

Self-Reconfiguring Modular Robotic Boats

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1 Self-Reconfiguring Modular Robotic Boats

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13

14 **ABSTRACT**

15 **Self-reconfigurable aquatic robots offer promising potential for a wide range of marine applications,**
16 **including building temporary infrastructure, environmental monitoring, and on-demand transpor-**
17 **tation. However, achieving autonomous water-based self-reconfiguration, even in two dimensions on**
18 **the water surface, remains challenging, due to complex nonlinear hydrodynamics, disturbances from**
19 **self-motion and neighboring robots, as well as external environmental factors. Here, we present the**
20 ***FloatForm* platform, a group of miniature modular robotic boats, capable of self-assembling into**
21 **physically connected structures, self-reconfiguring, and collectively traveling as larger assemblies via**
22 **a hybrid coordination framework. Each robot unit is equipped with onboard sensing, motion control,**
23 **and the ability to coordinate and physically latch with its neighbors. We demonstrate the feasibility**
24 **of parallel self-reconfiguration, where distributed controllers on each robot handle coordination**
25 **tasks such as aggregating into desired shapes and avoiding collisions, while a minimalist central plan-**
26 **ner oversees the overall success of each task and fixes imperfections. This work advances the design,**
27 **control, and coordination of modular robotic systems in aquatic environments, paving the way for**
28 **flexible, robust and scalable applications on the water.**

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33 INTRODUCTION

34 Modular self-reconfigurable robot (MSRR) systems¹⁻¹⁷ consist of multiple robot modules that can con-
35 nect and collaborate to form larger, adaptable robotic structures. A key feature of these systems is their
36 ability to self-reconfigure, allowing modules to rearrange their connections to create structures optimized
37 for specific tasks and environments^{18,19}. As the number of robots in an MSRR system increases, the com-
38 plexity of their interactions also grows. However, this complexity enables the systems to exhibit greater
39 versatility and robustness, allowing them to perform a wide range of tasks and effectively manage failures
40 of individual modules.

41 Recent advances have demonstrated a variety of successful implementations of MSRR systems^{18,20-29},
42 both on the ground and in the air. The Kilobot project demonstrated large-scale two-dimensional (2D) shape
43 self-assembly²⁰, using a distributed algorithm that leverages simple capabilities such as edge-following,
44 gradient formation, and localization. Roombots²¹⁻²³ demonstrated modular furniture that moves, self-assem-
45 bles, and self-reconfigures in 3D. The M-block project^{24,25} introduced a novel hardware system that uses
46 pulses of angular momentum and magnetic hinges to move modules and self-assemble 3D structures. In the
47 air, a group of flying robots, ModQuads, illustrated self-assembly and collective flight²⁷, while the terres-
48 trial SMORES-EP modular robots¹⁸ have shown the ability to complete high-level tasks by dynamically
49 reconfiguring to adapt to previously unknown environments.

50 By contrast, aquatic MSRR systems remain in their infancy despite offering unique potential for ocean
51 exploration, adaptive transportation, and dynamic marine infrastructure³⁰⁻³⁴. Such systems could form on-
52 demand floating platforms to support offshore operations, ranging from environmental response to adaptive
53 infrastructure (Fig. 1g -1h), and later disassemble or self-reconfigure to minimize ecological footprint and
54 enhance logistical efficiency. Analogous behaviors are observed in nature: red fire ants dynamically self-
55 assemble into floating rafts to survive seasonal flooding^{35,36}. Emulating this strategy, aquatic MSRR sys-
56 tems could autonomously form stable, cohesive structures to endure extreme maritime conditions. However,

57 deploying MSRR systems in aquatic environments introduces a distinct set of challenges. Self-reconfigu-
58 ration in open water requires real-time control over complex, nonlinear hydrodynamics, compounded by
59 persistent disturbances from self-induced motion, inter-module interactions, and external forces such as
60 waves, currents, and wind. These dynamic conditions can frequently disrupt control, coordination, and
61 alignment, demanding robust control architectures and fault-tolerant docking mechanisms. Overcoming
62 these challenges is essential to unlock the full potential of modular robotic systems in aquatic domains.

63 Several modular self-reconfigurable robotic (MSRR) systems have explored self-assembly in aquatic
64 environments, with early demonstrations highlighting the potential of robotic boats to autonomously form
65 floating platforms. These systems typically employed centralized frameworks for sequencing, trajectory
66 planning, and docking control, enabling coordinated behaviors such as sequential assembly or collective
67 swimming in underactuated robot lattices. Notable examples include floating platform self-assembly using
68 centralized planners^{32,33,37} and the Modboat project, which demonstrated centralized control for group lo-
69 comotion in a parallel lattice of aquatic modules³⁸. Despite these advances, existing aquatic MSRR systems
70 remain constrained by their reliance on fully centralized coordination. Such architectures are inherently
71 vulnerable to single-point failures, particularly in dynamic and uncertain aquatic environments where indi-
72 vidual module malfunctions or communication loss can cascade into system-wide deadlocks. Centralized
73 control also scales poorly, with computational burdens increasing rapidly with the number of units—posing
74 fundamental challenges for real-time responsiveness and robustness. Moreover, current systems lack the
75 capability for parallel assembly, a critical requirement for achieving rapid and adaptive configuration in the
76 face of environmental disturbances.

77 To overcome these limitations, we present *FloatForm*, a novel aquatic MSRR platform operating under
78 a hybrid control architecture that combines minimal centralization with predominantly distributed coordi-
79 nation. Each *FloatForm* module has onboard sensing, state estimation, control capabilities, and latching
80 mechanisms that facilitate autonomous assembly and reconfiguration. The architecture incorporates a light-
81 weight centralized planner for high-level tasks, such as correcting imperfect positions in shape formation,

82 while most coordination behaviors, including shape formation and collision avoidance, are governed by
83 distributed controllers. State information is exchanged with neighboring units through intercommunication.
84 Notably, self-assembly and self-reconfiguration are executed in a parallel and highly decentralized manner,
85 allowing all robots to continuously coordinate and adjust their states collectively. This hybrid framework,
86 which balances local autonomy with global oversight, markedly improves the scalability, robustness, and
87 real-world applicability of aquatic MSRR systems.

88 **RESULTS**

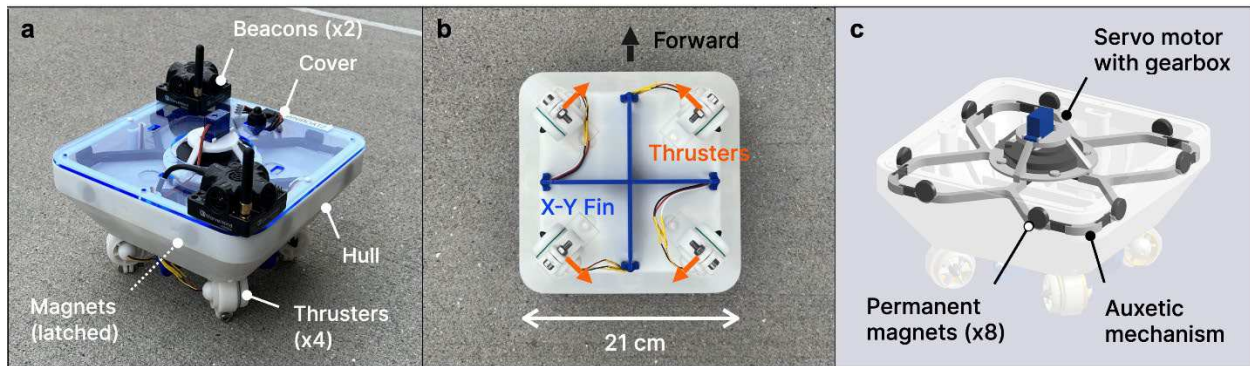
89 **Modular aquatic robot design with active latching and feedback control**

90 We have designed and fabricated a group of eight *FloatForm* robot boats, each measuring L (0.21 m)
91 \times W (0.21 m) \times H (0.14 m), as a platform for studying self-assembly and self-reconfiguration in the aquatic
92 domain. Each robot is an autonomous floating robot with onboard sensing, control, and actuators, giving
93 the ability to autonomously achieve a desired state in the presence of surrounding disturbances. A key
94 feature of each robot is its capability to latch to other units. Latching is particularly challenging in aquatic
95 settings due to the need for a broad working range to account for unpredictable disturbances. An overview
96 of the system and its potential applications is presented in Fig. 1.

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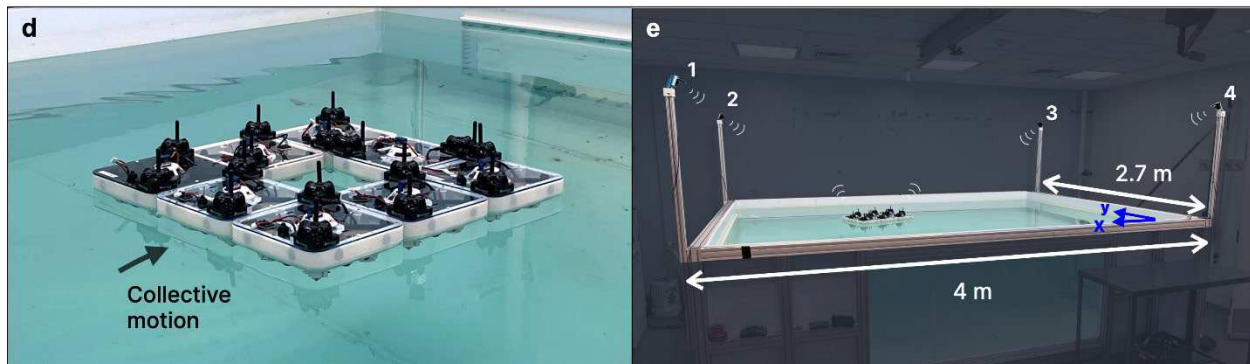
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FloatForm module



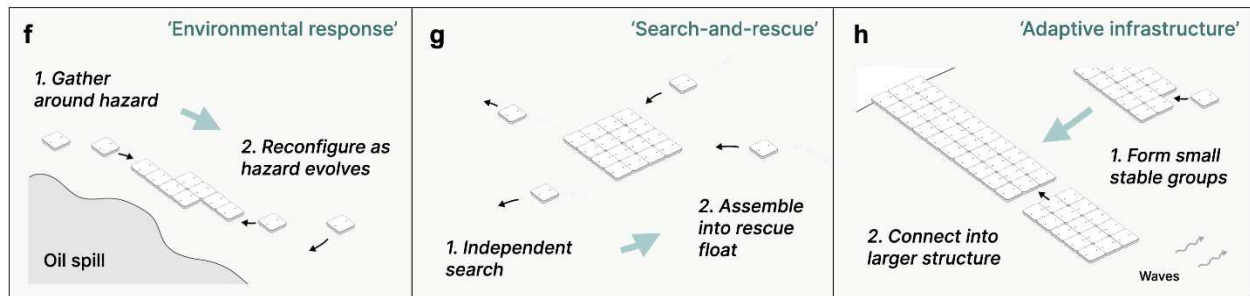
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Experimental setup



100

Scenarios



101

102 **Fig. 1. Modular *FloatForm* platform.** (a) An overview of a single *FloatForm* module, including a 3D-
103 printed hull, customized miniature thrusters, ultrasonic beacons, Inertial Measurement Unit (IMU), and an
104 enclosed magnetic latching system based around an origami-inspired mechanism. (b) Bottom view of a
105 single robot, highlighting the thruster arrangement and stabilizing 'cross' fin, to increase rotational inertia.
106 (c) The origami-inspired latching mechanism to actuate the permanent magnets. (d) Eight *FloatForm* mod-
107 ules after self-assembly, moving in formation. (e) Illustration of the experimental setup, featuring four fixed
108 ultrasonic beacons positioned at the corners of the test pool (dimensions: $4.0 \times 2.7 \times 1.2$ m); these fixed

109 beacons, analogous to GPS satellites, are elevated one meter above the water surface to ensure maximal
110 coverage. (f-h) potential applications of self-assembling and reconfiguring robot boat swarms: monitoring
111 and containing an environmental hazard; a search-and-rescue mission with boats searching independently
112 and coming back together to form a raft; building adaptive, resilient infrastructure in remote areas while
113 exposed to environmental disturbances like waves and currents.

114

115 The square footprint of the *FloatForm* robot (Fig. 1a), allows for flexible self-assembly into arbitrary
116 square lattices. High maneuverability is critical for effective control and latching during coordination. To
117 achieve this, four miniature thrusters are arranged in an “X” configuration (Fig. 1b, Supplementary Fig. 3),
118 allowing for omnidirectional motion, including both longitudinal and lateral translation, as well as on-the-
119 spot rotation (see Supplementary Video 1). Stability during dynamic maneuvers is enhanced by strategically
120 positioning internal components (like the battery) to maintain a low center of gravity and aligning these
121 with the center of buoyancy. To compensate for the inherently low rotational inertia of the robot, a set of
122 stabilizing fins (visible in the bottom view, Fig. 1b) is incorporated along the x and y axes. These fins in-
123 crease hydrodynamic drag, reducing rotational actuation sensitivity at near-zero speeds and improving con-
124 trol performance in aquatic environments.

125 To enable reliable self-assembly and self-reconfiguration on the water, each robot must be capable of
126 mechanically latching with neighboring boats. To achieve this, a fully enclosed magnetic latching system
127 was designed with the goal of reliably connecting with other boats even under disturbances. An origami-
128 inspired mechanism allows a single servo motor located in the center of the robot to simultaneously actuate
129 permanent magnets on all four sides of the robot (Fig 1c, Supplementary Fig. 1). Permanent magnets are
130 arranged by alternating polarity, with two magnets per side (Supplementary Fig. 1 and Supplementary Fig.
131 2a), ensuring boats latch reliably across 10-12 cm gaps, without the added weight or sustained power draw
132 of electromagnets. A custom 3D-printed gearbox is integrated, allowing the use of a simple lightweight

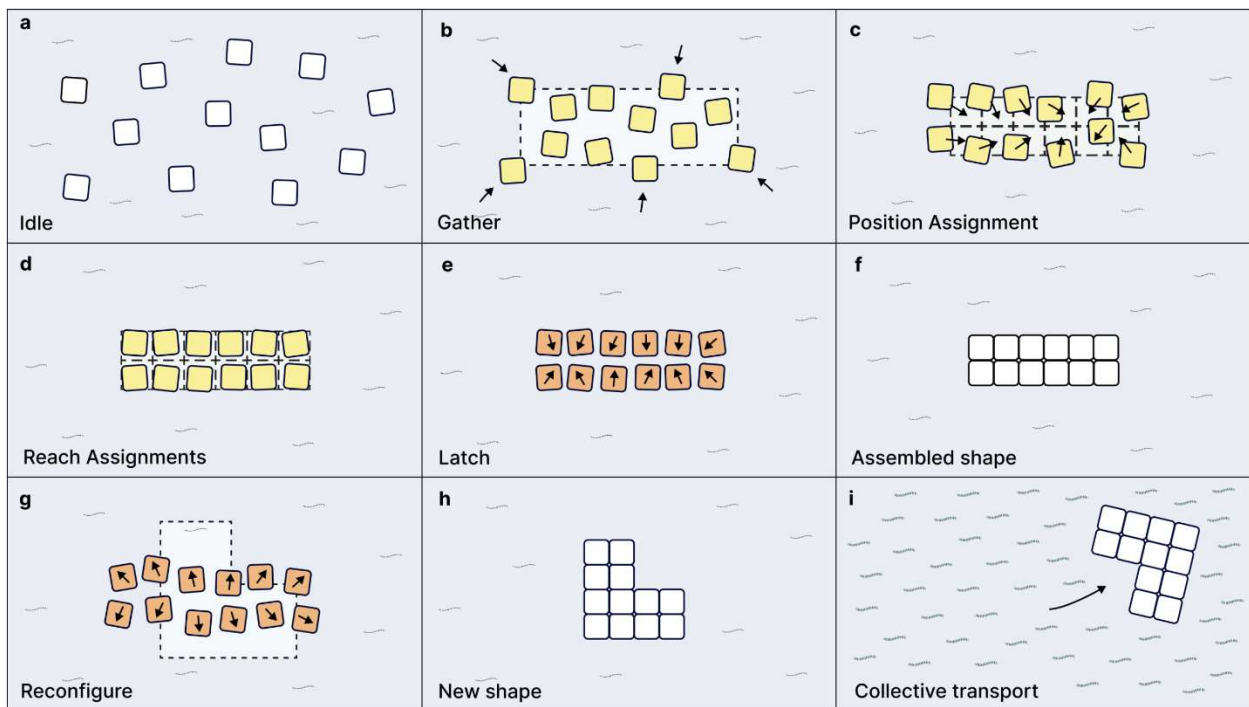
133 servo motor and adding sufficient mechanical inertia for the system to maintain either a latched or unlatched
134 state without any power draw (Supplementary Fig. 1 and Supplementary Fig. 2, Supplementary Video 2).

135 The *FloatForm* robots utilize off-the-shelf acoustic beacons for self-localization. Fig. 1e shows four
136 stationary ultrasonic beacons located at the corners of the test pool, providing fixed reference points (anal-
137 ogously to GPS satellites). Each robot is equipped with two mobile beacons, enabling precise inference of
138 position and heading (see Fig. 1a and Supplementary Fig. 4). Localization is achieved by estimating the
139 propagation delay of ultrasonic pulses relative to the stationary beacons (Time-Of-Flight), which is then
140 processed using a trilateration algorithm. To enhance accuracy and provide high-frequency state estimation,
141 a Kalman filter integrates the data from the beacons with inertial measurements from the onboard IMU,
142 yielding a refined estimate of the robot's pose, velocity, and acceleration.

143 The design of low-level motion controllers for the *FloatForm* modules is driven by the unique chal-
144 lenges of aquatic environments, including nonlinear hydrodynamics and disturbances arising from self-
145 motion or neighboring units. To address these challenges, each robot is equipped with a low-level feedback
146 controller running on an embedded computer. The controller regulates the reference heading angle and
147 ensures precise velocity control in surge and sway directions. The control architecture is based on a com-
148 bination of Proportional-Integral-Derivative (PID) control and feedback linearization, effectively compen-
149 sating for aspects of the robot's nonlinear dynamics and disturbances (see more details in Methods and
150 Supplementary Note 2).

151 The *FloatForm* hardware is designed with a strong focus on modularity, robust latching, onboard sens-
152 ing, and feedback control. A detailed overview of the hardware design and control strategies is provided in
153 the Methods section and Supplementary Materials. In this study, we showcase the capabilities of the *Float-*
154 *Form* system using a fleet of eight robotic units (Fig. 1d) that autonomously self-assemble and reconfigure
155 into various two-dimensional structures within a controlled freshwater tank measuring $4.0\text{ m} \times 2.7\text{ m} \times 1.2$
156 m (Fig. 1e). All two-dimensional trajectories are recorded for post-experimental analysis.

158 Seen as a collective, the *FloatForm* system is designed with three fundamental capabilities: (i) self-
 159 assembly, facilitating the parallel formation of physically connected structures; (ii) self-reconfiguration,
 160 enabling the swarm to disassemble and reassemble into new physically connected configurations in parallel;
 161 and (iii) collective transport, allowing the assembled swarm to navigate as a cohesive unit across the water.
 162 Figure 2 provides an overview of the three collective capabilities of the aquatic 2D MSRR system. The
 163 self-assembly process unfolds through the sequence illustrated in Fig. 2a–f. Self-reconfiguration, illustrated
 164 in Fig. 2g and h, consists of self-disassembly (Fig. 2g) followed by reassembly (analogous to Fig. 2a–f,
 165 omitted for brevity). These processes can be dynamically deployed to accommodate various operational
 166 demands. Collective transport allows the assembled shape to move together as a unified whole toward a
 167 specified target (Fig. 2i). Additional details of the self-reconfiguring algorithms are available in Methods
 168 and Supplementary Note 3.



169 **Key:** □ idle / assembled; ■ gather / assignment; ■ latch / unlatch; □ target shape.

170 **Fig. 2. Algorithmic steps towards self-assembly, self-reconfiguration, and collective transport in an**

171 **aquatic 2D MSRR system.** (a) *FloatForm* modules remain idle or perform independent tasks while await-
172 ing a shape command. (b) Upon receiving a new target shape, boats navigate toward the target configuration
173 using a shape-reference formation algorithm. (c) Once in proximity of the desired shape, discrete positions
174 are assigned via the Hungarian algorithm. (d) robots proceed to their designated positions using a position-
175 reference formation algorithm. (e) Magnetic latching systems are activated to secure connections between
176 neighboring units. (f) The structurally cohesive assembly. (g) A new shape command is received, the boats
177 disassemble, repeating steps a–f to reconfigure into a new target configuration. (h) Completion of the reas-
178 sembly process into the new shape. (i) The newly assembled structure moves collectively to a new destina-
179 tion.

180

181 Each *FloatForm* module operates with an identical code within the swarm. Initially, robots are ran-
182 domly distributed across the water. Robots determine their positions and orientations using onboard sensors
183 described earlier in this section (also see more details in Supplementary Note 1). To initiate self-assembly,
184 a target shape \mathcal{S} , defined by a set of vertices, is transmitted to all robots within the swarm. The initial target
185 shape is deliberately described as larger than the final desired configuration. The robots first gather and
186 align within this preliminary shape using a distributed shape-reference formation algorithm based on po-
187 tential field methods, incorporating attractive and repulsive forces. The attractive force guides the robots
188 toward the target region, while the repulsive force mitigates collisions between robots (see more details in
189 Methods). As most robots converge within the designated area, the shape progressively shrinks (Fig. 2b).
190 This gradual reduction prevents congestion and enables the collective to transition smoothly into a config-
191 uration close to the final structure.

192 After completing the initial shape formation, minor misalignments may remain. To refine the structure,
193 a centralized position assigner allocates new positions to the robots (Fig. 2c, Supplementary Note 3). Sub-
194 sequently, a distributed position-reference formation algorithm guides the robots toward their designated
195 positions within the defined shape (Fig. 2d, Supplementary Note 3). Once all robots have reached their

196 target locations, the magnetic latching mechanism engages, linking the robots into a rigid floating assembly
197 (Fig. 2e, f). Following self-assembly, the collective may autonomously reconfigure in response to new
198 shape commands issued by the task coordinator, or operate as a coherent robotic system capable of execut-
199 ing collective transport tasks. Upon activation of the self-reconfiguration process, the latching mechanisms
200 disengage, and the robots move away from their attached neighbors by increasing repulsive forces in po-
201 tential field methods (Fig. 2g). Once sufficiently dispersed, the robots reassemble into a new configuration
202 using the same hybrid coordination strategy (Fig. 2h). We demonstrate collective transport following self-
203 assembly (Fig. 2i). In this phase, each module is provided with center and orientation data of the goal shape,
204 after which a position-reference potential field algorithm calculates the attractive forces that determine the
205 reference velocity and heading needed to steer them to their assigned targets (see more details in Supple-
206 mentary Note 3).

207 We validated this approach through experiments with four (Supplementary Video 3) and eight *Float-*
208 *Form* modules (Fig. 3, Fig. 4, and Supplementary Video 4). As illustrated in Fig. 3, a group of eight robots
209 successfully executed self-assembly, self-reconfiguration, and coordinated movement toward the corner of
210 the tank. Each experiment required approximately 4–8 minutes. The corresponding trajectories of the robots
211 are depicted in Fig. 4, clearly delineating each coordination phase. Across 10 experimental trials, the system
212 achieved 90% and 70% success rates without human intervention in trials involving four and eight robots,
213 respectively.

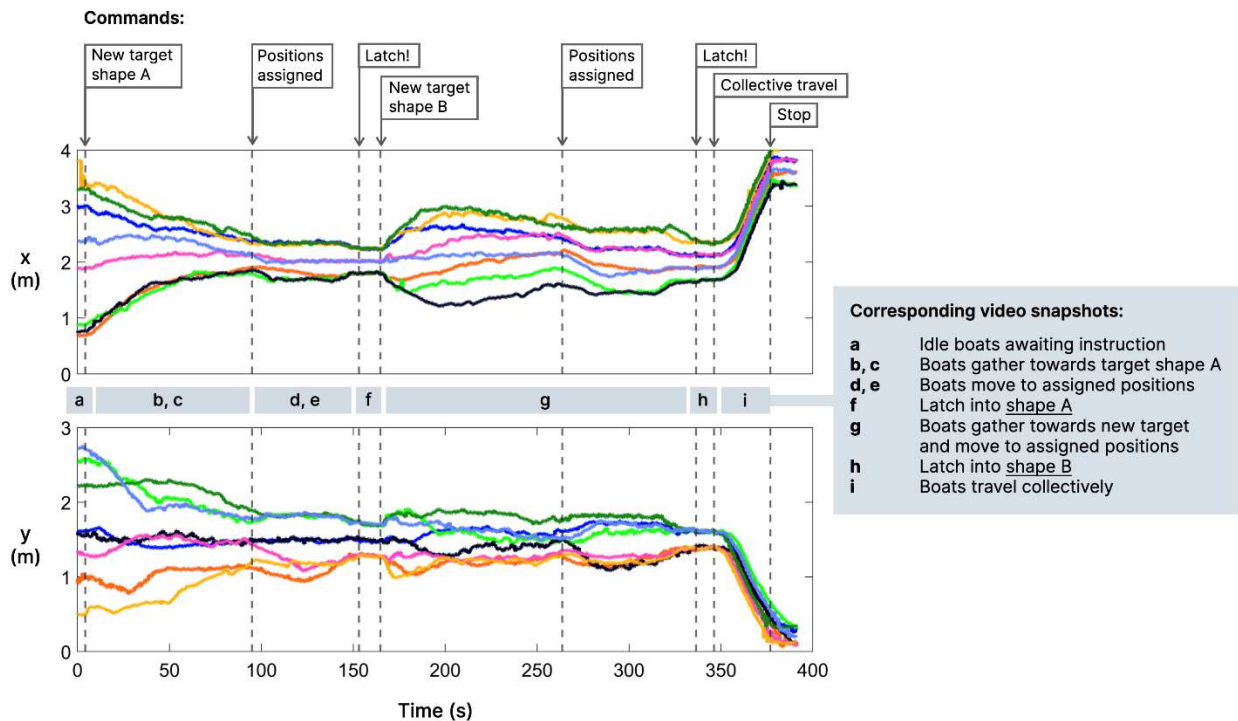


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215 **Fig. 3. Self-reconfiguration experiments with eight *FloatForm* modules.** (a) Idle robots awaiting a target
 216 shape command. (b)-(c) The robots begin gathering within the approximate boundary of a target shape,
 217 “A”. (d)-(e) Once the boats are within the boundary, discrete positions are assigned to each unit. (f) The
 218 boats then latch together to form a rigid structure. (g) A new target shape, “B”, is received: the boats de-
 219 latch and the process repeats, as they reposition within the boundaries of shape “B”, where discrete positions
 220 are reassigned, and the boats latch into the new configuration (h). (i) The newly formed structure maneuvers
 221 to the side of the pool.

222

223



224

225 **Fig. 4. *FloatForm* module trajectories during self-assembly and reconfiguration.** The X and Y trajec-
 226 tories of eight *FloatForm* robots during the self-reconfiguration experiments shown in Fig. 3 and Supple-
 227 mentary Video 4, high-level commands to the boats are annotated at the top.

228

229 DISCUSSION

230 Self-reconfiguring aquatic robots opens new avenues from rapidly deployable floating structures (e.g.,
 231 on-demand rafts and bridges) to scalable environmental monitoring and remediation tasks where adaptive
 232 spatial coverage is critical (e.g., in tracking algal blooms or responding to oil spills). Despite their potential,
 233 autonomous aquatic self-assembly and reconfiguration are challenged by complex, nonlinear hydrodynam-
 234 ics and persistent disturbances, demanding robust hardware and control platforms that support distributed
 235 autonomy and rapid, parallel coordination.

236 To address these challenges, we have introduced the *FloatForm* platform—a modular robotic system
237 designed to perform parallel, largely decentralized self-assembly and self-reconfiguration on the water.
238 *FloatForm* robots utilize a hybrid coordination framework as a strategy for robust robotic swarm behavior
239 on the water. With each *FloatForm* module equipped with its own onboard sensing and computation, reli-
240 ance on centralized control is minimized and individual robots can operate autonomously in response to
241 higher-level commands. This decentralized approach means that the system can be scaled to larger for-
242 mations without incurring significant communication overhead or computational complexity. Furthermore,
243 the distributed nature of the control architecture enhances fault tolerance: in the event of an individual robot
244 breaking down or losing communication, the swarm can dynamically reconfigure to maintain functionality.
245 In aquatic environments, where disturbances and partial failures are common, the presence of a minimal
246 high-level coordinator provides an effective means of correcting local imperfections and ensuring resili-
247 ence.

248 Our successful indoor demonstrations, supported by a hybrid control architecture and reliable latching
249 mechanism, establish a foundation for scaling up to real-world deployments. Looking ahead, we envision
250 collective aquatic robotic systems performing tasks across a broad range of maritime applications, including
251 forming temporary platforms for infrastructure inspection or maintenance. In oceanographic research, re-
252 configurable robot formations could enable adaptive sensor networks for studying migratory species or
253 monitoring environmental changes. In offshore logistics and emergency response, modular robotic teams
254 could function as reconfigurable docking stations or transport units for use in inaccessible areas. However,
255 several practical challenges must be addressed before real-world deployments are viable. Current limita-
256 tions include occasional failure modes such as collisions during latching or robots becoming trapped in
257 local minima during shape formation. These deadlocks are presently resolved using stochastic perturba-
258 tions, wherein robots ‘shake’ themselves free and retry latching. To enhance the reliability and efficiency
259 of shape formation control, future efforts will replace the existing potential-field heuristic with an optimi-
260 zation-based control barrier function (CBF) approach³⁹. This strategy is anticipated to provide stronger
261 convergence guarantees and minimize error-prone behaviors during formation. Moreover, when *FloatForm*

262 is broadly dispersed to perform monitoring or search tasks, each module will require more advanced motion
263 planning and control algorithms to ensure safe, robust navigation in realistic outdoor environments. We
264 propose leveraging learning-based control techniques, such as data-driven Model Predictive Control
265 (MPC)⁴⁰, which would allow robots to adapt in real time to changing conditions, obstacles, and noisy sen-
266 sory inputs. Furthermore, we have demonstrated that, once assembled, the *FloatForm* swarm can execute
267 coordinated movements as a single unit under calm conditions. However, maintaining stable collective
268 motion in the presence of disturbances and minimal inter-robot communication remains an open challenge³¹.

269 Additionally, open-water deployment will also require mechanical and sensing adaptation. Increasing
270 the robot size could improve hydrodynamic stability and enable a broader range of tasks, which in turn calls
271 for more robust latching systems capable of withstanding higher loads⁴¹. On the sensing side, replacing the
272 current acoustic indoor localization system with outdoor-capable technologies such as GPS, vision-based
273 tracking, or Doppler Velocity Logs will be essential. Robust onboard power and communication systems,
274 potentially incorporating solar charging and distributed networking, will also be critical for sustained mis-
275 sions in remote environments.

276 *FloatForm* draws some inspiration from biological systems such as fire ants, which dynamically self-
277 assemble into rafts and bridges to survive floods and cross gaps^{35,36}. These natural swarms achieve robust
278 collective behaviors through local rules and physical interactions, allowing the colony to adapt to complex,
279 unpredictable environments without centralized control. Similarly, our system demonstrates that through
280 minimal centralized coordination and largely distributed autonomy, robotic collectives can exhibit flexible
281 self-assembly and self-reconfiguration in aquatic environments. This perspective underscores the promise
282 of future aquatic swarm systems: resilient, reconfigurable, and capable of operating in the dynamic and
283 uncertain conditions of the real world.

284 METHODS

285 *FloatForm* Module Design

286 The *FloatForm* hardware was designed with ease of fabrication and programming in mind, making it
287 quick to assemble and conduct experiments involving larger numbers of robots. The hull, thrusters, and
288 latching mechanisms are the core mechanical components. A square footprint was chosen, allowing boats
289 to assemble into square lattices (Fig. 1). The manufacturing process consisted of resin-based 3D printing:
290 hull and four thruster brackets, which hold the custom miniature thrusters (Fig. 1a), and laser-cutting of an
291 acrylic top-plate. The thrusters, while compact, produce large forces (at low resolution) relative to the ve-
292 hicle’s overall inertia, resulting in aggressive rotational motions at near-zero speeds. To compensate, a basic
293 set of fins were added along the x and y axes of the boats (Fig. 1c), increasing the hydrodynamic drag and
294 facilitating less sensitive angular control at low speeds. Finally, a laser-cut acrylic cover protects the elec-
295 tronics from occasional water-splashes, while providing a supporting structure for the ultrasonic beacons
296 and access points for battery charging via USB and a power switch. The current *FloatForm* design achieves
297 2D motion with a forward speed of 70 mm/s and near-zero turning radius around its center of mass.

298 To facilitate shape reconfiguration, each *FloatForm* robot must be capable of reliably latching and de-
299 latching with other boats. The designed latching system is fully enclosed within the hull of the boat and
300 makes use of an origami-inspired mechanism to simultaneously actuate permanent magnets on all four sides
301 of the robot via a single lightweight servo motor located in the center of the robot (see Supplementary Fig.
302 1 and Supplementary Fig. 2a). The mechanism is based on a uniformly-scaling rotating polygon⁴², with
303 rotation at the center causing auxetic contraction of all four sides (Supplementary Fig. 2b). The auxetic
304 mechanism is composed of rigid 3D printed elements (PLA 3D printed on a Prusa Mk3) with simple strips
305 of synthetic rubber forming the compliant hinges. In the extended position (see Supplementary Fig. 2c), the
306 magnets are in contact with the interior sides of the hull, allowing other boats in the working range (10 cm),
307 to latch to the sides (see Supplementary Fig. 2e). When de-latching, the mechanism is rotated, pulling the

308 magnets inwards (see Supplementary Fig. 2b) and breaking attraction to neighboring robots (see Supple-
309 mentary Fig. 2d). The auxetic mechanism is composed of rigid 3D printed elements (PLA 3D printed on a
310 Prusa Mk3) with simple strips of rubber forming the compliant hinges. Magnets are arranged with alternat-
311 ing polarities, ensuring boats reliably latch into square lattice formations. The combined inertia of the mech-
312 anism and a 3D printed gearbox ensure that either latched or un-latched states can be maintained with no
313 power to the motor (power is only required to change state).

314 More details of the mini thruster design, electronics and sensors and the robot localization can be found
315 in Supplementary Note 1.

316 **Low-level Feedback Control**

317 The precise maneuvering of individual *FloatForm* modules in accordance with high-level planning
318 objectives requires the implementation of feedback control. This approach enables the system to dynami-
319 cally adapt to varying reference commands and sensor inputs, ensuring accurate steering adjustments for
320 each robot. Here, we develop feedback controllers based on proportional–integral–derivative (PID) control
321 to regulate each *FloatForm* robot’s three degrees of freedom: surge, sway, and yaw. To account for non-
322 linear dynamics, we further employ feedback linearization. Additionally, given the constraints on the cus-
323 tomized thruster’s rotational speed and the over-actuated nature of the vehicle, a thrust allocation strategy
324 is designed to distribute control commands optimally across the thrusters.

325

326 The surge and sway speed controller can receive reference velocities (u_d, v_d) from a user/operator or a
327 higher-level algorithm. In this case, the references are provided by a higher-level algorithm for shape for-
328 mation and reconfiguration. Considering that τ_u represents the force in the surge direction, and τ_v the force
329 in the sway direction, velocity controllers can be designed following a PID-based approach as:

$$330 \quad \tau_u = K_{pu}e_u + K_{iu} \int Ae_u d\tau + K_{du}\dot{e}_u \quad (1)$$

331 $\tau_v = K_{pv}e_v + K_{iv} \int e_v d\tau + K_{dv}\dot{e}_v$ (2)

332 where $e_u = u_d - u$, $e_v = v_d - v$ are the velocity errors, u is the surge velocity, v is the sway velocity,
 333 and $K_{pu}, K_{iu}, K_{du}, K_{pv}, K_{iv}, K_{dv}$ are positive controller gains. With such controllers, the robots can follow
 334 time-varying reference velocities for any feasible task.

335 The heading control system is designed based on a cascade approach. First, the heading error is chosen
 336 as $e_\psi = \psi_d - \psi$, where ψ is the robot heading angle, and the desired heading ψ_d is a user-defined param-
 337 eter, or dependent on the desired shape formation. Then, the high-level PID is designed as:

338 $r_d = K_{p\psi}e_\psi + K_{i\psi} \int e_\psi d\tau + K_{d\psi}\dot{e}_\psi$ (3)

339 where r_d is the desired yaw rate, and $K_{p\psi}, K_{i\psi}, K_{d\psi}$ are positive controller gains. Now, consider the follow-
 340 ing nonlinear model in yaw using Fossen's equations of motion for marine systems⁴³:

341 $\dot{r} = \frac{1}{I_z - N_{\dot{r}}} ((-X_{\dot{u}} + Y_{\dot{v}})uv + N_r r + N_{r|r} r|r| + \tau_r)$ (4)

342 Here, r is the rotational speed, τ_r is the rotational moment, I_z is the moment of inertia, and
 343 $X_{\dot{u}}, Y_{\dot{v}}, N_r, N_{r|r}, N_{\dot{r}}$ are hydrodynamic parameters. Then, the model can be rewritten as:

344 $\dot{r} = f_r(r) + g_r(r)\tau_r$ (5)

345 where $f_r(r)$ and $g_r(r)$ are defined as follows:

346 $f_r(r) = \frac{(-X_{\dot{u}} + Y_{\dot{v}})uv + N_r r + N_{r|r} r|r|}{I_z - N_{\dot{r}}}$ (6)

347 $g_r(r) = \frac{1}{I_z - N_{\dot{r}}}$ (7)

348 Next, applying a change of variable $\tau_r = u_r$, and feedback linearization, the low-level yaw controller can
349 be designed based on a PD approach as:

$$350 \quad u_r = \frac{1}{g_r(r)}(K_{pr}e_r + K_{dr}\dot{e}_r - f_r(r)) \quad (8)$$

351 with error $e_r = r_d - r$, and positive controller gains. Implementing feedback linearization allows us to
352 compensate for nonlinear dynamics terms, which have a large effect on the yaw degree of freedom.

353 A detailed description of the thrust allocation is provided in Supplementary Note 2.

354 **Hybrid Coordination Algorithm**

355 The proposed hybrid coordination algorithm combines a lightweight centralized planner for high-level
356 tasks—such as position assignment to refine shape formation—with distributed controllers onboard each
357 robot to govern core behaviors, including shape formation and collision avoidance. We demonstrate three
358 fundamental collective capabilities: (i) self-assembly, enabling the parallel formation of physically con-
359 nected structures; (ii) self-reconfiguration, allowing the swarm to disassemble and reassemble into new
360 physically connected configurations in parallel; and (iii) collective transport, enabling the assembled swarm
361 to navigate cohesively across the water. As illustrated in Fig. 2, each collective capability consists of mul-
362 tiple sequential phases. For the gathering phase (Fig. 2b), a distributed shape-reference formation algorithm
363 is implemented to drive the swarm gradually into the desired shape and a square lattice structure.

364 More specifically, the algorithm is based on the Artificial Potential Field method⁴⁴, which establishes
365 so-called potential forces to control a system. Two main potential forces are considered in this work, an
366 attractive force ($F_a \in R^2$) and a repulsive force ($F_r \in R^2$):

$$367 \quad F_p = k_{p,1}F_a + k_{p,2}F_r \quad (9)$$

368 where $k_{p,1}, k_{p,2}$ are positive weighting parameters. Here, the attractive force is designed to drive the *Float-*
369 *Form* robot to the desired region, whereas the repulsive force is applied to avoid collisions and create lat-
370 tices between neighboring robots. First, let us consider the attractive force. The vehicle is given a desired
371 shape, constructed by a matrix $V = [v_1, v_2, \dots, v_W]^T$, composed by the shape vertices $v_w \in R^2$, where $w =$
372 $1, 2, \dots, W$, and W is the total number of vertices. Next, a variable s is equal to 1 if a module is inside the
373 shape, and -1 if the vehicle is outside the shape. Then, a distance vector d is evaluated with the robot posi-
374 tion $p = [x, y]^T$ and its nearest vertex v_{nearest} as $d = v_{\text{nearest}} - p$. The attractive regional force is com-
375 puted as

$$376 \quad F_a = k_{a,1} s \left(1 + \tanh \left(\frac{s \|d\|}{k_{a,2}} \right) \right) \left(\frac{d}{\|d\|} \right) \quad (10)$$

377 where $k_{a,1}, k_{a,2}$ are positive parameters. Now, let us consider the repulsive force, which is composed of a
378 collision element $F_c \in R^2$ and a lattice element $F_l \in R^2$, for each neighboring modules:

$$379 \quad F_r = \sum_{n=1}^N (F_{c,n} + F_{l,n}) \quad (11)$$

380 with N as the total number of neighbors.

381 More specifically, for each neighboring module, $F_{c,n}$ and $F_{l,n}$ are computed with:

$$382 \quad F_{c,n} = k_{r1} \left(\frac{r_0}{\|r_n\|} - \left(\frac{r_0}{\|r_n\|} \right)^2 \right) \left(\frac{r_n}{\|r_n\|} \right) \quad (12)$$

$$383 \quad F_{l,n} = \frac{-\sin(4\varphi_n)}{\|r_n\|} \left(\frac{r_n}{\|r_n\|} \right) \quad (13)$$

384 where $\varphi_n = \text{atan2}(y_n - y, x_n - x)$ is the angle between the robot and the neighbor n , $r_n = p_n - p$ is the
385 distance between the robot and the neighbor n , $p_n = [x_n, y_n]^T$ is the position of a neighboring module, and

386 $k_{r,1}, r_o$ are tuning parameters. Finally, since the potential field force F_p is computed in the inertial reference
387 frame, it is rotated into the body frame with:

$$388 \quad [u_d, v_d]^T = R(\psi)^T F_p \quad (14)$$

389 and its rotation matrix

$$390 \quad R(\psi) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \psi & -\sin \psi \\ \sin \psi & \cos \psi \end{bmatrix} \quad (15)$$

391 Finally, $[u_d, v_d]^T$ are saturated to user-defined maximum allowed velocities, and then sent as desired val-
392 ues to the robot's surge and sway speed controller.

393 Further details of the other phases of the algorithm such as the centralized task assignment and
394 collective transport algorithm are provided in Supplementary Note 3.

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502

503 **Data Availability** All data to support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding
504 authors upon request.

505 **Code Availability** All the data analyses were performed using custom scripts written in MATLAB
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521 **Competing Interests** The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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