UNI

Principles of AI Planning

5. Planning as search: progression and regression



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Planning as (classical) search

Search

Classification

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Regression

What do we mean by search?



- Search is a very generic term.
- --- Every algorithm that tries out various alternatives can be said to "search" in some way.
 - Here, we mean classical search algorithms.
 - Search nodes are expanded to generate successor nodes.
 - Examples: breadth-first search, A*, hill-climbing, ...
 - To be brief, we just say search in the following (not "classical search").

Introduction

Do you know this stuff already?



- Search Introduction
- i rogressioi
- Regression

- We assume prior knowledge of basic search algorithms:
 - uninformed vs. informed
 - systematic vs. local
- There will be a small refresher in the next chapter.
- Background: Russell & Norvig, Artificial Intelligence –
 A Modern Approach, Ch. 3 (all of it), Ch. 4 (local search)

Search in planning



- Introduction
- Regression

- search: one of the big success stories of Al
- many planning algorithms based on classical AI search (we'll see some other algorithms later, though)
- will be the focus of this and the following chapters (the majority of the course)

Satisficing or optimal planning?



Must carefully distinguish two different problems:

- satisficing planning: any solution is OK (although shorter solutions typically preferred)
- optimal planning: plans must have shortest possible length

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Summary

Both are often solved by search, but:

- details are very different
- almost no overlap between good techniques for satisficing planning and good techniques for optimal planning
- many problems that are trivial for satisficing planners are impossibly hard for optimal planners



How to apply search to planning? → many choices to make!

Choice 1: Search direction

- progression: forward from initial state to goal
- regression: backward from goal states to initial state
- bidirectional search

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How to apply search to planning? → many choices to make!

Choice 2: Search space representation

- search nodes are associated with states (state-space search)
- search nodes are associated with sets of states

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How to apply search to planning? → many choices to make!

Choice 3: Search algorithm

- uninformed search: depth-first, breadth-first, iterative depth-first, ...
- heuristic search (systematic): greedy best-first, A*, Weighted A*, IDA*, ...
- heuristic search (local): hill-climbing, simulated annealing, beam search, ...

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How to apply search to planning? → many choices to make!

Choice 4: Search control

- heuristics for informed search algorithms
- pruning techniques: invariants, symmetry elimination, partial-order reduction, helpful actions pruning, ...

Classification

Search-based satisficing planners





FF (Hoffmann & Nebel, 2001)

- search direction: forward search
- search space representation: single states
- search algorithm: enforced hill-climbing (informed local)
- heuristic: FF heuristic (inadmissible)
- pruning technique: helpful actions (incomplete)

→ one of the best satisficing planners

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Fast Downward Stone Soup (Helmert et al., 2011)

- search direction: forward search
- search space representation: single states
- search algorithm: A* (informed systematic)
- heuristic: multiple admissible heuristics combined into a heuristic portfolio (LM-cut, M&S, blind, ...)
- pruning technique: none

→ one of the best optimal planners

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Our plan for the next lectures



Choices to make:

- search direction: progression/regression/both
- search space representation: states/sets of states → this chapter
- search algorithm: uninformed/heuristic; systematic/local → next chapter
- search control: heuristics, pruning techniques → following chapters

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Planning by forward search: progression



Progression: Computing the successor state $app_o(s)$ of a state s with respect to an operator o.

Progression planners find solutions by forward search:

- start from initial state
- iteratively pick a previously generated state and progress it through an operator, generating a new state
- solution found when a goal state generated

pro: very easy and efficient to implement

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Search space representation in progression planners





Two alternative search spaces for progression planners:

- search nodes correspond to states
 - when the same state is generated along different paths, it is not considered again (duplicate detection)
 - pro: save time to consider same state again
 - con: memory intensive (must maintain closed list)
- search nodes correspond to operator sequences
 - different operator sequences may lead to identical states (transpositions); search does not notice this
 - pro: can be very memory-efficient
 - con: much wasted work (often exponentially slower)
- → first alternative usually preferable in planning (unlike many classical search benchmarks like 15-puzzle)

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Progression

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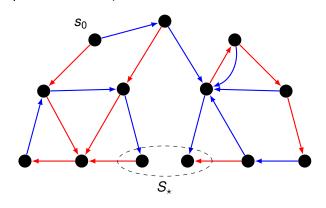
Example where search nodes correspond to operator sequences (no duplicate detection)



Progress

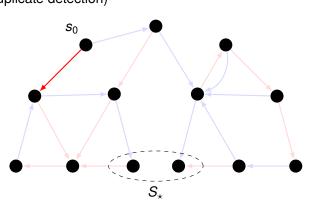
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Example where search nodes correspond to operator sequences (no duplicate detection)



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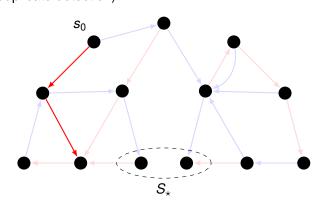
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Example where search nodes correspond to operator sequences (no duplicate detection)



Search

Progress

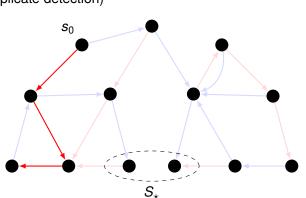
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Example where search nodes correspond to operator sequences (no duplicate detection)



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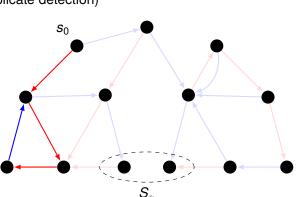
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Example where search nodes correspond to operator sequences (no duplicate detection)



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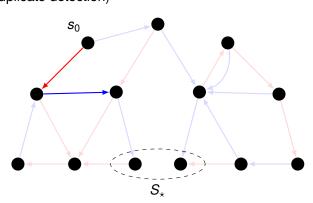
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Example where search nodes correspond to operator sequences (no duplicate detection)



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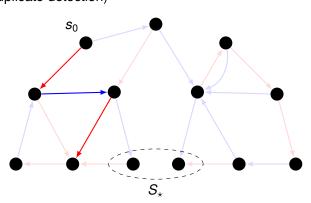
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Example where search nodes correspond to operator sequences (no duplicate detection)



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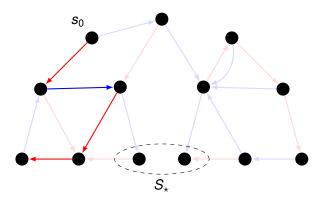
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Example where search nodes correspond to operator sequences (no duplicate detection)



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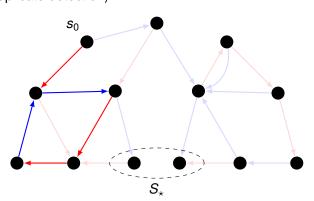
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Example where search nodes correspond to operator sequences (no duplicate detection)



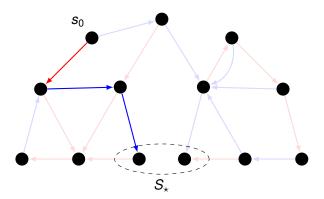
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Example where search nodes correspond to operator sequences (no duplicate detection)



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Regression

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Forward search vs. backward search



Going through a transition graph in forward and backward directions is not symmetric:

- forward search starts from a single initial state; backward search starts from a set of goal states
- when applying an operator o in a state s in forward direction, there is a unique successor state s'; if we applied operator o to end up in state s', there can be several possible predecessor states s

→ most natural representation for backward search in planning associates sets of states with search nodes

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Summarv

Planning by backward search: regression



Regression: Computing the possible predecessor states $regr_o(G)$ of a set of states G with respect to the last operator o that was applied.

Regression planners find solutions by backward search:

- start from set of goal states
- iteratively pick a previously generated state set and regress it through an operator, generating a new state set
- solution found when a generated state set includes the initial state

Pro: can handle many states simultaneously
Con: basic operations complicated and expensive

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Search space representation in regression planners





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Summary

identify state sets with logical formulae (again):

- search nodes correspond to state sets
- each state set is represented by a logical formula: φ represents $\{s \in S \mid s \models \varphi\}$
- many basic search operations like detecting duplicates are NP-hard or coNP-hard







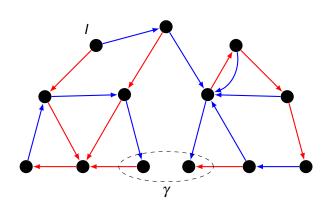
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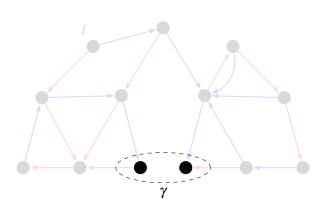
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 $\varphi_1 = regr_{\longrightarrow}(\gamma)$



$$\varphi_1$$
 —



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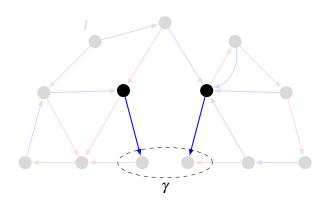
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$$\varphi_1 = regr_{\longrightarrow}(\gamma)$$

$$\varphi_2 = regr_{\longrightarrow}(\varphi_1)$$

$$\varphi_2 \longrightarrow \varphi_1 \longrightarrow \gamma$$

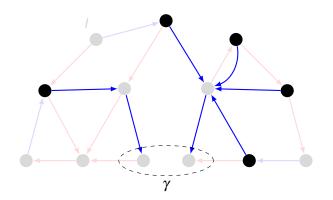
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$$\varphi_1 = regr_{\longrightarrow}(\gamma)$$

$$\varphi_3 \longrightarrow \varphi_2 \longrightarrow \varphi_1 \longrightarrow \gamma$$

$$\varphi_2 = regr_{\longrightarrow}(\varphi_1)$$

$$\varphi_3 = regr_{\longrightarrow}(\varphi_2), I \models \varphi_3$$

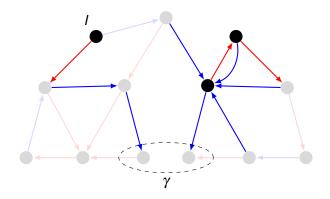


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Definition (STRIPS planning task)

A planning task is a STRIPS planning task if all operators are STRIPS operators and the goal is a conjunction of atoms.

Regression for STRIPS planning tasks is very simple:

- Goals are conjunctions of atoms $a_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge a_n$.
- First step: Choose an operator that makes none of a_1, \ldots, a_n false.
- Second step: Remove goal atoms achieved by the operator (if any) and add its preconditions.
- Outcome of regression is again conjunction of atoms.

Optimization: only consider operators making some a_i true

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Definition (STRIPS regression)

Let $\varphi = \varphi_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge \varphi_n$ be a conjunction of atoms, and let $o = \langle \chi, e \rangle$ be a STRIPS operator which adds the atoms a_1, \ldots, a_k and deletes the atoms d_1, \ldots, d_l .

The STRIPS regression of φ with respect to o is

$$sregr_o(\varphi) := egin{cases} \bot & \text{if } a_i = d_j \text{ for some } i,j \\ \bot & \text{if } \varphi_i = d_j \text{ for some } i,j \\ \chi \land \bigwedge (\{\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_n\} \setminus \{a_1, \dots, a_k\}) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Note: $sregr_o(\varphi)$ is again a conjunction of atoms, or \bot .

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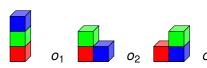
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STRIPS regression example





Note: Predecessor states are in general not unique. This picture is just for illustration purposes.

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Regression for general planning tasks



- With disjunctions and conditional effects, things become more tricky. How to regress $a \lor (b \land c)$ with respect to $\langle q, d \rhd b \rangle$?
- The story about goals and subgoals and fulfilling subgoals, as in the STRIPS case, is no longer useful.
- We present a general method for doing regression for any formula and any operator.
- Now we extensively use the idea of representing sets of states as formulae.

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Definition (effect precondition)

The effect precondition $EPC_I(e)$ for literal I and effect e is defined as follows:

$$EPC_{l}(l) = \top$$

$$EPC_{l}(l') = \bot \text{ if } l \neq l' \text{ (for literals } l')$$

$$EPC_{l}(e_{1} \wedge \cdots \wedge e_{n}) = EPC_{l}(e_{1}) \vee \cdots \vee EPC_{l}(e_{n})$$

$$EPC_{l}(\chi \rhd e) = EPC_{l}(e) \wedge \chi$$

Intuition: $EPC_I(e)$ describes the situations in which effect e causes literal I to become true.

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Effect precondition examples



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$$\begin{aligned} EPC_a(b \wedge c) &= \bot \lor \bot \equiv \bot \\ EPC_a(a \wedge (b \rhd a)) &= \top \lor (\top \wedge b) \equiv \top \\ EPC_a((c \rhd a) \wedge (b \rhd a)) &= (\top \wedge c) \lor (\top \wedge b) \equiv c \lor b \end{aligned}$$

Lemma (A)

Let s be a state, I a literal and e an effect. Then $I \in [e]_s$ if and only if $s \models EPC_I(e)$.

Proof.

Induction on the structure of the effect e.

Base case 1, e = I: $I \in [I]_S = \{I\}$ by definition, and $S \models EPC_I(I) = T$ by definition. Both sides of the equivalence are true.

Base case 2, e = l' for some literal $l' \neq l$: $l \notin [l']_s = \{l'\}$ by definition, and $s \not\models EPC_l(l') = \bot$ by definition. Both sides are false.

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Lemma (A)

Let s be a state, I a literal and e an effect. Then $I \in [e]_s$ if and only if $s \models EPC_I(e)$.

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Lemma (A)

Let s be a state, I a literal and e an effect. Then $I \in [e]_s$ if and only if $s \models EPC_I(e)$.

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Inductive case 1, e = e_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge e_n:
 l \in [e]_s iff l \in [e_1]_s \cup \cdots \cup [e_n]_s
                                                                   (Def [e_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge e_n]_s)
             iff l \in [e']_s for some e' \in \{e_1, \dots, e_n\}
             iff s \models EPC_l(e^l) for some e^l \in \{e_1, \dots, e_n\}
                                                                                             (IH)
             iff s \models EPC_l(e_1) \lor \cdots \lor EPC_l(e_n)
             iff s \models EPC_l(e_1 \land \cdots \land e_n).
                                                                                   (Def EPC)
```

General case

```
Inductive case 1, e = e_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge e_n:
 l \in [e]_s iff l \in [e_1]_s \cup \cdots \cup [e_n]_s
                                                                      (Def [e_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge e_n]_s)
              iff l \in [e']_s for some e' \in \{e_1, \dots, e_n\}
              iff s \models EPC_l(e') for some e' \in \{e_1, \dots, e_n\}
                                                                                                  (IH)
              iff s \models EPC_l(e_1) \lor \cdots \lor EPC_l(e_n)
              iff s \models EPC_l(e_1 \land \cdots \land e_n).
                                                                                       (Def EPC)
Inductive case 2, e = \chi \triangleright e':
 l \in [\chi \triangleright e']_s iff l \in [e']_s and s \models \chi
                                                                                (Def [\chi \triangleright e']_s)
                       iff s \models EPC_i(e^i) and s \models \chi
                                                                                                   (IH)
                       iff s \models EPC_{l}(e') \land \chi
                       iff s \models EPC_l(\chi \triangleright e').
                                                                                       (Def EPC)
```

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Effect preconditions: connection to normal form





Remark: EPC vs. effect normal form

Notice that in terms of $EPC_a(e)$, any operator $\langle \chi, e \rangle$ can be expressed in effect normal form as

$$\left\langle \chi, \bigwedge_{a \in A} ((EPC_a(e) \rhd a) \land (EPC_{\neg a}(e) \rhd \neg a)) \right\rangle$$

where A is the set of all state variables.

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Regressing state variables



The formula $EPC_a(e) \lor (a \land \neg EPC_{\neg a}(e))$ expresses the value of state variable $a \in A$ after applying o in terms of values of state variables before applying o.

Either:

- a became true, or
- a was true before and it did not become false.

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Regressing state variables: examples





Example

Let $e = (b \triangleright a) \land (c \triangleright \neg a) \land b \land \neg d$.

variable x	$ EPC_x(e) \lor (x \land \neg EPC_{\neg x}(e)) $
а	$b \lor (a \land \neg c)$
b	
С	$\perp \vee (c \wedge \neg \perp) \equiv c$
d	$\perp \vee (d \wedge \neg \top) \equiv \perp$

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Lemma (B)

Let a be a state variable, $o = \langle \chi, e \rangle$ an operator, s a state, and $s' = app_o(s)$. Then $s \models EPC_a(e) \lor (a \land \neg EPC_{\neg a}(e))$ if and only if $s' \models a$.

Proof

(⇒): Assume $s \models EPC_a(e) \lor (a \land \neg EPC_{\neg a}(e))$. Do a case analysis on the two disjuncts.

- Assume that $s \models EPC_a(e)$. By Lemma A, we have $a \in [e]_s$ and hence $s' \models a$.
- Assume that $s \models a \land \neg EPC_{\neg a}(e)$. By Lemma A, we have $\neg a \notin [e]_s$. Hence a remains true in s'.

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Lemma (B)

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Proof (ctd.)

(\Leftarrow): We showed that if the formula is true in s, then a is true in s'. For the second part, we show that if the formula is false in s, then a is false in s'.

- So assume $s \not\models EPC_a(e) \lor (a \land \neg EPC_{\neg a}(e))$
- Then $s \models \neg EPC_a(e) \land (\neg a \lor EPC_{\neg a}(e))$ (de Morgan).
- Case distinction: *a* is true or *a* is false in *s*.
 - 1 Assume that $s \models a$. Now $s \models EPC_{\neg a}(e)$ because $s \models \neg a \lor EPC_{\neg a}(e)$.
 - Hence by Lemma A $\neg a \in [e]_s$ and we get $s' \not\models a$.
 - 2 Assume that $s \not\models a$. Because $s \models \neg EPC_a(e)$, by Lemma A we get $a \notin [e]_s$ and hence $s' \not\models a$.

Therefore in both cases $s' \not\models a$.

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 - Hence by Lemma A $\neg a \in [e]_s$ and we get $s' \not\models a$.
 - 2 Assume that s \notin a. Because s \notin ¬EPC_a(e), by Lemma A we get a \notin [e]_s and hence s' \notin a.

Therefore in both cases $s' \not\models a$.

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 - Assume that $s \models a$. Now $s \models EPC_{\neg a}(e)$ because $s \models \neg a \lor EPC_{\neg a}(e)$.
 - Hence by Lemma A $\neg a \in [e]_s$ and we get $s' \not\models a$.
 - 2 Assume that $s \not\models a$. Because $s \models \neg EPC_a(e)$, by Lemma A we get $a \notin [e]_s$ and hence $s' \not\models a$.

Therefore in both cases $s' \not\models a$.

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Practical issue:

(\Leftarrow): We showed that if the formula is true in s, then a is true in s'. For the second part, we show that if the formula is false in s, then a is false in s'.

- So assume $s \not\models EPC_a(e) \lor (a \land \neg EPC_{\neg a}(e))$.
- Then $s \models \neg EPC_a(e) \land (\neg a \lor EPC_{\neg a}(e))$ (de Morgan).
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Regression: general definition



We base the definition of regression on formulae $EPC_{I}(e)$.

Definition (general regression)

Let φ be a propositional formula and $o = \langle \chi, e \rangle$ an operator. The regression of φ with respect to o is

$$regr_o(\varphi) = \chi \wedge \varphi_r \wedge \kappa$$

where

- φ_r is obtained from φ by replacing each $a \in A$ by $EPC_a(e) \lor (a \land \neg EPC_{\neg a}(e))$, and

The formula κ expresses that operators are only applicable in states where their change sets are consistent.

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■
$$regr_{\langle a,b\rangle}(b) \equiv a \wedge (\top \vee (b \wedge \neg \bot)) \wedge \top \equiv a$$

■
$$regr_{(a,b)}(b \land c \land d)$$

≡ $a \land (\top \lor (b \land \neg \bot)) \land (\bot \lor (c \land \neg \bot)) \land (\bot \lor (d \land \neg \bot)) \land \top$
≡ $a \land c \land d$

$$\blacksquare \ \textit{regr}_{\langle a.c \rhd b \rangle}(b) \equiv a \land (c \lor (b \land \neg \bot)) \land \top \equiv a \land (c \lor b)$$

■
$$regr_{\langle a,(c \triangleright b) \land (b \triangleright \neg b) \rangle}(b) \equiv a \land (c \lor (b \land \neg b)) \land \neg (c \land b)$$

≡ $a \land c \land \neg b$

■
$$regr_{\langle a,(c \rhd b) \land (d \rhd \neg b) \rangle}(b) \equiv a \land (c \lor (b \land \neg d)) \land \neg (c \land d)$$

≡ $a \land (c \lor b) \land (c \lor \neg d) \land (\neg c \lor \neg d)$
≡ $a \land (c \lor b) \land \neg d$

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Regression example: binary counter



$$(\neg b_0 \rhd b_0) \land \\ ((\neg b_1 \land b_0) \rhd (b_1 \land \neg b_0)) \land \\ ((\neg b_2 \land b_1 \land b_0) \rhd (b_2 \land \neg b_1 \land \neg b_0))$$

$$EPC_{b_{2}}(e) = \neg b_{2} \wedge b_{1} \wedge b_{0}$$

$$EPC_{b_{1}}(e) = \neg b_{1} \wedge b_{0}$$

$$EPC_{b_{0}}(e) = \neg b_{0}$$

$$EPC_{\neg b_{2}}(e) = \bot$$

$$EPC_{\neg b_{1}}(e) = \neg b_{2} \wedge b_{1} \wedge b_{0}$$

$$\begin{array}{lll} b_2 & \text{by} & (\neg b_2 \wedge b_1 \wedge b_0) \vee (b_2 \wedge \neg \bot) \equiv (b_1 \wedge b_0) \vee b_2 \\ b_1 & \text{by} & (\neg b_1 \wedge b_0) \vee (b_1 \wedge \neg (\neg b_2 \wedge b_1 \wedge b_0)) \\ & & \equiv (\neg b_1 \wedge b_0) \vee (b_1 \wedge (b_2 \vee \neg b_0)) \\ b_0 & \text{by} & \neg b_0 \vee (b_0 \wedge \neg ((\neg b_1 \vee \neg b_2) \wedge b_0)) \equiv \neg b_0 \vee (b_1 \wedge b_2) \end{array}$$

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 $EPC_{\neg b_0}(e) = (\neg b_1 \land b_0) \lor (\neg b_2 \land b_1 \land b_0) \equiv (\neg b_1 \lor \neg b_2) \land b_0$



FRE

Theorem (correctness of $regr_o(\varphi)$)

Let φ be a formula, o an operator and s a state. Then $s \models regr_o(\varphi)$ iff o is applicable in s and $app_o(s) \models \varphi$.

Proof.

Let $o = \langle \chi, e \rangle$. Recall that $regr_o(\varphi) = \chi \wedge \varphi_r \wedge \kappa$, where φ_r and κ are as defined previously.

If o is inapplicable in s, then $s \not\models \chi \land \kappa$, both sides of the "iff" condition are false, and we are done. Hence, we only further consider states s where o is applicable. Let $s' := app_o(s)$.

We know that $s \models \chi \land \kappa$ (because o is applicable), so the "iff" condition we need to prove simplifies to:

$$s \models \varphi_r \text{ iff } s' \models \varphi.$$

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To show: $s \models \varphi_r$ iff $s' \models \varphi$.

We show that for all formulae ψ , $s \models \psi_r$ iff $s' \models \psi$, where ψ_r is ψ with every $a \in A$ replaced by $EPC_a(e) \lor (a \land \neg EPC_{\neg a}(e))$.

The proof is by structural induction on ψ

Induction hypothesis $s \models \psi_r$ if and only if $s' \models \psi$.

Base cases 1 & 2 ψ = \top or ψ = \bot : trivial, as ψ_r = ψ

Base case 3 $\psi = a$ for some $a \in A$: Then $\psi_r = EPC_a(e) \lor (a \land \neg EPC_{\neg a}(e))$ Search

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By Lemma B. $s \models w_e$ iff $s' \models w_e$.

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The proof is by structural induction on ψ .

```
Induction hypothesis s \models \psi_r if and only if s' \models \psi.
```

```
Base cases 1 & 2 \psi = 1 or \psi = \bot: trivial, as \psi_r = \psi.
Base case 3 \psi = a for some a \in A:
Then \psi_r = EPC_a(e) \lor (a \land \neg EPC_{\neg a}(e))
```

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Base case 3 $\psi = a$ for some $a \in A$: Then $\psi_r = EPC_a(e) \lor (a \land \neg EPC_{\neg a}(e))$ By Lemma B, $s \models \psi_r$ iff $s' \models \psi$. Search

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Base cases 1 & 2
$$\psi = \top$$
 or $\psi = \bot$: trivial, as $\psi_r = \psi$.

Base case 3
$$\psi = a$$
 for some $a \in A$:
Then $\psi_r = EPC_a(e) \lor (a \land \neg EPC_{\neg a}(e))$.
By Lemma B, $s \models \psi_r$ iff $s' \models \psi$.

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Inductive case 1 $\psi = \neg \psi'$:

$$\begin{split} s \models \psi_{\mathsf{r}} \text{ iff } s \models (\neg \psi')_{\mathsf{r}} \text{ iff } s \models \neg (\psi'_{\mathsf{r}}) \text{ iff } s \not\models \psi'_{\mathsf{r}} \\ \text{ iff } (\mathsf{IH}) \ s' \not\models \psi' \text{ iff } s' \models \neg \psi' \text{ iff } s' \models \psi \end{split}$$

Inductive case 2 $\psi = \psi' \lor \psi''$:

$$s \models \psi_{r} \text{ iff } s \models (\psi' \lor \psi'')_{r} \text{ iff } s \models \psi'_{r} \lor \psi''_{r}$$

$$\text{iff } s \models \psi'_{r} \text{ or } s \models \psi''_{r}$$

$$\text{iff } (\mathsf{IH}, \mathsf{twice}) \ s' \models \psi' \text{ or } s' \models \psi'$$

$$\text{iff } s' \models \psi' \lor \psi'' \text{ iff } s' \models \psi$$

Inductive case 3 $\psi = \psi' \wedge \psi''$: Very similar to inductive case 2, just with \wedge instead of \vee and "and" instead of "or".

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$$\text{iff } s \models \psi'_{r} \text{ or } s \models \psi''_{r}$$

$$\text{iff (IH, twice) } s' \models \psi' \text{ or } s' \models \psi''$$

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$$\begin{aligned} s &\models \psi_{\mathsf{r}} \text{ iff } s \models (\psi' \lor \psi'')_{\mathsf{r}} \text{ iff } s \models \psi'_{\mathsf{r}} \lor \psi''_{\mathsf{r}} \\ &\text{iff } s \models \psi'_{\mathsf{r}} \text{ or } s \models \psi''_{\mathsf{r}} \\ &\text{iff } (\mathsf{IH, twice}) \ s' \models \psi' \text{ or } s' \models \psi'' \\ &\text{iff } s' \models \psi' \lor \psi'' \text{ iff } s' \models \psi \end{aligned}$$

Inductive case 3 $\psi = \psi' \wedge \psi''$: Very similar to inductive case 2, just with \wedge instead of \vee and "and" instead of "or".

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Emptiness and subsumption testing



The following two tests are useful when performing regression searches to avoid exploring unpromising branches:

- Test that $regr_o(\varphi)$ does not represent the empty set (which would mean that search is in a dead end). For example, $regr_{\langle a, \neg \rho \rangle}(p) \equiv a \land \bot \equiv \bot$.
- Test that $regr_o(\varphi)$ does not represent a subset of φ (which would make the problem harder than before). For example, $regr_{\langle b,c\rangle}(a) \equiv a \wedge b$.

Both of these problems are NP-hard.

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Formula growth



The formula $regr_{o_1}(regr_{o_2}(\dots regr_{o_{n-1}}(regr_{o_n}(\varphi))))$ may have size $O(|\varphi||o_1||o_2|\dots|o_{n-1}||o_n|)$, i. e., the product of the sizes of φ and the operators.

 \rightsquigarrow worst-case exponential size $O(m^n)$

Logical simplifications

- $\blacksquare \ \bot \land \varphi \equiv \bot, \ \top \land \varphi \equiv \varphi, \ \bot \lor \varphi \equiv \varphi, \ \top \lor \varphi \equiv \top$
- $a \lor \varphi \equiv a \lor \varphi[\bot/a]$, $\neg a \lor \varphi \equiv \neg a \lor \varphi[\top/a]$, $a \land \varphi \equiv a \land \varphi[\top/a]$, $\neg a \land \varphi \equiv \neg a \land \varphi[\bot/a]$
- idempotency, absorption, commutativity, associativity, . . .

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Restricting formula growth in search trees



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Summary

Problem very big formulae obtained by regression

Cause disjunctivity in the (NNF) formulae (formulae without disjunctions easily convertible to small formulae $I_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge I_n$ where I_i are literals and n is at most the number of state variables.)

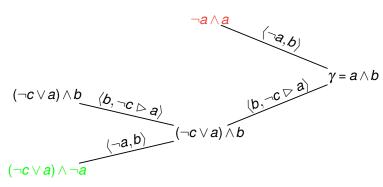
Idea handle disjunctivity when generating search trees

Unrestricted regression: search tree example



Unrestricted regression: do not treat disjunctions specially

Goal $\gamma = a \land b$, initial state $I = \{a \mapsto 0, b \mapsto 0, c \mapsto 0\}$.



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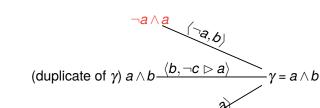
Summarv

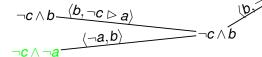
Full splitting: search tree example



Full splitting: always remove all disjunctivity

Goal
$$\gamma = a \wedge b$$
, initial state $I = \{a \mapsto 0, b \mapsto 0, c \mapsto 0\}$. $(\neg c \vee a) \wedge b$ in DNF: $(\neg c \wedge b) \vee (a \wedge b)$ \rightsquigarrow split into $\neg c \wedge b$ and $a \wedge b$





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General splitting strategies



Alternatives:

- Do nothing (unrestricted regression).
- Always eliminate all disjunctivity (full splitting).
- Reduce disjunctivity if formula becomes too big.

Discussion:

- With unrestricted regression the formulae may have size that is exponential in the number of state variables.
- With full splitting search tree can be exponentially bigger than without splitting.
- The third option lies between these two extremes.

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- - (Classical) search is a very important planning approach.
 - Search-based planning algorithms differ along many dimensions, including
 - search direction (forward, backward)
 - what each search node represents (a state, a set of states, an operator sequence)
 - Progression search proceeds forwards from the initial state.
 - If we use duplicate detection, each search node corresponds to a unique state.
 - If we do not use duplicate detection, each search node corresponds to a unique operator sequence.

Summary (ctd.)



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Summary

Odminary

- Regression search proceeds backwards from the goal.
 - Each search node corresponds to a set of states represented by a formula.
 - Regression is simple for STRIPS operators.
 - The theory for general regression is more complex.
 - When applying regression in practice, additional considerations such as when and how to perform splitting come into play.