

Principles of AI Planning

1. Introduction

Malte Helmert

Albert-Ludwigs-Universität Freiburg

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Lecturer

Dr. Malte Helmert

- email: `helmert@informatik.uni-freiburg.de`
- office: room 052-00-044
- consultation: by appointment (email)

Assistants

Gabi Röger and Patrick Eyerich

- email: `roeger@informatik.uni-freiburg.de`,
`eyerich@informatik.uni-freiburg.de`
- office: room 052-00-030
- consultation: by appointment (email)

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Lectures

- time: Tuesday 11:15-13:00, Friday 11:15-12:00
- place: SR 051-00-031

Exercises

- time: Friday 12:15-13:00
- place: SR 051-00-031

Web site

<http://www.informatik.uni-freiburg.de/~ki/teaching/ws0809/aip/>

- main page: course description
- lecture page: slides
- exercise page: assignments, model solutions, software
- bibliography page: literature references and papers

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Teaching materials

- no textbook, no script
- slides handed out during lectures and available on the web
- additional resources: bibliography page on web + **ask us!**

Acknowledgment:

- slides based on earlier courses by Jussi Rintanen, Bernhard Nebel and Malte Helmert

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Target audience

Students of Computer Science:

- Diploma, advanced study period (\sim 4th year)
- Master of Science
- Bachelor of Science, \sim 3rd year

Students of Applied Computer Science:

- Master of Science, \sim 2nd year

Other students:

- advanced study period (\sim 4th year)

Course prerequisites:

- **propositional logic**: syntax and semantics
- **foundations of AI**: search, heuristic search
- **computational complexity theory**: decision problems, reductions, NP-completeness

- 6 ECTS points
- special lecture in concentration subject
Artificial Intelligence and Robotics
- oral exam for degree courses:
 - BSc in Computer Science
 - MSc in Applied Computer Science
- written exam for degree courses:
 - MSc in Computer Science
 - diploma in Computer Science
- neither Computer Science nor Applied Computer Science
~> contact us!
- if too few written exam candidates, oral exam for everyone

Exercises (written assignments):

- handed out on Tuesdays
- due Tuesday following week, before the lecture
- discussed Friday that week
- may solve in groups of two students ($2 \neq 3$)
- copied/plagiarized solutions: 0 marks
- may earn bonus marks for oral/written exam

Projects (programming assignments):

- handed out every now and then
- more time to work on than for exercises
- may solve in groups of two students ($2 = 2$)
- copied/plagiarized solutions: 0 marks
- language: Java (maybe open for some projects)
- solutions that obviously do not work: 0 marks
 - may fix bugs uncovered by our testing
if still within submission deadline
- may earn bonus marks for oral/written exam

Bonus marks

- may earn up to 10 bonus marks in exercises
- may earn up to 10 bonus marks in projects
- \rightsquigarrow max. possible: 20 bonus marks
- 10 bonus marks $\approx \frac{1}{3}$ grade improvement (e. g., 1.7 \rightarrow 1.3)

Bonus marks from exercises

- compute total score percentage for the semester
- $\leq 50\%$: no bonus marks
- 1 bonus mark for each 5% above 50%

Bonus marks from projects

- no minimum requirement: each project directly yields a certain number of bonus marks
- max. bonus marks from projects capped at 10

What is planning?

- intelligent decision making: What actions to take?
- general-purpose problem representation
- algorithms for solving any problem expressible in the representation
- application areas:
 - high-level planning for intelligent robots
 - autonomous systems: NASA Deep Space One, . . .
 - problem solving (single-agent games like Rubik's cube)

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Summary

Why is planning difficult?

- solutions to classical planning problems are **paths from an initial state to a goal state in the transition graph**
 - efficiently solvable by Dijkstra's algorithm in $O(|V| \log |V| + |E|)$ time
 - Why don't we solve all planning problems this way?
- state spaces may be **huge**: $10^9, 10^{12}, 10^{15}, \dots$ states
 - constructing the transition graph is infeasible!
 - planning algorithms try to **avoid constructing whole graph**
- planning algorithms often are – but not guaranteed to be – more efficient than obvious solution methods constructing the transition graph and using e. g. Dijkstra's algorithm

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Different classes of problems

- **dynamics**: deterministic, nondeterministic or probabilistic
 - **observability**: full, partial or none
 - **horizon**: finite or infinite
 - ...
- 1 classical planning
 - 2 conditional planning with full observability
 - 3 conditional planning with partial observability
 - 4 conformant planning
 - 5 Markov decision processes (MDP)
 - 6 partially observable MDPs (POMDP)

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Properties of the world: dynamics

Deterministic dynamics

Action + current state **uniquely** determine successor state.

Nondeterministic dynamics

For each action and current state there may be **several possible** successor states.

Probabilistic dynamics

For each action and current state there is a **probability distribution** over possible successor states.

Analogy: deterministic versus nondeterministic automata

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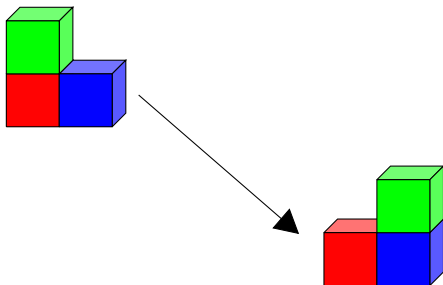
Objectives

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Deterministic dynamics example

Moving objects with a robotic hand:
move the green block onto the blue block.



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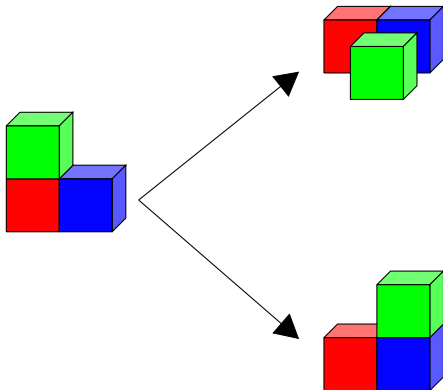
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Nondeterministic dynamics example

Moving objects with an **unreliable** robotic hand:
move the green block onto the blue block.



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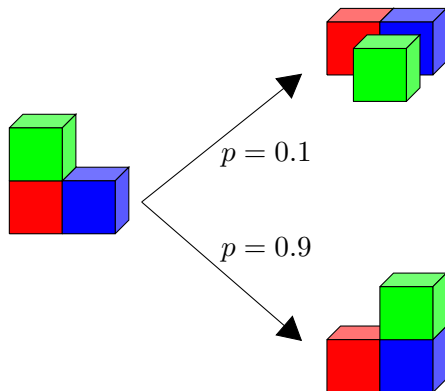
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Probabilistic dynamics example

Moving objects with an **unreliable** robotic hand:
move the green block onto the blue block.



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Properties of the world: observability

Full observability

Observations/sensing determine current world state **uniquely**.

Partial observability

Observations determine current world state **only partially**: we only know that current state is one of several possible ones.

No observability

There are **no observations** to narrow down possible current states. However, can use knowledge of **action dynamics** to deduce which states we might be in.

Consequence: If observability is not full, must represent the **knowledge** an agent has.

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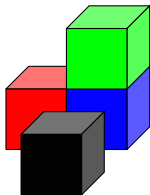
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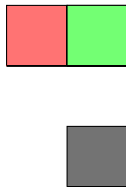
Summary

What difference does observability make?

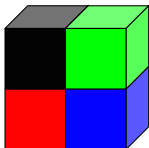
Camera A



Camera B



Goal



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Different objectives

- 1 Reach a goal state.
 - Example: Earn 500 euro.
- 2 Stay in goal states indefinitely (infinite horizon).
 - Example: Never allow the bank account balance to be negative.
- 3 Maximize the probability of reaching a goal state.
 - Example: To be able to finance buying a house by 2018 study hard and save money.
- 4 Collect the maximal *expected* rewards/minimal expected costs (infinite horizon).
 - Example: Maximize your future income.
- 5 ...

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Relation to games and game theory

- Game theory addresses decision making in multi-agent setting: “Assuming that the other agents are rational, what do I have to do to achieve my goals?”
- Game theory is related to **multi-agent planning**.
- In this course we concentrate on **single-agent planning**.
- Some of the techniques are also applicable to special cases of multi-agent planning.
 - **Example:** Finding a **winning strategy** of a game like chess. In this case it is not necessary to distinguish between **an intelligent opponent** and **a randomly behaving opponent**.
- Game theory in general is about **optimal strategies** which do not necessarily guarantee winning. For example card games like poker do not have a winning strategy.

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What do you learn in this course?

- “big picture” of different kinds of planning problems
 - **classification** according to dynamics, observability, objectives, . . .
 - **computational complexity** for different problem classes
- **algorithms** for solving different problem classes, with an emphasis on the **classical** (“simplest”) setting:
 - algorithms based on **heuristic search**
 - algorithms based on satisfiability testing (**SAT**)
 - algorithms based on exhaustive search with logic-based data structures (**BDDs**)

Many of these techniques are applicable to problems outside AI as well.

- **hands-on experience** with a classical planner (optional)

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