

# Artificial Intelligence I

*Dr Sean Holden*

Notes on *planning*

## Problem solving is different to planning

In *search problems* we:

- *Represent states*: and a state representation contains *everything* that's relevant about the environment.
- *Represent actions*: by describing a new state obtained from a current state.
- *Represent goals*: all we know is how to test a state either to see if it's a goal, or using a heuristic.
- *A sequence of actions is a 'plan'*: but we only consider *sequences of consecutive actions*.

Search algorithms are good for solving problems that fit this framework. However for more complex problems they may fail completely...

## Problem solving is different to planning

Representing a problem such as: *'go out and buy some pies'* is hopeless:

- There are *too many possible actions* at each step.
- A heuristic can only help you rank states. In particular it does not help you *ignore* useless actions.
- We are forced to start at the initial state, but you have to work out *how to get the pies*—that is, go to town and buy them, get online and find a web site that sells pies *etc*—*before you can start to do it*.

Knowledge representation and reasoning might not help either: although we end up with a sequence of actions—a plan—there is so much flexibility that complexity might well become an issue.

## Introduction to planning

We now look at how an agent might *construct a plan* enabling it to achieve a goal.

*Aims:*

- To look at how we might update our concept of *knowledge representation and reasoning* to apply more specifically to planning tasks.
- To look in detail at the basic *partial-order planning algorithm*.

*Reading:* Russell and Norvig, chapter 11.

## Planning algorithms work differently

### *Difference 1:*

- Planning algorithms use a *special purpose language*—often based on FOL or a subset— to represent states, goals, and actions.
- States and goals are described by sentences, as might be expected, but...
- ...actions are described by stating their *preconditions* and their *effects*.

So if you know the goal includes (maybe among other things)

Have(pie)

and action Buy(x) has an effect Have(x) then you know that a plan *including*

Buy(pie)

might be reasonable.

## Planning algorithms work differently

### *Difference 2:*

- Planners can add actions at *any relevant point at all between the start and the goal*, not just at the end of a sequence starting at the start state.
- This makes sense: I may determine that `Have(carKeys)` is a good state to be in without worrying about what happens before or after finding them.
- By making an important decision like requiring `Have(carKeys)` early on we may reduce branching and backtracking.
- State descriptions are not complete—`Have(carKeys)` describes a *class of states*—and this adds flexibility.

*So:* you have the potential to search both *forwards* and *backwards* within the same problem.

## Planning algorithms work differently

### *Difference 3:*

It is assumed that most elements of the environment are *independent of most other elements*.

- A goal including several requirements can be attacked with a divide-and-conquer approach.
- Each individual requirement can be fulfilled using a subplan...
- ...and the subplans then combined.

This works provided there is not significant interaction between the subplans.

Remember: the *frame problem*.

## Running example: gorilla-based mischief

We will use the following simple example problem, which is based on a similar one due to Russell and Norvig.

The intrepid little scamps in the *Cambridge University Roof-Climbing Society* wish to attach an *inflatable gorilla* to the spire of a *Famous College*. To do this they need to leave home and obtain:

- *An inflatable gorilla*: these can be purchased from all good joke shops.
- *Some rope*: available from a hardware store.
- *A first-aid kit*: also available from a hardware store.

They need to return home after they've finished their shopping.

How do they go about planning their *jolly escapade*?



## The STRIPS language

STRIPS: “*Stanford Research Institute Problem Solver*” (1970).

*States*: are *conjunctions* of *ground literals*. They must not include *function symbols*.

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{At}(\text{home}) \wedge \neg \text{Have}(\text{gorilla}) \\ & \quad \wedge \neg \text{Have}(\text{rope}) \\ & \quad \wedge \neg \text{Have}(\text{kit}) \end{aligned}$$

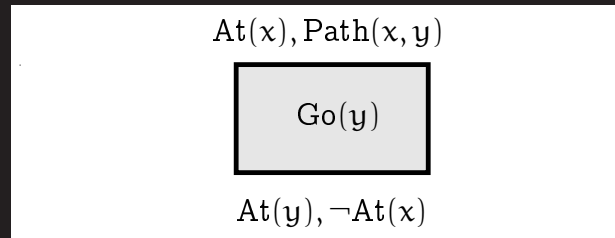
*Goals*: are *conjunctions* of *literals* where variables are assumed *existentially quantified*.

$$\text{At}(x) \wedge \text{Sells}(x, \text{gorilla})$$

A planner finds a sequence of actions that when performed makes the goal true. We are no longer employing a full theorem-prover.

## The STRIPS language

STRIPS represents actions using *operators*. For example



Op(Action: Go(y), Pre:  $At(x) \wedge Path(x, y)$ , Effect:  $At(y) \wedge \neg At(x)$ )

All variables are implicitly universally quantified. An operator has:

- An *action description*: what the action does.
- A *precondition*: what must be true before the operator can be used. A *conjunction of positive literals*.
- An *effect*: what is true after the operator has been used. A *conjunction of literals*.

## The space of plans

We now make a change in perspective—we search in *plan space*:

- Start with an *empty plan*.
- *Operate on it* to obtain new plans. Incomplete plans are called *partial plans*. *Refinement operators* add constraints to a partial plan. All other operators are called *modification operators*.
- Continue until we obtain a plan that solves the problem.

Operations on plans can be:

- *Adding a step*.
- *Instantiating a variable*.
- *Imposing an ordering* that places a step in front of another.
- and so on...

## Representing a plan: partial order planners

When putting on your shoes and socks:

- It *does not matter* whether you deal with your left or right foot first.
- It *does matter* that you place a sock on *before* a shoe, for any given foot.

It makes sense in constructing a plan *not* to make any *commitment* to which side is done first *if you don't have to*.

*Principle of least commitment*: do not commit to any specific choices until you have to. This can be applied both to ordering and to instantiation of variables. A *partial order planner* allows plans to specify that some steps must come before others but others have no ordering. A *linearisation* of such a plan imposes a specific sequence on the actions therein.

## Representing a plan: partial order planners

A plan consists of:

1. A set  $\{S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n\}$  of *steps*. Each of these is one of the available *operators*.
2. A set of *ordering constraints*. An ordering constraint  $S_i < S_j$  denotes the fact that step  $S_i$  must happen before step  $S_j$ .  $S_i < S_j < S_k$  and so on has the obvious meaning.  $S_i < S_j$  does *not* mean that  $S_i$  must *immediately* precede  $S_j$ .
3. A set of variable bindings  $v = x$  where  $v$  is a variable and  $x$  is either a variable or a constant.
4. A set of *causal links* or *protection intervals*  $S_i \xrightarrow{c} S_j$ . This denotes the fact that the purpose of  $S_i$  is to achieve the precondition  $c$  for  $S_j$ .

A causal link is *always* paired with an equivalent ordering constraint.

## Representing a plan: partial order planners

The *initial plan* has:

- Two steps, called **Start** and **Finish**.
- a single ordering constraint **Start** < **Finish**.
- No *variable bindings*.
- No *causal links*.

In addition to this:

- The step **Start** has no preconditions, and its effect is the start state for the problem.
- The step **Finish** has no effect, and its precondition is the goal.
- Neither **Start** or **Finish** has an associated action.

We now need to consider what constitutes a *solution*...

## Solutions to planning problems

A solution to a planning problem is any *complete* and *consistent* partially ordered plan.

*Complete*: each precondition of each step is *achieved* by another step in the solution.

A precondition  $c$  for  $S$  is achieved by a step  $S'$  if:

1. The precondition is an effect of the step

$$S' < S \text{ and } c \in \text{Effects}(S')$$

and...

2. ... there is *no other* step that can cancel the precondition:

$$\text{no } S'' \text{ exists where } S' < S'' < S \text{ and } \neg c \in \text{Effects}(S'')$$

## Solutions to planning problems

*Consistent*: no contradictions exist in the binding constraints or in the proposed ordering. That is:

1. For binding constraints, we never have  $v = X$  and  $v = Y$  for distinct constants  $X$  and  $Y$ .
2. For the ordering, we never have  $S < S'$  and  $S' < S$ .

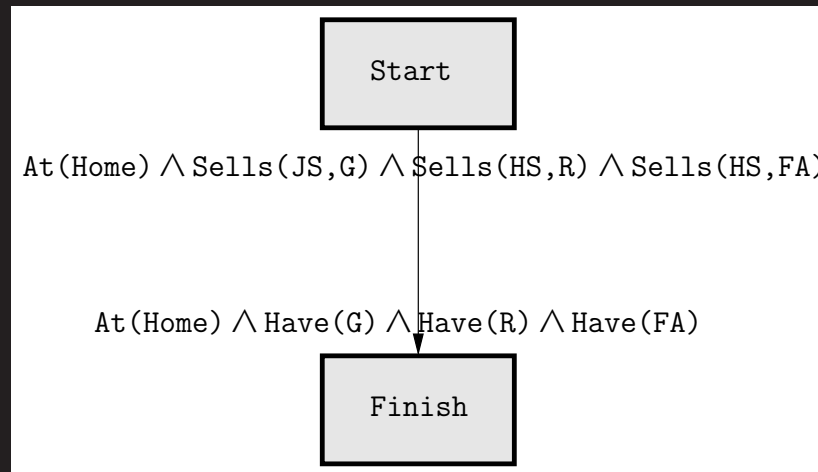
Returning to the roof-climber's shopping expedition, here is the basic approach:

- Begin with only the *Start* and *Finish* steps in the plan.
- At each stage add a new step.
- Always add a new step such that a *currently non-achieved precondition is achieved*.
- Backtrack when necessary.



## An example of partial-order planning

Here is the *initial plan*:



Thin arrows denote ordering.

## An example of partial-order planning

There are *two actions available*:



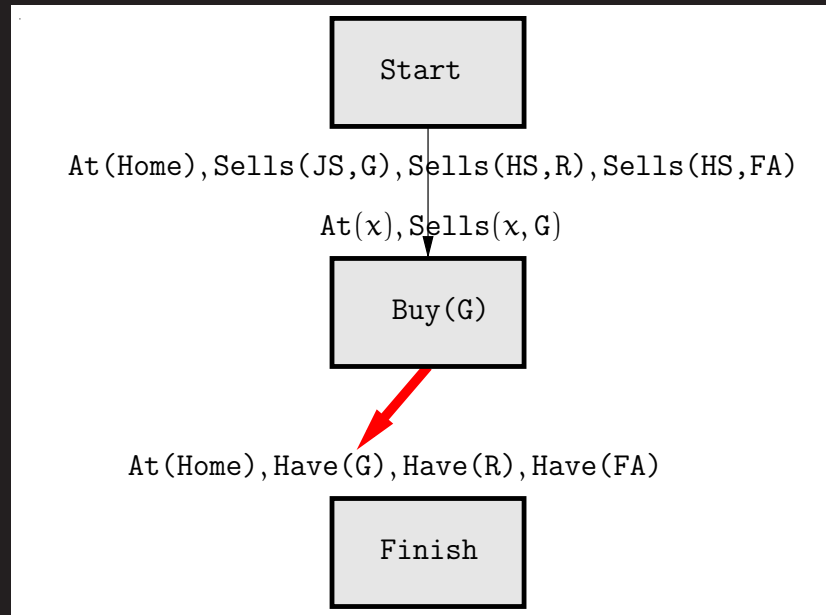
A planner might begin, for example, by adding a **Buy(G)** action in order to achieve the **Have(G)** precondition of **Finish**.

*Note:* the following order of events is by no means the only one available to a planner.

It has been chosen for illustrative purposes.

## An example of partial-order planning

Incorporating the suggested step into the plan:

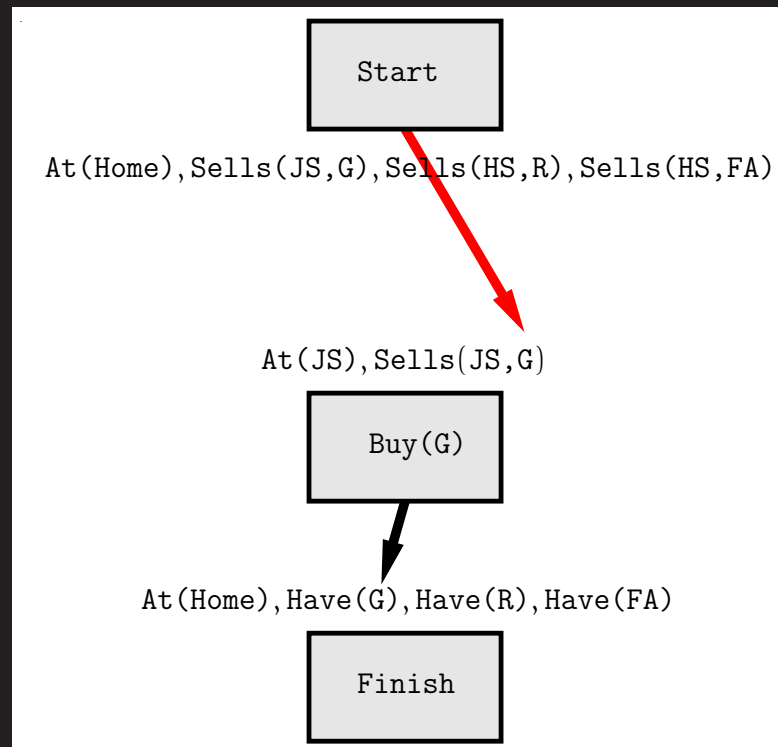


Thick arrows denote causal links. They always have a thin arrow underneath.

Here the new **Buy** step achieves the **Have(G)** precondition of **Finish**.

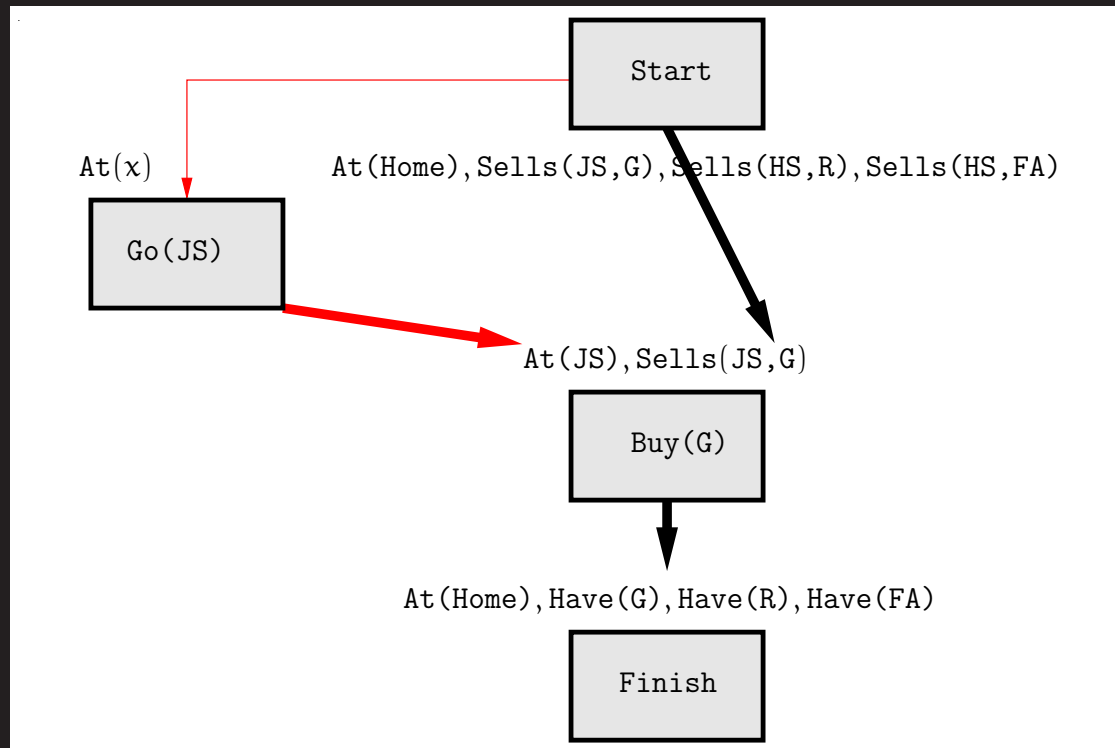
## An example of partial-order planning

The planner can now introduce a second causal link from **Start** to achieve the **Sells(x, G)** precondition of **Buy(G)**.



## An example of partial-order planning

The planner's next obvious move is to introduce a **Go** step to achieve the **At(JS)** precondition of **Buy(G)**.



And we continue...

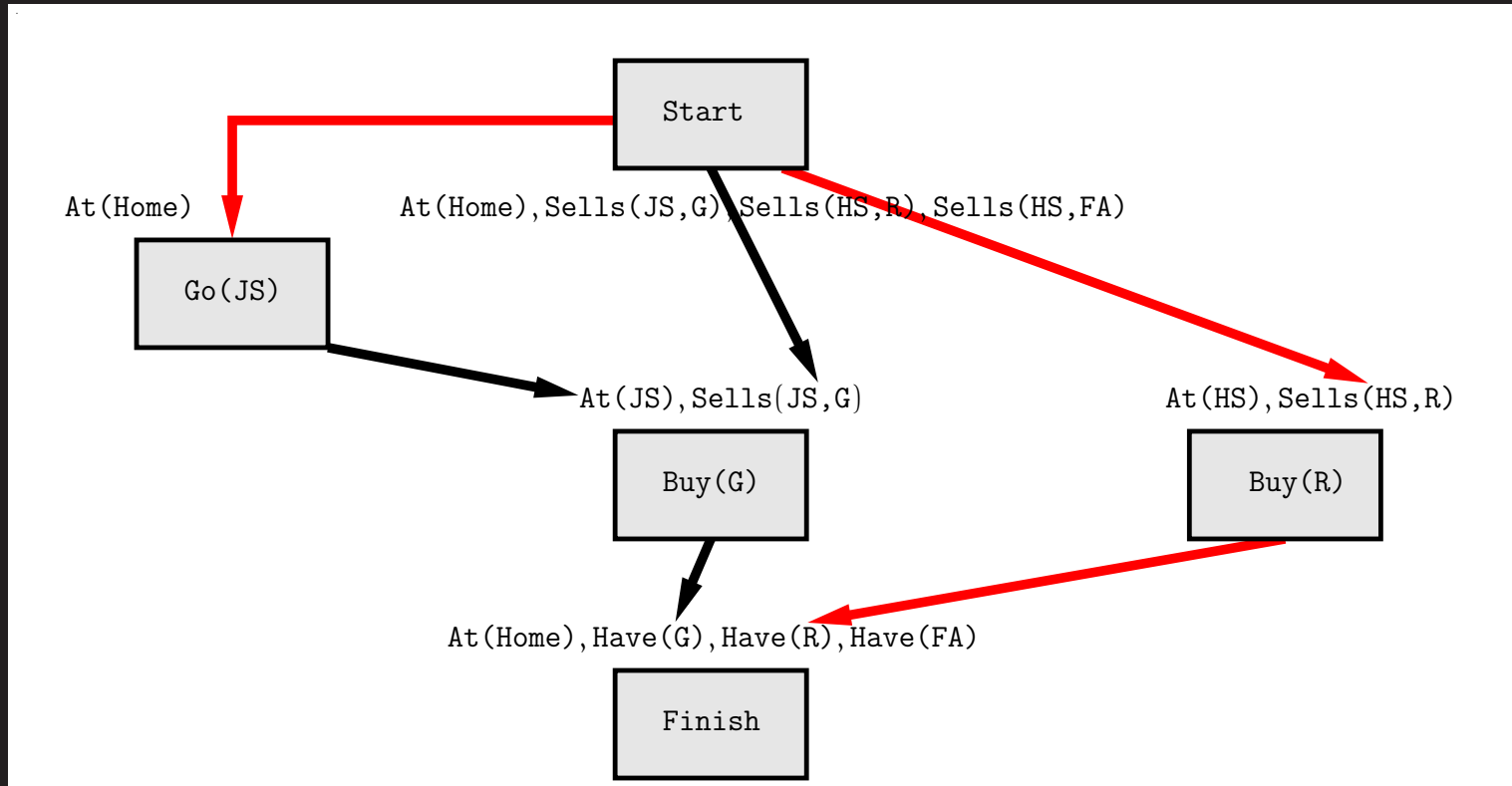
## An example of partial-order planning

Initially the planner can continue quite easily in this manner:

- Add a causal link from **Start** to **Go(JS)** to achieve the **At(x)** precondition.
- Add the step **Buy(R)** with an associated causal link to the **Have(R)** precondition of **Finish**.
- Add a causal link from **Start** to **Buy(R)** to achieve the **Sells(HS, R)** precondition.

But then things get more interesting...

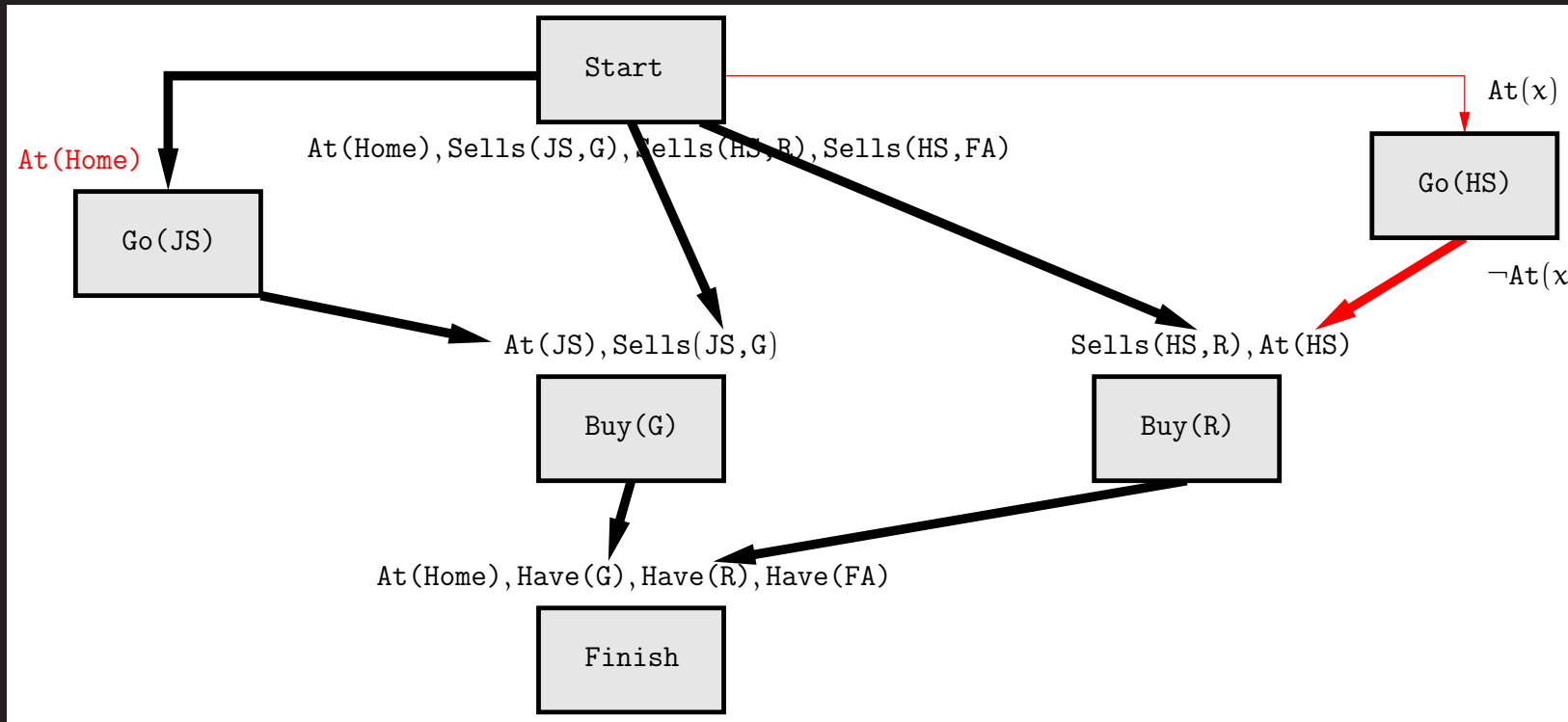
## An example of partial-order planning



At this point it starts to get tricky...

The  $At(HS)$  precondition in  $Buy(R)$  is not achieved.

## An example of partial-order planning

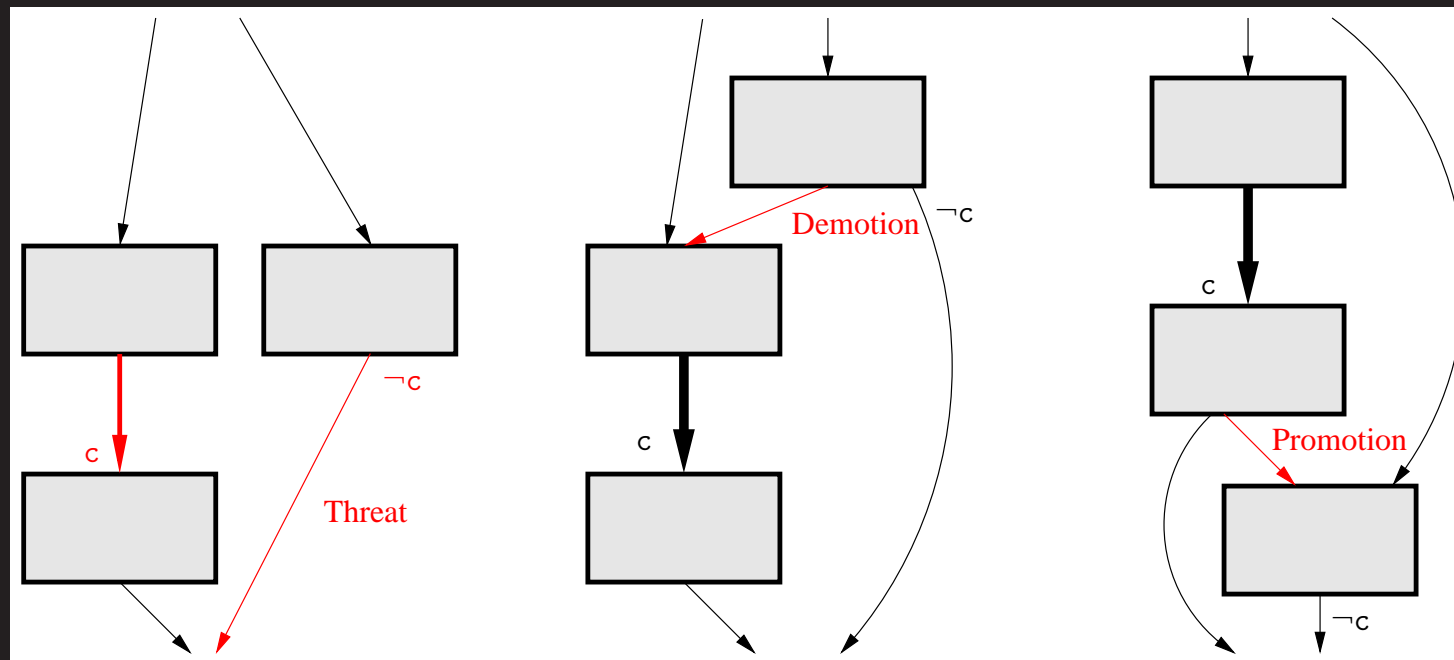


The  $At(HS)$  precondition is easy to achieve. *But if we introduce a causal link from Start to Go(HS) then we risk invalidating the precondition for Go(JS).*



## An example of partial-order planning

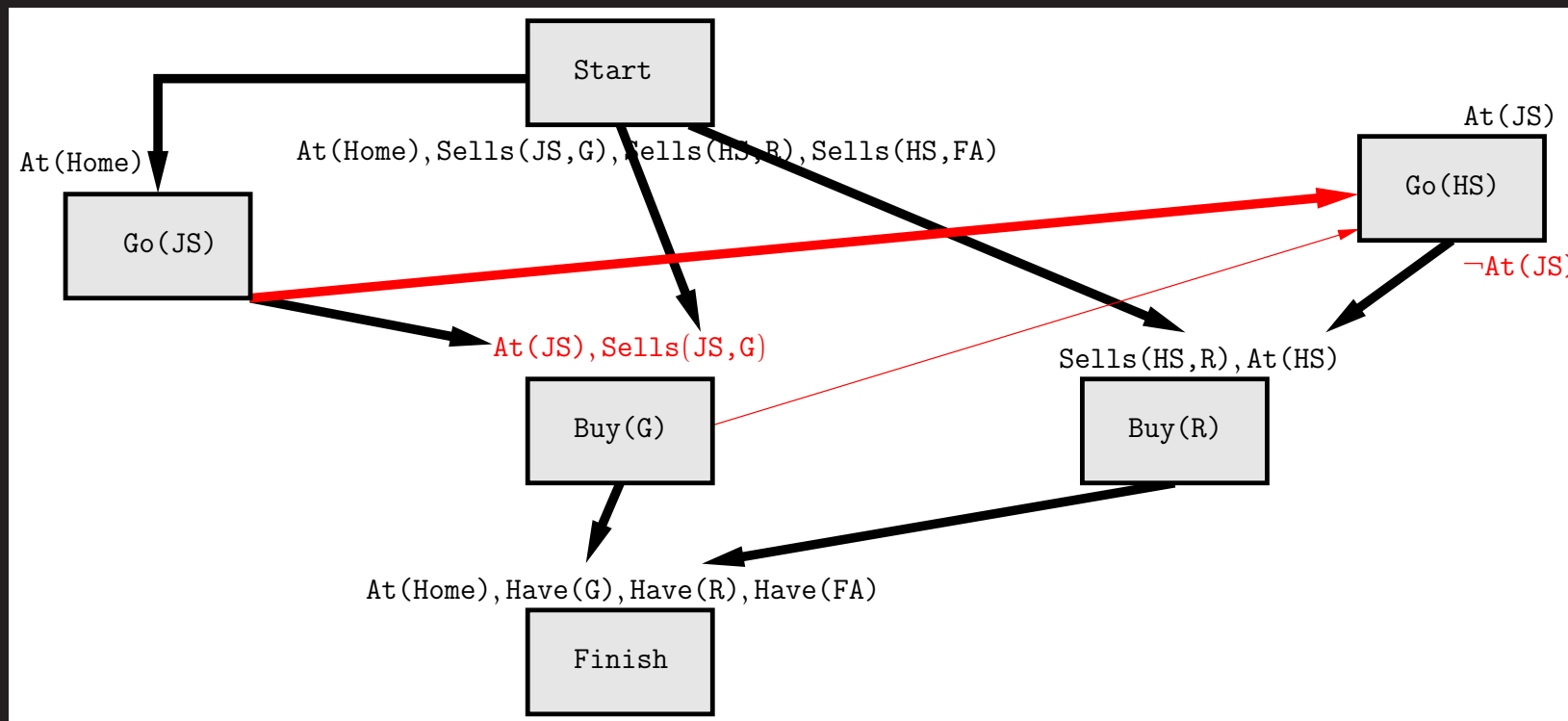
A step that might invalidate (sometimes the word *clobber* is employed) a previously achieved precondition is called a *threat*.



A planner can try to fix a threat by introducing an ordering constraint.

## An example of partial-order planning

The planner could backtrack and try to achieve the  $At(x)$  precondition using the existing  $Go(JS)$  step.



This involves a threat, but one that can be fixed using promotion.

## The algorithm

Simplifying slightly to the case where there are *no variables*.

Say we have a partially completed plan and a set of the preconditions that have yet to be achieved.

- Select a precondition  $p$  that has not yet been achieved and is associated with an action  $B$ .
- At each stage *the partially complete plan is expanded into a new collection of plans*.
- To expand a plan, we can try to achieve  $p$  *either* by using an action that's already in the plan or by adding a new action to the plan. In either case, call the action  $A$ .

We then try to construct consistent plans where  $A$  achieves  $p$ .

## The algorithm

This works as follows:

- For *each possible way of achieving p*:
  - Add  $\text{Start} < A$ ,  $A < \text{Finish}$ ,  $A < B$  and the causal link  $A \xrightarrow{p} B$  to the plan.
  - If the resulting plan is consistent we're done, otherwise *generate all possible ways of removing inconsistencies* by promotion or demotion and *keep any resulting consistent plans*.

At this stage:

- If you have *no further preconditions that haven't been achieved* then *any plan obtained is valid*.

## The algorithm

But how do we try to *enforce consistency*?

When you attempt to achieve  $p$  using  $A$ :

- Find all the existing causal links  $A' \xrightarrow{\neg p} B'$  that are *clobbered* by  $A$ .
- For each of those you can try adding  $A < A'$  or  $B' < A$  to the plan.
- Find all existing actions  $C$  in the plan that clobber the *new* causal link  $A \xrightarrow{p} B$ .
- For each of those you can try adding  $C < A$  or  $B < C$  to the plan.
- Generate *every possible combination* in this way and retain any consistent plans that result.

## Possible threats

What about dealing with *variables*?

If at any stage an effect  $\neg \text{At}(x)$  appears, is it a threat to  $\text{At}(JS)$ ?

Such an occurrence is called a *possible threat* and we can deal with it by introducing *inequality constraints*: in this case  $x \neq JS$ .

- Each partially complete plan now has a set  $I$  of inequality constraints associated with it.
- An inequality constraint has the form  $v \neq X$  where  $v$  is a variable and  $X$  is a variable or a constant.
- Whenever we try to make a substitution we check  $I$  to make sure we won't introduce a conflict.

If we *would* introduce a conflict then we discard the partially completed plan as inconsistent.