit from low-cost, simple robots that will likely have imprecise
179 sensors. They should hence focus on more abstract maps that do not require high precision. A promising,
180 distributed approach for building semantic maps has been proposed by Rosinol et al. (2020), even though
181 its computational complexity might be too high for robot swarms.

182 Concerning localization, a distributed localization method is required, but little research exists on
183 this subject (Roumeliotis and Bekey, 2002; Prorok et al., 2012). Nonetheless, if high precision is not a
184 requirement, an approximation of each robot's location is acceptable and the localization issue becomes
185 easier to solve.

186 **How should the robots share the information gathered?**

187 When mapping with multiple robots, information must be shared at some point. The most common
188 approaches in multi-robot SLAM are raw and processed data sharing (Saeedi et al., 2016). With a robot
189 swarm, neither seems optimal. Sharing raw data from the sensors is straightforward, but it might scale
190 poorly as the huge amount of data could become impossible to transfer quickly enough. Sharing processed
191 data could solve this problem by reducing the amount of data to be shared, but most existing methods are
192 centralized and rely on external infrastructures such as GPS or remote computers to assemble the different
193 subsets of data.

194 A fault-tolerant option would be to use a mobile ad-hoc network such as the one proposed by Di Caro
195 et al. (2005), or the distributed approach presented by Majcherczyk et al. (2020). When mapping dynamic
196 environments, if the valuable information is only the location at which a modification happened, a very
197 schematic map could be sufficient and drastically reduce the amount of data to be shared. A few promising
198 candidates to achieve fully decentralized swarm SLAM are distributed mapping (Fox et al., 2006; Lajoie

199 et al., 2020; Ghosh et al., 2020) and graph-based mapping (Kümmerle et al., 2011)—the latter seems
200 particularly appropriate for building topological or semantic maps.

201 Some practical issues also need to be addressed. Reaching a consensus in a decentralized system requires
202 additional delays and data sharing, which cannot be neglected for cost- or time-constrained applications.
203 Yet, in swarm SLAM, this consensus is controlled by locality and effective divide-and-conquer strategies
204 could lessen the consensus cost (Yazdani et al., 2019). Also, practical scenarios might require a more sparse
205 distribution of the swarm that would limit inter-robot communication (Tarapore et al., 2020).

206 **How should the information be retrieved and used to produce maps?**

207 Retrieving the map without centralizing the information is an open issue in swarm SLAM. Indeed, the most
208 intuitive approach, map-merging, requires the individual maps to be gathered on a single system to merge
209 them, like in the experiment of Kegeleirs et al. (2019). A solution could be to merge the individual maps
210 in all the robots and then to retrieve the map from any of them, but this is unrealistic without the use of
211 an external infrastructure. Again, a mobile ad-hoc network could preserve the system’s fault tolerance. In
212 this case, we believe that the amount of data transiting by each robot for sharing an occupancy grid would
213 be too hefty in a large environment, causing important delays. It would also require significant storage
214 capacity on each robot, increasing the general cost. However, this solution might work with abstract maps
215 that require less data, especially when mapping dynamic environments.

216 Finally, one can consider a situation in which retrieving the map is not necessary. Indeed, retrieving the
217 map mostly makes sense if a human operator needs it, either for themselves or for transferring it to another
218 robotic system. While this is often the case, as the purpose of most SLAM methods is precisely to build
219 maps to be used by another party, one could consider maps that are only useful for the robots that built it.
220 For example, a cleaning robot builds maps whose sole purpose is to help the robot navigate the environment.
221 In swarm robotics, building a map could help the robots in their exploration and improve their performance.
222 This map does not need to be accessible to the human operators and can hence be shared, completely or
223 even partially, among the robots only.

5 CONCLUSION

224 In this paper, we have reviewed the current state of the art in multi-robot and swarm SLAM. Swarm SLAM
225 is currently an emerging research topic that lacks definitions, frameworks, and results. We have presented
226 swarm SLAM methods as alternatives to autonomously build a map in a decentralized, scalable, flexible
227 and fault-tolerant way. This implies a number of constraints that we have discussed, both in their technical
228 and economical implications. We have then sketched our vision of future applications of swarm SLAM
229 as well as the main challenges in this SLAM approach. We believe that swarm SLAM could play an
230 important role in time- or cost-constrained scenarios or for monitoring dynamic environments. However, to
231 fulfill these goals, swarm SLAM still needs appropriate, distributed data sharing strategies, both among
232 robots and between robots and human operators. Moreover, a thorough examination of swarm exploration
233 schemes could benefit to both swarm SLAM and swarm robotics in general.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

234 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial
235 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

236 The paper was drafted by MK and edited by all the authors. The research was directed by MB.

FUNDING

237 The project has received funding from the European Research Council (ERC) under the European Union's
238 Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme (grant agreement No 681872). Miquel Kegeleirs and
239 Mauro Birattari acknowledge support from the Belgian Fonds de la Recherche Scientifique – FNRS.

REFERENCES

- 240 Allen, J. M., Joyce, R., Millard, A. G., and Gray, I. (2020). The Pi-puck ecosystem: Hardware and software
241 support for the e-puck and e-puck2. In *Swarm Intelligence, ANTS 2020* (Cham, Switzerland: Springer),
242 vol. 12421 of *LNCS*, 243–255
- 243 Bailey, T. (2002). Mobile robot localisation and mapping in extensive outdoor environments [Ph. D.
244 dissertation]. *University of Sydney, Australia*
- 245 Barca, J. C. and Sekercioglu, Y. A. (2013). Swarm robotics reviewed. *Robotica* 31, 345–359
- 246 Birattari, M., Ligo, A., Bozhinoski, D., Brambilla, M., Francesca, G., Garattoni, L., et al. (2019).
247 Automatic off-line design of robot swarms: a manifesto. *Frontiers in Robotics and AI* 6, 59
- 248 Birattari, M., Ligo, A., and Hasselmann, K. (2020). Disentangling automatic and semi-automatic
249 approaches to the optimization-based design of control software for robot swarms. *Nature Machine*
250 *Intelligence* 2, 494–499
- 251 Brambilla, M., Ferrante, E., Birattari, M., and Dorigo, M. (2013). Swarm robotics: a review from the
252 swarm engineering perspective. *Swarm Intelligence* 7, 1–41
- 253 Di Caro, G., Ducatelle, F., and Gambardella, L. M. (2005). AntHocNet: an adaptive nature-inspired
254 algorithm for routing in mobile ad hoc networks. *European Transactions on Telecommunications* 16,
255 443–455
- 256 Dimidov, C., Oriolo, G., and Trianni, V. (2016). Random Walks in Swarm Robotics: An Experiment with
257 Kilobots. In *Swarm Intelligence* (Cham, Switzerland: Springer), vol. 9882. 185–196
- 258 Dissanayake, G., Huang, S., Wang, Z., and Ranasinghe, R. (2011). A review of recent developments in
259 simultaneous localization and mapping. In *Proceedings of the 6th International Conference on Industrial*
260 *and Information Systems* (Piscataway, NJ, USA: IEEE), 477–482
- 261 Dorigo, M., Birattari, M., and Brambilla, M. (2014). Swarm robotics. *Scholarpedia* 9, 1463
- 262 Durrant-Whyte, H. and Bailey, T. (2006). Simultaneous localization and mapping: part I. *IEEE Robotics &*
263 *Automation Magazine* 13, 99–110
- 264 Elfes, A. (1987). Sonar-based real-world mapping and navigation. *IEEE Journal on Robotics and*
265 *Automation* 3, 249–265
- 266 Elfes, A. (1989). Using occupancy grids for mobile robot perception and navigation. *Computer* 22, 46–57
- 267 Fox, D., Ko, J., Konolige, K., Limketkai, B., Schulz, D., and Stewart, B. (2006). Distributed multirobot
268 exploration and mapping. *Proceedings of the IEEE* 94, 1325–1339
- 269 Fraundorfer, F., Engels, C., and Nistér, D. (2007). Topological mapping, localization and navigation using
270 image collections. In *Proceedings 2007 IEEE/RSJ International Conference on Intelligent Robots and*
271 *Systems* (Piscataway, NJ, USA: IEEE), 3872–3877
- 272 [Dataset] Gerkey, B. (2014). KartoSLAM package for ROS. http://wiki.ros.org/slam_karto
- 273 Ghosh, R., Hsieh, C., Misailovic, S., and Mitra, S. (2020). Koord: a language for programming and
274 verifying distributed robotics application. *Proceedings of the ACM on Programming Languages* 4, 1–30
- 275 Grisetti, G., Stachniss, C., and Burgard, W. (2005). Improving grid-based slam with rao-blackwellized
276 particle filters by adaptive proposals and selective resampling. In *Proceedings of the IEEE International*
277 *Conference on Robotics and Automation (ICRA)* (Piscataway, NJ, USA: IEEE), 2432–2437

- 278 Grisetti, G., Stachniss, C., and Burgard, W. (2007). Improved techniques for grid mapping with rao-
279 blackwellized particle filters. *IEEE Transactions on Robotics* 23, 34–46
- 280 Hähnel, D., Burgard, W., Fox, D., and Thrun, S. (2003a). An efficient FastSLAM algorithm for generating
281 maps of large-scale cyclic environments from raw laser range measurements. In *Proceedings 2003*
282 *IEEE/RSJ International Conference on Intelligent Robots and Systems* (Piscataway, NJ, USA: IEEE),
283 vol. 1, 206–211
- 284 Hähnel, D., Schulz, D., and Burgard, W. (2003b). Mobile robot mapping in populated environments.
285 *Advanced Robotics* 17, 579–597
- 286 Kegeleirs, M., Garzón Ramos, D., and Birattari, M. (2019). Random walk exploration for swarm mapping.
287 In *Towards Autonomous Robotic Systems, TAROS 2019* (Cham, Switzerland: Springer), vol. 11650 of
288 *LNCS*, 211–222
- 289 Kelly, J. and Sukhatme, G. S. (2011). Visual-inertial sensor fusion: Localization, mapping and sensor-to-
290 sensor self-calibration. *The International Journal of Robotics Research* 30, 56–79
- 291 [Dataset] Kohlbrecher, S. and Meyer, J. (2012). HectorSLAM package for ROS. http://wiki.ros.org/hector_slam
- 292
- 293 Kümmerle, R., Grisetti, G., Strasdat, H., Konolige, K., and Burgard, W. (2011). G^2o : A general framework
294 for graph optimization. In *Proceedings of the IEEE International Conference on Robotics and Automation*
295 *(ICRA)* (Piscataway, NJ, USA: IEEE), 3607–3613
- 296 Lajoie, P.-Y., Ramtoula, B., Chang, Y., Carlone, L., and Beltrame, G. (2020). DOOR-SLAM: Distributed,
297 online, and outlier resilient SLAM for robotic teams. *IEEE Robotics and Automation Letters* 5,
298 1656–1663
- 299 Madhira, K., Patel, J., Kothari, D., Panchal, D., and Patel, D. (2017). A quantitative study of mapping and
300 localization algorithms on ROS based differential robot. In *Nirma University International Conference*
301 *on Engineering (NUiCONE)* (Piscataway, NJ, USA: IEEE), 1–5
- 302 Majcherczyk, N., Nallathambi, D. J., Antonelli, T., and Pinciroli, C. (2020). Distributed data storage and
303 fusion for collective perception in resource-limited mobile robot swarms
- 304 Mohan, Y. and Ponnambalam, S. (2009). An extensive review of research in swarm robotics. In *2009*
305 *World Congress on Nature & Biologically Inspired Computing (NaBIC)* (Piscataway, NJ, USA: IEEE),
306 140–145
- 307 Parker, L. E. (2000). Current state of the art in distributed autonomous mobile robotics. In *Distributed*
308 *Autonomous Robotic Systems 4* (Tokyo, Japan: Springer). 3–12
- 309 Prorok, A., Bahr, A., and Martinoli, A. (2012). Low-cost collaborative localization for large-scale multi-
310 robot systems. In *Proceedings of the IEEE International Conference on Robotics and Automation (ICRA)*
311 (Piscataway, NJ, USA: IEEE), 4236–4241
- 312 Ramachandran, R. K., Kakish, Z., and Berman, S. (2020). Information correlated Lévy walk exploration
313 and distributed mapping using a swarm of robots. *IEEE Transactions on Robotics* 36, 1422–1441
- 314 Rone, W. and Ben-Tzvi, P. (2013). Mapping, localization and motion planning in mobile multi-robotic
315 systems. *Robotica* 31, 1–23
- 316 Rosinol, A., Abate, M., Chang, Y., and Carlone, L. (2020). Kimera: an open-source library for real-time
317 metric-semantic localization and mapping. In *Proceedings of the IEEE International Conference on*
318 *Robotics and Automation (ICRA)* (Piscataway, NJ, USA: IEEE), 1689–1696
- 319 Rothermich, J. A., Ecemiş, M. İ., and Gaudiano, P. (2004). Distributed localization and mapping with a
320 robotic swarm. In *International Workshop on Swarm Robotics* (Berlin, Germany: Springer), 58–69
- 321 Roumeliotis, S. I. and Bekey, G. A. (2002). Distributed multirobot localization. *IEEE Transactions on*
322 *Robotics and Automation* 18, 781–795

- 323 Saeedi, S., Trentini, M., Seto, M., and Li, H. (2016). Multiple-robot simultaneous localization and mapping:
324 A review. *Journal of Field Robotics* 33, 3–46
- 325 Senthilkumar, K. and Bharadwaj, K. K. (2012). Multi-robot exploration and terrain coverage in an unknown
326 environment. *Robotics and Autonomous Systems* 60, 123–132
- 327 Spaey, G., Kegeleirs, M., Garzón Ramos, D., and Birattari, M. (2021). Evaluation of alternative exploration
328 schemes in the automatic modular design of robot swarms. In *Proceedings of the 31st Benelux Conference*
329 *on Artificial Intelligence (BNAIC/BENELEARN)* (Cham, Switzerland: Springer), vol. 1196 of *CCIS*,
330 18–33
- 331 Tarapore, D., Groß, R., and Zauner, K.-P. (2020). Sparse robot swarms: Moving swarms to real-world
332 applications. *Frontiers in Robotics and AI* 7, 83
- 333 Thrun, S. (1998). Learning metric-topological maps for indoor mobile robot navigation. *Artificial*
334 *Intelligence* 99, 21–71
- 335 Thrun, S., Burgard, W., and Fox, D. (2000). A real-time algorithm for mobile robot mapping with
336 applications to multi-robot and 3D mapping. In *Proceedings of the IEEE International Conference on*
337 *Robotics and Automation (ICRA)* (Piscataway, NJ, USA: IEEE), vol. 1, 321–328
- 338 White, C., Hiranandani, D., Olstad, C. S., Buhagiar, K., Gambin, T., and Clark, C. M. (2010). The Malta
339 cistern mapping project: Underwater robot mapping and localization within ancient tunnel systems.
340 *Journal of Field Robotics* 27, 399–411
- 341 Wolf, D. F. and Sukhatme, G. S. (2008). Semantic mapping using mobile robots. *IEEE Transactions on*
342 *Robotics* 24, 245–258
- 343 Yazdani, D., Omidvar, M. N., Branke, J., Nguyen, T. T., and Yao, X. (2019). Scaling up dynamic
344 optimization problems: a divide-and-conquer approach. *IEEE Transactions on Evolutionary Computation*
345 24, 1–15