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Decision-theoretic Transformational Planning

Michael Beetz

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**Deutsches Forschungszentrum für Künstliche Intelligenz
GmbH**

Postfach 20 80
D-6750 Kaiserslautern, FRG
Tel.: (+49 631) 205-3211/13
Fax: (+49 631) 205-3210

Stuhlsatzenhausweg 3
D-6600 Saarbrücken 11, FRG
Tel.: (+49 681) 302-5252
Fax: (+49 681) 302-5341

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Director

Decision-theoretic Transformational Planning

Michael Beetz

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Decision-theoretic Transformational Planning

Michael Beetz
Department of Computer Science
Yale University
P.O. Box 2158, Yale Station
New Haven, CT 06520
beetz@cs.yale.edu

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Abstract

In this paper we develop decision-theoretic transformational planning as a novel computational theory for planning reactive behavior under hard time constraints. The theory is based on three main paradigms: transformational planning, decision theory, and time-dependent computations. Knowledge about goals and the robot control language is accessed through transformation rules that define semantic relationships between constructs in the plan representation language and associations between goals and canned plans. The computational theory deals with uncertainty by applying decision-theoretic methods to control the planning process. The tradeoffs between planning and acting are weighed by applying time-dependent algorithms for testing the applicability and utility of transformation rules with respect to the current situation and the preferences of the robot.

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1 Introduction

In order to compute useful plans for different problem-solving situations, a robot planner has to take into account different optimization criteria, the available computation time, and the uncertainty of the available information. Suppose a robot gets the task to deliver all the blue blocks in the kitchen to the livingroom. The simplest solution for this problem is to go to the kitchen, pick up a blue block, deliver it to the livingroom, and repeat this procedure until no blue block is left in the kitchen. This plan, however, is inappropriate in many cases. Assume, for instance, other robots are around which may steal blocks after their delivery. In this case the robot should lock the livingroom whenever it leaves it. If faster solutions are required, the robot could go to the kitchen first, determine all the locations of the blue blocks, and deliver them in an optimal order. While this solution is faster than others, it is also much more sensitive to changes in the locations of the blocks. This example demonstrates that different plans are preferable under different circumstances. Some plans are considered to be good if robustness is preferred over efficiency, others if reactivity is the most important feature, and still others if certain events in the environment are likely to occur.

In this paper we are concerned with representational and algorithmic problems in the design and implementation of planning systems for mobile robots that generate plans in such a flexible way. For our class of applications we consider planning to be the iterative improvement of a given plan based on expectations about the environment and given preference criteria. A planning system for robots acting in complex and changing environments has to provide solutions for three problems. Firstly, it has to deal explicitly with the uncertainty that arises due to the unpredictability of, and the incomplete information regarding, the environment in which the robot is operating [Han90]. Secondly, the robot planner has to treat planning time as a limited resource; i.e. it has to return plans for any allocation of computation time and has to reason about whether the expected gains from further planning will outweigh the costs of spending more planning time [DB88, BD89]. Finally, the planner has to be able to synthesize plans implementing any problem-solving behavior necessary to solve complex tasks in its environment—not just sequences of primitive robot actions [McD91b].

We develop decision-theoretic transformational planning as a novel computational theory for robot planning under time constraints and in uncertain environments. The theory is based on three main paradigms: transformational planning [Lin90], decision theory [HR90], and time-dependent computations [Dea91]. Knowledge about

the robot control language is accessed through transformation rules which define semantic relationships between constructs in the plan representation language.¹ The computational theory deals with uncertainty by applying decision-theoretic methods to control the planning process. The tradeoffs between planning and acting are weighed by applying time-dependent algorithms for testing the applicability and utility of transformation rules with respect to the current situation and the preferences of the robot.

The computational theory is implemented as the `xfrm` [McD90] planning system. `xfrm` consists of a reactive plan interpreter [Fir89, Fir87] and a transformational planner which, controlled by a `cpu`, simultaneously work on a sketchy plan. Sketchy plans have to be adapted to the current environment in order to be executable and the plan interpreter has to react to changes in the environment which are not handled by the plan. The planner improves the plan while the plan interpreter executes sketchy actions and monitors the execution [McD90, HF90]. The plan, whether it is a descriptive, abstract task or an operational, low-level control statement is formulated in the robot control language `rpl` [McD91a]. The plan interpreter interprets non-primitive expressions by reducing them using default methods. In this architecture the task of the planner is to replace default methods by more robust, reliable, or efficient code which the planner finds through reasoning about the consequences of actions. The planning system computes better plans when more planning time is available.

The paper is organized in two main sections. Section 2 describes and discusses the representation structures used in the `xfrm` system and section 3 describes the basic algorithms that interpret the representation structures.

2 Representational Formalism

`xfrm` has to estimate and compare the quality of alternative plans, optimize the current plan, simulate its execution in order to predict problems, decide whether a simulation corresponds to a successful task execution, and schedule the optimization given some limited computation time. In order to optimize plans it must know how `rpl` expressions can be transformed and how good the resulting plans are. To evaluate simulations, `xfrm` needs decision criteria for determining whether or not the execution of a plan achieved the toplevel task. To perform simulations descriptions of

¹We will use the terms robot control language and plan representation language interchangeably depending on whether we want to emphasize the expressiveness or the transparency of the language.

the pre- and postconditions of subtasks are necessary. In order to schedule the planning process `xfrm` needs methods for assigning resources to optimization problems. In this section we discuss how these different kinds of informations are represented in `xfrm`.

2.1 RPL - A Reactive Plan Language

RPL (Reactive Plan Language) is the robot control and plan representation language used in the `xfrm` system. This section is not intended to be a description of RPL, as such a description can be found in [McD91a]. Here we want to discuss the interaction between the design of the robot control language and the planning system; i.e. we discuss which requirements of the planning system are reflected by the language design and how the type of language affects the choice of planning techniques and methods.

```
(achieve-for-all (λ (x) (and (category x block)
                             (color x blue)
                             (in x kitchen))))
(λ (x) (in x livingroom)))
```

Figure 1: RPL code for the task *“get all the blue blocks in the kitchen to the livingroom.”*

The requirements which have to be fulfilled by the language come from both the plan interpreter and the planning system. From the point of view of the plan interpreter, it is important that the language is expressive enough to describe all sorts of complex problem-solving behaviors that the robot needs to perform. From the planner’s point of view, it is important that the language describes plans transparently enough to allow the planner to reason about it. Another planning requirement is that the language should provide primitives for describing robot actions as well as descriptive (predicate-calculus like) high-level tasks. This makes it possible for parts of the plan to be detailed while other parts are left sketchy. In other words, a plan representation language should provide constructs for task specification, high-level algorithmic constructs (like recursion and conditionals), as well as constructs which are closer to the machine and primitive robot actions (like variables, sequentialization, or iteration).

RPL is a Lisp-like programming language for the implementation of reactive robot control programs, which satisfies the requirements stated above. Unlike classical plan languages that only provide sequencing for the combination of robot actions, RPL, as control language for robots that sense and react, provides a rich set of language constructs for the description of problem-solving behavior. RPL allows the definition of robot control programs at different levels of abstraction. Some of its expressions such as, **achieve**, **maintain**, or **prevent** a property of the world are abstract and purely descriptive. Others such as, **wait five seconds** or **fail** are operational and primitive. RPL also provides constructs with a similar semantics, like **try-one-of**, **try-in-order**, or **try-all**; **try-one-of** randomly selects methods from a given set of methods until one of them succeeds, **try-in-order** applies the methods in the specified order, and **try-all** tries the different methods in parallel. Several high-level concepts (interrupts, monitors) are provided that can be used to synchronize parallel actions, to make plans reactive, etc. The language allows for the formulation of sketchy plans, i.e. plans which do not deterministically describe how they should be performed but can be adapted to the current situation at run time.

2.2 Representation of the Robot Control Language

A planning system which optimizes plans must know the semantics of the plan representation language it uses. In classical AI planning systems, which consider sequencing as the only way to construct complex plans from simpler ones, the semantics can be implicitly encoded into the basic planning algorithms such as plan critics or goal achievement procedures. However, it is not promising to implicitly encode the semantics of an expressive language like RPL into the planning algorithms. A planning system for expressive robot control languages needs representation structures that describe the language in an explicit and declarative way.

In XFRM semantical knowledge about the plan representation language is encoded in the form of RPL *construct descriptions* and *heuristic transformation rules*. We discuss these representational structures using the **achieve-for-all** construct as an example. The syntactic structure of the **achieve-for-all** statement is (**achieve-for-all** (λ (x) (d x)) (λ (x) (g x))). The first argument of the **achieve-for-all** statement specifies the set of objects for which d holds. The second argument describes the goal g that has to be achieved for each of them. The intention of the RPL construct **achieve-for-all** is that all objects which satisfied the property d at a time instant between the begin and end of the **achieve-for-all** task have to satisfy the property g at the end of the task.

2.2.1 RPL Construct Descriptions

The RPL construct description for the `achieve-for-all` statement is shown in figure 2. An RPL construct description specifies the postconditions that must be achieved for the action to be successful. In addition, it contains a default method that is used by the plan interpreter to reduce the expression, a set of heuristic transformation rules which can be applied in order to optimize and debug the expression, and a scheduler for the control of the rule interpretation.

RPL construct description		achieve-for-all
syntax	$(\text{achieve-for-all } (\lambda (?x) ?desc) (\lambda (?y) ?goal))$	
postcondition	$\forall x. \exists ti. \text{start} \leq ti \wedge ti \leq \text{end} \wedge \text{holds}(\sigma(?x \leftarrow x)(?desc) ti) \rightarrow \text{holds}(\sigma(?y \leftarrow x)(?goal) \text{end})$	
execution	achieve-for-all.default	
generation	{ach-for-all.1 ach-for-all.2 ach-for-all.3}	
debugging	{achieve-for-all.debug}	
scheduler	achieve-for-all.scheduler	

Figure 2: Representation structure for the representation of the RPL command `achieve-for-all` in XFRM. $?v$ denotes a pattern variable with name v . $\sigma(\text{exp}_1 \leftarrow \text{exp}_2)\text{exp}$ is the expression that results from the substitution of exp_2 for all occurrences of exp_1 in exp .

postconditions are formalized in a time logic. The postcondition of `achieve-for-all` states that any object satisfying the description `?desc` at an arbitrary time instant ti between the beginning and the end of the `achieve-for-all` task must satisfy `?goal` at the end of the task. A postcondition of an `achieve-for-all` expression is computed by matching the expression against the pattern in the `syntax` slot and instantiating the pattern in the `postcondition` slot using the bindings obtained by the match. The `generation` slot lists heuristic transformation rules that can be used to make plan hypotheses by transforming the RPL construct. A default-transformation is stored in the slot `execution` of each nonprimitive RPL construct and can be applied by the plan interpreter if the RPL construct is to be executed reactively. A default transformation is always applicable and should be, in general, the most reliable and robust method for the performance of the RPL construct. The `debugging` slot contains transformation rules for debugging plans once failures have been detected during execution and

simulation. The scheduler is a function that returns an ordered list of pairs for a given amount of computation time, where the first element in each pair denotes a transformation rule and the second element the maximal time resource for checking the applicability of this rule. The task of the scheduler is to divide the available time resources so that the biggest gains in terms of plan quality can be expected. Scheduling is often necessary because the transformations that produce better plans require more computation time.

2.2.2 Heuristic Transformation Rules

One high-level description of the semantics of RPL is a set of theorems that state the conditions under which expressions in the language are semantically equivalent to, or specializations from, other RPL expressions. Such theorems are good descriptions for a planning system that is intended to transform plans into semantically equivalent ones that are more efficient or robust [BP86]. In transformational systems, these theorems are often represented in the form of transformation rules with an input and output plan schema and an applicability condition. The operational semantics of a transformation rule states that whenever an expression matches the input plan schema and the applicability condition can be proven, then the instantiated output plan schema can be substituted for the expression. A transformation rule is correct if, for all cases for which the applicability condition holds, the input plan schema is semantically equivalent to the output plan schema. Unfortunately, correct transformation rules are of little practical use for robot planning. The information available in robot planning problems is often uncertain and cannot be formalized as premises or facts which are necessary for proving applicability conditions. However, even if we could prove the applicability conditions in principle, those proofs would typically be computationally intractable and could certainly not be derived under real time constraints.

XFRM uses heuristic transformation rules (HTRs) instead of correct transformation rules. HTRs allow a planning system to generate plan hypotheses efficiently using heuristic and associational reasoning. Plan hypotheses are flexibly generated based on given preferences, like efficiency is more important than robustness, and based on expectations about, and changes in, the environment. Since plan hypotheses are generated based on heuristics they are to be tested before being passed to the plan interpreter.

HTRs are approximations of their correct counterparts which terminate fast, or at least propose plans at any time during their interpretation, and improve them over

time. HTRs may also have probabilistic application conditions in order to decide whether or not a transformation should be performed. The problem caused by weakening application conditions in the above ways is that HTRs no longer correspond to semantic equivalences in the robot control language. The plan resulting from a transformation might be related to the original plan in several ways. It might be more or less likely to fail, likely to be slower or faster, or more or less likely to achieve certain conditions of the toplevel task. HTRs transform expressions in order to increase the overall quality of a plan. Different heuristic variants of a correct transformation rule differ in their effects on the robustness, expected runtime efficiency, or degree of correctness of the resulting plan. Consequently, the planner has to decide which of the variants to choose in order to transform a given piece of code. We propose methods which allow for the estimation of the quality of a plan under uncertainty and apply decision-theoretic techniques to choose the most promising transformation.

`XFORM` evaluates a plan in terms of three qualities, the *robustness*, *efficiency*, and *completeness* of a plan. The ability of the plan to allow the plan interpreter to recover from execution errors and to achieve the postconditions, despite the problems occurred, is called the *robustness* of the plan. From a practical point of view, it is useful to separate robustness into *stability* and *correctness*. Stability is the likelihood that the execution of the `RPL` expression does not result in an error state from which the system cannot automatically recover. Correctness is the likelihood that the postcondition of an expression will hold once the expression is executed. Since the achievement of the postcondition and the occurrence of an irrecoverable error state are defined as independent events, we can define the robustness of a `rplexp` as the product of `stability(rplexp)` and `correctness(rplexp)`.

The robustness of a plan can be increased by constructing alternative courses of actions such that the plan interpreter can choose between them at runtime, depending on the situations the actions should be executed in. Reasoning about disjunctive plans, however, is often very expensive in terms of computational resources. Therefore, the planner should focus on relatively few alternatives and explore others only when necessary, i.e., when none of the alternative ways incorporated in its current plan succeeds. The plan quality *completeness* characterizes this trade-off, representing the likelihood that the planner might find alternative plans which succeed and achieve their postconditions, once the current plan failed. *Execution time* is the third aspect of plan quality which estimates the execution time of a plan based on the execution times of the subplans. Often plans which require less execution time should be preferred by the planner.

Figure 3 shows the default transformation rule for the achieve-for-all statement.

heuristic transformation achieve-for-all.default	
<pre>?task ← (achieve-for-all (λ (?x) ?desc) (λ (?y) ?goal))</pre> <p style="text-align: center;">↓</p> <pre>(reduce ?task (let* ((desigs nil)) (≠ desigs (perceive (λ (x) σ(?x←x) (?desc)))) (if (not (null desigs)) (seq (achieve σ(?y←(car desigs)) (?goal)) ?task) (no-op))))</pre>	true
declarations	<pre>?p ← (perceive (λ (x) σ(?x←x)(?desc)) ?a ← (achieve σ(?y←(car desigs))(?goal)) ?iter ← (r-how-many ?desc)</pre>
stability	$(\theta \times \text{stability}(\text{?p}) \times \text{stability}(\text{?a}) \times \text{correctness}(\text{?p}))^{?iter}$
correctness	$(\text{correctness}(\text{?p}) \times \text{correctness}(\text{?a}))^{?iter} \times \prod_{i=1}^{?iter-1} \text{Prob}(\neg \text{clipped}(g(a_i) [\text{end}(\text{?a}(\text{iter } i)) \text{end}(t)]))$
completeness	$\text{completeness}(\text{?p}) \times \text{completeness}(\text{?a})$
exec-time	$?iter \times (\text{exec-time}(\text{?p}) + \text{exec-time}(\text{?a}))$
to-be-optimized	{?p, ?a}

Figure 3: Default transformation rule for the RPL command achieve-for-all

A representation structure for a heuristic transformation rule consists of two major components: a representation of the transformation performed and methods for estimating the quality of the plan resulting from the plan transformation.

In the output plan schema, the `perceive` expression returns a set of effective designators `d` for which $((\lambda (?x) ?desc) d)$ holds. A designator [McD90] is a data structure which carries the information necessary to resense and manipulate a perceived object. A correct designator is required to perform actions with an object. If the set of designators returned by the perception subtask is nonempty, the task for achieving the goal for the object described by the first designator in `desigs` is initiated. In the case of a successful achievement, `achieve-for-all` is recursively called until no object with the property `d` can be found. Transforming `achieve-for-all` into a recursive solution

delays the final decision of how to implement the expression and gives the planner time to optimize the recursive call while the interpreter is achieving the goal for the first object. For the subsequent discussion let $?p$ be the expression $(\text{perceive } (\lambda (x) \sigma(?x \leftarrow x)(?desc))))$ and $?a$ be the expression $(\text{achieve } \sigma(?y \leftarrow (\text{car desigs}))(?goal))$.

The planner controls the application of transformation rules based on their expected utility. To compute the utility of a plan using decision-theoretic methods we have to consider all the different timelines that might result from the simulation of the plan and assign utilities and probabilities to them. Clearly, this is not feasible. Therefore we classify the timelines resulting from plan simulations based on whether they contain an irrecoverable error state, whether the postcondition of the plan is satisfied, and based on their average execution time and estimate the probability distribution of timelines over these categories. We can obtain such *a priori* probability distribution by running many sample projections of the plan. The utility of the plan is then defined as the sum of the probability that it succeeds times the utility of success and the average run time of the plan times the utility of efficiency.

This assessment of the plan utility, however, requires running many simulations and is therefore quite expensive in terms of computational resources. For a more efficient generation of plan hypotheses we need fast estimation methods that return rough estimations of the plan quality based the syntactic structure of the plan and prior statistical information about the environment. Our claim is that such estimation methods can be obtained based on the semantics of the plan language, the use of subexpressions, and statistical information. Since we know most of the reasons why a plan might fail we can specify a mathematical model of stability of the plans that are instances of an output plan schema. Such a model is typically a function from subexpressions in the plan, expectations about the environment, and some unknown parameters. The idea is that the unknown parameters can be estimated using the *a priori* statistics of simulations of plan instances of the output plan schema. In the following paragraph we show how such an estimation method can be derived using the stability of the transformation rule `achieve-for-all.default` as an example.

The subtasks of the output plan schema are $?p$, $?g$, and $?task$. The semantics of the `let` expression implies that the `let` expression fails if a subtask for binding local variables or its body fails. Since the output plan schema does not contain code for error recovery, if one of its subtasks runs into an irrecoverable error, then it will do so as well. However, we cannot simply multiply the stabilities of the subtasks because the subtasks interact in various ways and those interactions have to be reflected in the estimation method. These interactions include that $?g$ almost certainly fails if $?p$ returns an invalid designator or if the exact location of the object which is part

of the designator changes between the computation of the designator and the use of the designator in a manipulation action. Other interactions might occur due to the effects of $?p$ and $?g$. Often it is a reasonable assumption that execution errors are equally distributed over the iterations. We choose $(\theta \times \text{stability}(?p) \times \text{correctness}(?p) \times \text{stability}(?a))^{?iter}$ as an estimation method for plan resulting from the default transformation. In this estimation method, θ is an *a priori* estimation of the impact of these interactions on the plan stability and the number of iterations has to be estimated given prior information about the number of objects satisfying d .

2.3 Representation of Domain Knowledge

The task of the planning system is to compute plans that achieve, perceive, maintain, or prevent given aspects of the environment. For uncertain environments, it also includes the simulation of a plan execution in typical states of the environment and reasoning about interactions of environmental events with the plan execution. In order to perform these tasks, the planning system needs canned plans for specific tasks, information about the relevant aspects of the environment, and information about how control programs and aspects of the environment interact and relate with each other. An example of a canned plan is the robot control program (`deliver <obj> <rm>`) that achieves that the object described by the `<obj>` will be in the room `<rm>` after the delivery task.

XFRM uses statistical knowledge about the distributions of events in, and aspects of, environment for the computation of expectations such as “*there might be five blue blocks in the kitchen*”. Such knowledge might read: There are typically between four and twenty blocks in the environment. About half of them are usually blue, the rest are red and yellow (equally distributed). Normally, half of the blocks are in the kitchen; the rest are in the bathroom and the livingroom. If another transportation robot is around, blocks stay in a room, on average, about 40 minutes. In addition to statistical information, knowledge about the domain physics is necessary or at least useful. Two examples are that every object is, at any instant of time, in exactly one room and that the robot can only perceive objects which are in the same room. As a result, it is sufficient to run a filter on sensor data in order to decide whether an object is blue, while it is necessary to go into the kitchen in order to find a block that is in the kitchen.

The internal representations of aspects of the environment are predicates. Predicate descriptions are representational structures that provide the planning system with the necessary information about the relevant aspects in the world. Predicate

Predicate Description IN	
syntax	(in ?ob ?rm)
prob-density-fct	(category ?ob block) → (((?rm = kitchen) 0.5) ((?rm = livingroom) 0.3) ((?rm = bathroom) 0.2)) (category ?ob robot) → (...)
avg-lifetime	(avg-lifetime (in ?ob ?rm) ?time) ← ((category ?ob block) ∧ ?time=40min) ∨ ((category ?ob robot) ∧ ?time=2min)
predicate-features	{functional, perception-constraining}
achieve	achieve.in
perceive	perceive.in
prevent	prevent.in
maintain	maintain.in

RPL construct description		achieve.in
syntax	(achieve (in ?ob ?rm))	
postcondition	holds((in ?ob ?rm) end)	
execution	in-achieve.default	
generation	{ach-in.1 ach-in.2}	
debugging	{ach-in-dbg.1 ach-in-dbg.2}	
scheduler	achieve-in.scheduler	

heuristic transformation in-achieve.default	
(achieve (in ?ob ?rm))	true
↓	
(deliver ?ob ?rm)	
stability	0.98
correctness	0.99
completeness	0.8
exec-time	5min

Figure 4: Representation structure for the predicate “in” in XFRM.

descriptions associate methods for achieving, perceiving, maintaining, and preventing a certain aspect of the world with the predicate formalizing that aspect. Besides this indexing information, predicate descriptions also contain the statistical information we have discussed in the last paragraph. In the case that the situation in which a plan is to be executed is uncertain, this prior information allows the planning system to construct typical situations in the environment through sampling. Also, if the domain physics is uncertain or only partially known, the planner can generate random events during the simulation given the distribution of environmental events.

Figure 4 shows the predicate description of the predicate in. Information about typical situations in the environment can be inferred from the probability density functions (slot prob-density-fct) which specify the likelihood of aspects of the environ-

ment. Information about the occurrence of events in the environment are stored in the form of average lifetimes of predicates. The slot `predicate-features` specifies that the predicate in is a functional predicate, i.e. at any time an object is in exactly one room. It also specifies that the predicate is perception constraining. The slots `achieve`, `perceive`, `prevent`, and `maintain` are references to RPL construct descriptions. The RPL construct description for achieving that an object will be in a certain room is shown in figure 4b and the corresponding default rule in figure 4c.

3 Planning Algorithm

The planning system is designed according to the GENERATE-TEST-DEBUG (GTD) control strategy [SD87] and consists of a PLAN HYPOTHESIZER, a PLAN TESTER, and a PLAN DEBUGGER. The PLAN HYPOTHESIZER proposes plans that are promising under heuristic evaluation. The quality of promising plan hypotheses is evaluated globally by the PLAN TESTER in order to check whether the hypotheses are still promising when the context of the plan and task interactions are considered. Finally, the PLAN DEBUGGER transforms plans in order to avoid possible problems detected by the PLAN TESTER.

3.1 Generation of Plan Hypotheses

The PLAN HYPOTHESIZER transforms plans heuristically based on their syntactic structure. The plans or subplans which would result from the application of these transformations are then rated according to a heuristic evaluation function which estimates their quality. The purpose of the PLAN HYPOTHESIZER is the efficient generation of hypothetical plans which are—with respect to the rough heuristic estimations—significantly better than the plan we started with. In order to achieve the required efficiency, the estimation methods used by the PLAN HYPOTHESIZER are based on numerical estimations of the context sensitivity of tasks. It is obvious that statistical estimation makes hypothesis generation very efficient but also may yield unreliable results.

The basic algorithm for generating plan hypotheses is straightforward. The PLAN HYPOTHESIZER keeps a list of subexpressions that are to be optimized. The list is ordered according to the expected gain in plan quality resulting from the transformation of these subexpressions. The gain in plan quality is approximated by the difference between the quality of the current plan with the fully optimized and the

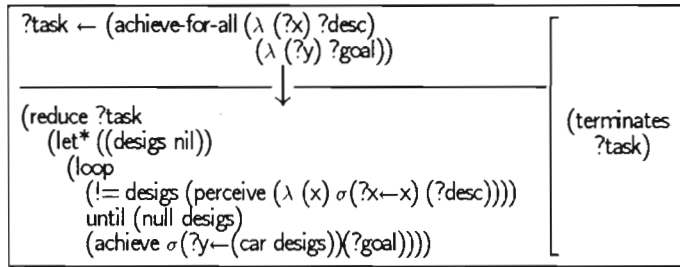


Figure 5: GENERATOR transformation ach-for-all.1

unoptimized subexpression. Ordering planning tasks according to their expected gain in plan quality prevents spending too much computation time on the optimization of unimportant subexpressions.

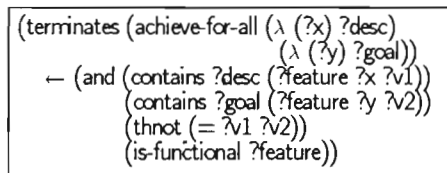


Figure 6: Procedure for proving the termination of an achieve-for-all expression

While there are expressions to be optimized, the `PLAN HYPOTHESIZER` takes the first one and retrieves the corresponding `RPL` construct description. Now the default transformation of the construct description is applied, the quality of the default plan estimated, and the result set to be the best transformation computed so far. The next step is to run the scheduler in order to determine the set of transformation rules which should be checked for applicability, their order, and the computational resources for each of them. The transformation rules are checked according to the computed schedule. Checking a transformation rule consists of matching its input plan schema against the expression, checking its applicability condition, and computing the quality of the resulting expression. If the estimated quality is higher than the quality of the best transformation, it is set to be the best transformation so far. The generation

of plan hypotheses is an algorithm that can be interrupted anytime and returns the best transformation computed. Better transformations can be expected if more computation time is given.

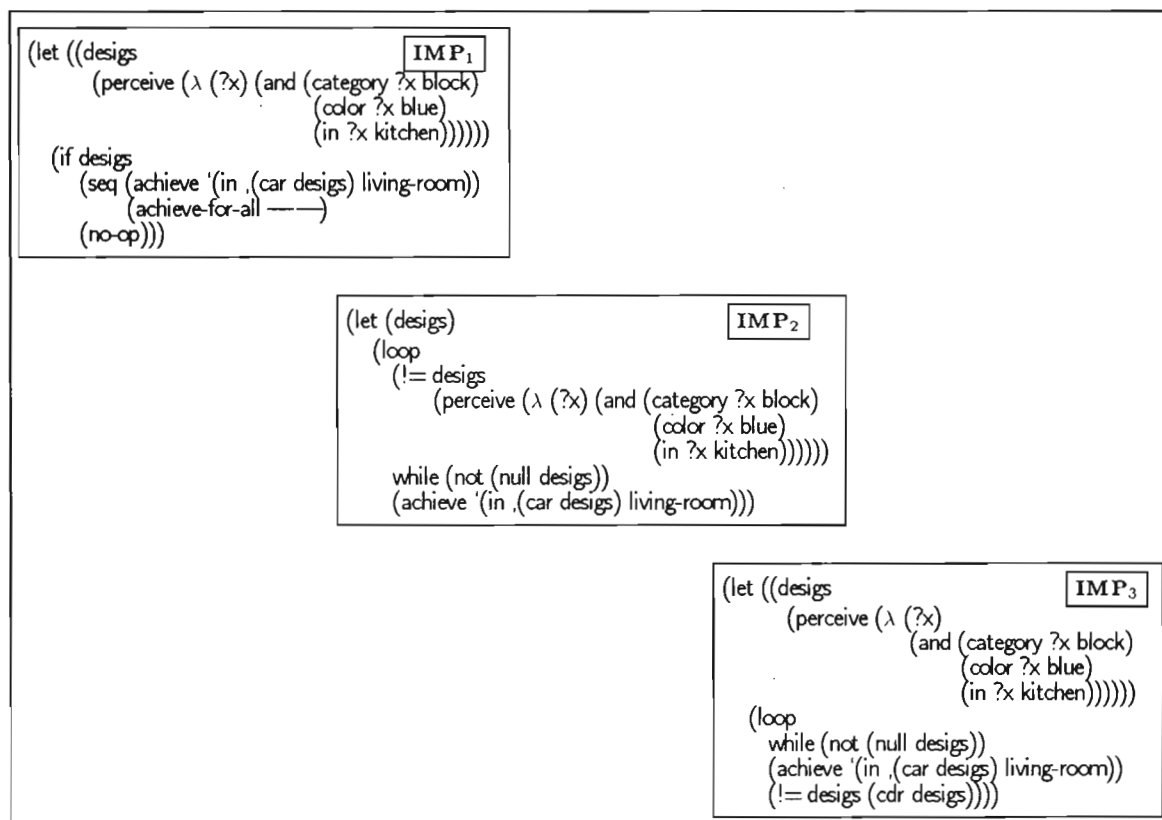


Figure 7: Different implementations for the task “get all the blue blocks in the kitchen to the livingroom.”

Applicability conditions are checked by a collection of fast special-purpose decision procedures for termination proofs, probabilistic decision rules, and other categories of proofs useful for, and common in, plan transformation. An example for such a decision procedure is the PROLOG-like procedure `terminates` (see figure 6), which checks whether a given `achieve-for-all` expression terminates. The toplevel task in figure 1 terminates because any block that has been delivered to the livingroom

cannot be in the kitchen anymore and thus, the number of blue blocks in the kitchen is decreasing. This common type of termination proofs is implemented by the PROLOG procedure `terminates`, which checks whether there is a feature `?feature` common to all objects matching `?desc` which is functional and provably changed by achieving `?goal`. The information about whether a feature is functional, i.e. whether it can only have one value at a time, is contained in the slot `predicate-features` of predicate descriptions.

Running the default transformation and the generator transformation rules of the RPL construct description of `achieve-for-all` the PLAN HYPOTHESIZER proposes three different hypotheses for the implementation of the toplevel task (see figure 7). The first implementation, proposed by the transformation rule `ach-for-all.default` is a recursive solution; the robot senses the kitchen and perceives the blue blocks in the kitchen. If the set of perceived blue blocks is not empty, the robot gets a blue block into the livingroom and calls the `achieve-for-all` task recursively. The second implementation performs a loop consisting of the perception and achievement steps instead of calling (`achieve-for-all — —`) recursively. In the third solution, descriptors for all the blue blocks in the kitchen are computed in advance and then for each of these descriptors the achievement task is executed.

The `achieve` task fails if the robot cannot grasp the block it has to get into the livingroom. This happens if designators have been computed incorrectly or if the location of the block has changed between the computation of the designator and the grasp step. Based on these considerations the planner compares the quality of the different implementations; in the first and second, the robot grasps a blue block immediately after the corresponding designator has been computed and, therefore, the location of the block cannot change in the meantime. In the third implementation, all the designators are computed in advance. Knowing the location of each blue block in the kitchen gives the robot more information for scheduling the delivery. For instance, the robot can deliver the blocks arranged in stacks in a topdown order so to avoid restacking. The difference between the first and the second implementation is that the first implementation delays the decision how to perform the `achieve-for-all` task. It gives the planner time to generate a better plan for (`achieve-for-all — —`) while the robot is already delivering the first blue block. On the other hand, the second implementation does not have to be further planned which frees planning resources for the optimization of other subtasks.

The quality of the plan is the weighted sum of the different aspects of plan quality: stability, correctness, execution time, and completeness. The robot can specify preferences between aspects of plan quality by changing the weights of the aspects. `IMP2`, which is proposed by transformation rule `ach-for-all.1`, is preferred over `IMP3` if

the average lifetime of the location of a block is comparatively low and/or the weight assigned to the robustness of a plan is higher than the weight assigned to the runtime efficiency. `IMP1`, the plan hypothesis generated by the default transformation, can be returned by the `PLAN HYPOTHESIZER` if the generation of plan hypotheses has been interrupted before a better hypothesis was generated.

3.2 Test of Plan Hypotheses

The plan proposed by the `PLAN HYPOTHESIZER` is passed to the `PLAN TESTER`. The `PLAN TESTER` is a query component on top of a temporal projection module. It gets a plan hypothesis as its input and generates a set of simulations. Based on these simulations it estimates the stability, the correctness, and the average execution time of the plan hypothesis. In addition, it computes the postconditions that have not been achieved and the tasks that caused irrecoverable errors.

The `PLAN TESTER` samples projections (simulations) of the current plan hypothesis until it is interrupted or it runs out of time. It performs the following loop: (1) generate a random initial situation according to the probability density functions in the relevant predicate descriptions; (2) project the plan hypothesis for the initial situation. (During the projection, events in the environment are generated randomly according to the average lifetime defined for predicate descriptions.) (3) analyze the projection by checking whether an irrecoverable error occurred, whether the postcondition has been achieved, and how long the simulated execution took.

3.3 Debugging Plan Hypotheses

The `PLAN DEBUGGER` gets a set of projections of the current plan hypothesis as its input and produces a debugged plan by running the transformation rules in the `debug` slots of the relevant `RPL` construct descriptions (see [Sim88] for a theory of plan debugging). The debugged version of the plan is passed to the plan tester for further testing. The `TEST-DEBUG` cycle terminates when the `PLAN TESTER` module cannot find any more bugs in the hypothesis. Figure 8 shows a debug rule for the `achieve-for-all` construct. The applicability conditions of debug rules are formalized in `XFRM-ML` (`XFRM` Meta Language). `XFRM-ML` is a `PROLOG`-like interface to, and an explicit and declarative query language for, plans, execution protocols, and simulations. For efficiency reasons, `XFRM-ML` operates on basic datastructures like projections, tasknets, and timelines instead of on a `PROLOG`-like database. Using `XFRM-ML`, debug transformation rules can retrieve and reason about task failures,

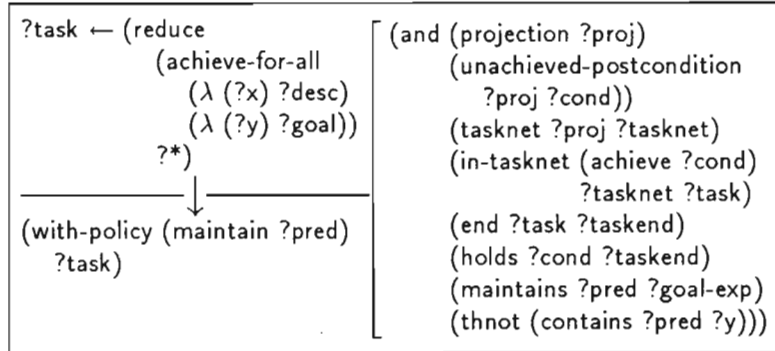


Figure 8: Debug transformation rule for the RPL command `achieve-for-all`

unachieved postconditions, perceptual confusions, properties of the environment at different stages of plan execution, etc.

`xfrm-ml` provides a set of predefined predicates on tasknets, timelines and projections. For instance, the query `(prolog '(and (projection ?proj) (unachieved-postcondition ?proj ?cond)))` succeeds if one of the projections in the current planning cycle did not achieve its postcondition. In this case the query returns a list of bindings, where `?proj` is bound to the projection in which the plan could not achieve its postcondition and `?cond` bound to the condition which could not be achieved.

Expressions in `xfrm-ml` are used to specify application conditions of debug rules. The applicability condition of the debug transformation in figure 8 checks first whether there is an unachieved postcondition `?cond`, then tests whether the robot has tried to achieve the postcondition, i.e. whether `(achieve ?cond)` is in the tasknet. If the task is not in the task network the robot has not recognized that `!SK318` satisfies `(λ (x) (and (category x block) (color x blue) (in x kitchen)))` and the perception task needs to be debugged. Next `terminates` checks whether `?cond` holds at the end of `(achieve ?cond)`. If not, `(achieve ?cond)` needs to be debugged. Otherwise after the goal is achieved it is invalidated by another event after it has been achieved. In this case we compute a predicate that maintains the goal and which is itself easy to maintain. Let us assume that the database contains the fact `(maintains (locked ?rm) (in ?x ?rm))`. This fact formalizes that no object can appear in, and disappear from, a locked room. The query `(maintains ?pred (in !SK318 livingroom))` would succeed and bind `?pred` to `(locked`

livingroom). The debug transformation would return `(with-policy (maintain '(locked livingroom)) ?task)` where `?task` is bound to the current plan. Note, that in order to debug the plan we apply the debug rules of the original abstract task. This is possible because RPL plans contain explicit representations of the transformations performed (reduce statement).

4 Conclusion

In this paper we have described a representation scheme and the basic planning algorithms for a robot planner. The planner is implemented as described this paper. Several features of the planner make it attractive for robot planning. The planning algorithm is time-dependent and proposes executable plans for any allocation of computation time. The approach is extendible for expressive robot control languages since planning knowledge is encoded explicitly in the form of transformation rules. And, finally, uncertainty is handled explicitly by associating utility functions with the heuristic transformation rules. These utility functions allow the planner to choose among alternative plans rather than refining an abstract and provably successful plan.

The paper describes what knowledge is necessary for this category of planners and how to represent and index it. This research, however, is still in an early stage and a lot remains to be done before we have a powerful theory of planning reactive behavior. The most critical issue in this framework are the utility functions for heuristic transformation rules. The basic approach is to learn these estimation methods from running a large number of sample simulations. How to verify learn or at least verify these estimation methods is the next step towards a theory of decision-theoretic transformational plan generation. The ultimate goal is to view these estimations as probably approximate estimations for the quality of a plan computed by sampling simulations. Another important issue is that plan qualities like resource consumption and partial goal fulfillment are not yet taken into consideration.

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