Documentation for SHOP2

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Remarks: *The maintenance of this manual has long been deferred. We simply attempt to bring the document into conformance with the current implementation. Because this is only a first step towards such conformance, I have concentrated on capturing the changes to the system from the user's perspective. I have made little attempt to update the discussion of the implementation, and have ignored the Java version altogether. - Robert P. Goldman*

1 Introduction

This document presents the design and implementation details of SHOP2, the Simple Hierarchical Ordered Planner. SHOP2 adds several extensions to the functionality of SHOP 1.6.1 and MSHOP 1.1.1, and adopts a modified domain syntax for partial compatibility with the recently released Java version of SHOP, which is known as JSHOP 1.0. This document is based, in part, on the JSHOP documentation written by Füsun Yaman, with additional material from Yue Cao's December 2000 draft of the SHOP2 documentation and pseudocode from [Nau *et a*l., 2001]. The entire SHOP research group shares credit for the content of this document, especially Professor Dana S. Nau who wrote the original version of SHOP and its documentation. Additional contributions were made by Robert P. Goldman and John Maraist of SIFT, LLC.

The rest of the document is organized as follows:

- Section one provides an overview of SHOP2 and of the downloadable distribution.
- Section two describes the environment for execution of SHOP2.
- Section three explains the typographic conventions used in this document.
- Section four presents the formalism used for inputs and outputs of SHOP2.
- Section five provides instructions for running SHOP2.
- Section six presents internal technical details regarding SHOP2.
- Section seven presents the Java interface for SHOP2.
- Section eight presents the SHOP2 Graphical User Interface. *To the best of my knowledge, this GUI is bit-rotted, as of today, and does not work. -- rpg 15 Jul 2007.*
- Sections nine and ten summarize the differences between SHOP2 and SHOP 1.x and JSHOP 1.0, respectively. *To the best of my knowledge, JSHOP is unmaintained and bit-rotted. I don't know of anyone who wishes to maintain it, and I do not. -- rpg 15 Jul 2007.*
- Section eleven presents some general remarks on the SHOP2 system.
- Sections twelve and thirteen list acknowledgements and references, respectively.

1.1 Overview

SHOP (Simple Hierarchical Ordered Planner) is a domain-independent planning system based on **ordered task decomposition**, a modified version of HTN planning that involves planning for tasks in the same order that they will later be executed. An HTN, or *decomposition,* planner "proceeds by decmoposing *nonprimitive tasks* recursively into smaller and smaller subtasks, until *primitive tasks* are reached that can be performed directly using the planning operators."[1] This manual does not give an introduction to

[1] From *Automated Planning: Theory and Practice,* Ghallab, Nau and Traverso, Morgan Kaufmann, 2004.

HTN planning or AI planning in general, for that we recommend the above-cited textbook by Ghallab, *et al.,* and/or the research papers describing SHOP2. SHOP has the following characteristics:

- SHOP knows the current state-of-the-world at each step of the planning process.
- It has large expressive power. For example, in the preconditions of operators and methods it can do mixed symbolic/numeric computations and execute calls to external programs.
- SHOP can be used to create very efficient domain-specific planning algorithms. The SHOP software distribution includes several examples of such domain algorithms.
- An earlier version of the SHOP algorithm implemented in Java is used as part of HICAP, a plan-authoring system for complex military operations.
- SHOP2 incorporates many features from PDDL, e.g., support for quantifiers and conditional effects in methods and operators.
- SHOP2 allows the combination of partially ordered and fully ordered tasks through the use of the `:unordered` and `:ordered` keywords.
- SHOP2 allows branch-and-bound optimization of plan costs. For small problems, this capability can be used to find the absolute minimum cost plans. For larger problems, this capability can be used with time limits to get the lowest cost plan that is found within the given time limit.

2 Execution Environment

SHOP2 is written in Common Lisp. To be able to run SHOP2, you will need to have Common Lisp installed on your computer. We have run SHOP2 successfully under the following implementations of Common Lisp, and we would be interested in hearing your reports about other implementations:

- Allegro Common Lisp v. 8.2 (on x86 and x86_64 Linux and Mac OSX); [2]
- Steel Bank Common Lisp, v. 1.0.50+ on x86 and x86_64, Linux and Mac OSX.
- Clozure Common Lisp, version 1.8 on Mac OS X and Linux.
- GNU clisp, version 2.49 on Mac OS X and Linux.

We suspect that there may be some difficulties in running SHOP2 on Windows; most of these have to do with getting the ASDF system definitions to work on Windows, not with SHOP2 proper. Please contact us if you encounter difficulties. We welcome reports of experiences with other platforms and CL implementations, and will attempt to support users who wish to bring SHOP2 up on other combinations.

SHOP2 is now distributed with a system definition written using the open-source ASDF system definition facility (for more information, see http://common-lisp.net/projects/asdf/ and http://www.cliki.net/ASDF). You should insure that all of the `.asd` files in the SHOP2 distribution can be found by ASDF, per the instructions given with ASDF, and

[2] We have not continued to check obsolete versions of Allegro; our currently-tested version is 8.2. We have not tested ACL 9.0 yet.

then SHOP2 should load without any problems. See Section 5.1 for more details about how to load SHOP2.

3 Notations Used in This Document

In order to differentiate some words or expressions in the text, we used the following conventions:

- Boldface is used to indicate that a term is being defined. For example:
  "An **axiom list** is a list of axioms intended to represent what we can infer from a state."
- Italic characters refer to special words or symbols. For example:
  " Let *a* be a *logical atom*."
- Typewriter characters are used to write computer code. For example:
  "`(call <= 7 (call + 5 3))`"
- Square brackets indicate that a parameter or keyword is optional. For example, `in the following form, the` *name*$_i$`'s are optional parameters and thus the form is still valid if any of the` *name*$_i$`'s are missing:`
  "`(:-` *a* `[`*name*$_1$`]` C_1 `[`*name*$_2$`]` C_2 `[`*name*$_3$`]` C_3 ... `[`*name*$_n$`]` C_n`)`"

4 The SHOP2 Formalism

The inputs to SHOP2 are a *planning domain* and either a single *planning problem* or a *planning problem set*. Planning domains are composed of *operators*, *methods*, and *axioms*. Planning problems are composed of *logical atoms* (an initial state) and *tasks lists* (high-level actions to perform). Planning problem sets are composed of planning problems.

The components of a planning domain (operators, methods, and axioms) all involve *logical expressions*. These logical expressions combine *logical atoms* through a variety of forms (e.g., conjunction, disjunction). Logical atoms involve a *predicate symbol* plus a list of *terms*. Task lists in planning problems are composed of *task atoms*. The components of domains and problems are all ultimately defined by various *symbols*.

This section describes each of the aforementioned structures. It is organized in a bottom-up manner because the specification of higher-level structures is dependent on the specification of lower-level structures. For example, methods are defined after logical expressions because methods contain logical expressions.

4.1 Symbols

In the structures defined below, there are five kinds of symbols: **variable symbols**, **constant symbols**, **function symbols**, **primitive task symbols**, and **compound task symbols**. To distinguish among these symbols, SHOP and SHOP2 both use the following conventions:

- a **variable symbol** can be any Lisp symbol whose name begins with a question mark (such as `?x` or `?hello-there`)

- an **anonymous variable symbol** can be any variable symbol with an underscore immediately following the question mark in its name (such as `?_` or `?_airplane`). These variables will unify with any value, and need not co-refer (i.e., two copies of `?_` in a single term need not unify with each other). These variables will also not trip the singleton variable check.
- a **primitive task symbol** can be any Lisp symbol whose name begins with an exclamation point (such as `!unstack` or `!putdown`)
- a **constant symbol**, a **function symbol**, a **predicate symbol**, or a **compound task symbol** can be any Lisp symbol whose name does not begin with a question mark or exclamation point

Any of the structures defined in the remaining sections are said to be **ground** if they contain no variable symbols.

4.2 General Lisp Expressions

A number of SHOP2 domain structures described in this section use **general Lisp expressions**. These are arbitrary pieces of Lisp code which can include functions, macros, special macro symbols (e.g., backquote), etc. When SHOP2 needs to get the value of a general Lisp expression, it first substitutes values for any variable symbols in the expression that are bound. Then it sends the entire expression into the Lisp evaluator to get a final value.

Note: Counter-intuitive bugs may arise when symbols are passed to lisp for evaluation (either as constants or as the values of variables). Remember that the lisp evaluator will assume that these are variables! If you wish them to be treated as symbols, you will need to quote them. This leads to a slightly undesirable oddity --- variables that will be bound to, for example, numbers, can appear normally. Variables that will be bound to symbols will have to be quoted. See the discussion of Eval terms, below (Section 4.3.2).

4.3 Terms

A **term** is any one of the following:

- a variable symbol
- a constant symbol
- a number
- a **list-term**
- an **eval-term**
- a **call-term**

4.3.1 List Terms

A **list-term** is a term having the form

`([list]` t_1 t_2 ... t_n `[. l])`

where *list* is an optional reserved word and each t_i is a term. This specifies that t_1 t_2 ... t_n are the items of a list. If the final, optional element is included, the item l should evaluate to a list; all items in l are included in the list after t_1 through t_n.

4.3.2 Eval Terms

An **eval-term** is an expression of the form

```
(eval general-lisp-expression)
```

The value associated with an eval-term is determined as follows. First, any variable symbols which appear in *lisp-expression* and are bound are replaced by the values that they are bound to. Then, the entire expression is evaluated in Lisp. For example, if the variable symbol `?foo` is bound to the value `3` then the term:

```
(eval (mapcar #'(lambda (x) (+ x ?foo)) `(1 2 ,(* ?foo ?foo))))
```

will have as its value a list containing the numbers 4, 5, and 12. Note that variable substitutions in eval terms are handled before any evaluation of the expression, as in Lisp macros. One implication of this fact is that variables with symbolic values must be explicitly quoted if they are to be treated as Lisp symbols. For example, if the variable `?foo` is bound to the symbol `BAR`, the following eval term has the value `(BAR BAZ)`:

```
(eval (list '?foo 'BAZ))
```

if this were written

```
(eval (list ?foo 'BAZ))
```

it would cause a Lisp error when lisp attempts to find the value of `BAR`, which it would believe to be variable.

4.3.3 Call-terms

A **call-term** is an expression of the form

(call f t_1 t_2 ... t_n)

where `f` is a function symbol and each t_i is a term or a call-term. A call-term has a special meaning to SHOP2, because it tells SHOP2 that `f` is an attached procedure, i.e., that whenever SHOP2 needs to evaluate a precondition or task list that contains a call-term, SHOP2 should replace the call term with the result of applying the function `f` on the arguments $t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_n$. (We later will define what preconditions and task lists are).

For example, the following call-term would have the value 6:

```
(call  +  (call + 1 2)  3)
```

Note that a call-term is not as expressive as an eval-term. In particular, it does not support the evaluation of Lisp macros (including macro characters such as backquote). Both `call` and `eval` are supported in SHOP2 because the former is compatible with JSHOP 1.0 and the latter is compatible with SHOP 1.x. SHOP2 users who are not interested in either form of compatibility may use either form.

4.4 Logical Atoms

A **logical atom** has the form:

$$(p\ \ t_1\ \ t_2\ \ \ldots\ \ t_n)$$

where p is a predicate symbol and each t_i is a term other than an eval- or call-term.

4.5 Logical Expressions

A **logical expression** is a logical atom or any of the following complex expressions: **conjuncts**, **disjuncts**, **negations**, **implications**, **universal quantifications**, **assignments**, **eval expressions**, **call expressions**.

4.5.1 Conjuncts

A **conjunct** has the form

$$([\text{and}]\ l_1\ l_2\ \ldots\ l_n)$$

where each l_i is a logical expression. Note that if there are 0 conjuncts (e.g., the expression is `()`) then the form always evaluates to true.

4.5.2 Disjuncts

A **disjunct** is an expression of the form

$$(\text{or}\ l_1\ l_2\ \ldots\ l_n)$$

where l_1, l_2,..., l_n are logical expressions.

4.5.3 Negations

A **negation** is an expression of the form

$$(\text{not}\ l)$$

where l is a logical expression.

4.5.4 Implications

An **implication** is an expression of the form

$$(\text{imply}\ Y\ Z)$$

where Y and Z are logical expressions. The intent of an implication is to evaluate its logical counterpart; that is, $(\neg Y \vee Z)$. Note that here, Y should be ground, or the semantic of the implication will be ambiguous.

4.5.5 Universal Quantifications

A **universal quantification** expression is an expression of the form

```
(forall V E1 E2)
```

where E_1 and E_2 are logical expressions, and V is the list of variables in E_1. To satisfy a **universal quantification** expression, the following must hold: for each possible substitution u for variables in V, if E_1^u is satisfied then E_2^u must also be satisfied in the current state of the world. Note that this use of the keyword "forall" is distinct from its use in add and delete lists in operators (see Section 4.10); the latter is used to express a set of effects rather than a logical expression and consequently has a different syntax.

4.5.6 Assignments

An **assignment** expression has the form

```
(assign v e)
```

where *v* is a variable symbol and *e* is general Lisp expression. The intent of an assignment expression is to bind the value of *e* to the variable symbol *v*. Variable substitutions in assignment expressions are done using literal substitutions, as with eval terms (see Section 4.3.2). For example, if `?foo` is bound to the symbol `IF` and `?bar` is bound to the number 0 then the following expression will bind the variable `?baz` to the list `(IF FISH)`:

```
(assign ?baz (?foo (< ?bar 3) (list '?foo 'fish) (/ 8 ?bar)))
```

Similarly, if `?foo` is bound to `LIST` and `?bar` is bound to 4 then the expression above will bind `?baz` to the list `(NIL (LIST FISH) 2)`.

4.5.7 Eval expressions

An **eval-expression** has the same form as an eval-term, q.v. Unlike an eval-term, however, an eval-expression is interpreted simply as either true or false rather than having some value which would be used as an argument to a predicate. Thus eval-expression typically invoke boolean Lisp functions such as `evenp` or `>=`.

4.5.8 Call-expressions

A **call-expression** has the same form as a call-term, q.v. As with call-expressions, eval-expressions are interpreted as true or false.

4.5.9 Enforce-expressions

An **enforce-expression** has the form

```
(enforce t1 &rest error-args)
```

Enforce expressions are for goals that should *always* be satisfied. SHOP's theorem-prover will attempt to prove *t* and if it fails, will call error with *error-args*. For example

```
(enforce (x-position ?aircraft)
         "~A x-position undefined." (quote ?aircraft))
```

4.5.10 Setof-expressions

A **setof-expression** has the form

```
(setof var expr set-var)
```

Find all solutions to *expr,* and bind the set of values for *var* in *expr* to *set-var*. For example

```
(setof ?uav (uav ?uav) ?uavs)
```

will bind `?uavs` to the set of UAVs in the current state.

Note that the semantics of this operator are to fail if the *expr* is an unsatisfiable goal. This is arguably wrong --- to comply with Prolog, we should bind *set-var* to the empty list when *expr* is unsatisfiable. See https://cvs.sift.info:1022/trac/shop2/ticket/210

4.6 Logical Precondition

A **logical precondition** is a either logical expression or one of the following special precondition forms: **first satisfier precondition**, **sorted precondition**.

4.6.1 First Satisfiers Precondition

A **first satisfier precondition** has the form

```
(:first l1 l2 ... ln)
```

where each l_i is a logical expression. Such a precondition causes SHOP2 to consider only the first set of bindings that satisfies all of the given expressions. Alternative bindings will not be considered even if the first bindings found do not lead to a valid plan.

4.6.2 Sorted Precondition

A **sorted precondition** has the form

```
(:sort-by ?v [e] l)
```

where *?v* is a variable symbol, *e* is a general Lisp expression (which should evaluate to a comparison function), and *l* is a logical expression. Such a precondition causes SHOP2 to consider bindings for the precondition in a specific order. Specifically, bindings are sorted such that if the specified comparison function holds between values *x* and *y* then bindings that bind *?v* to *x* may not occur after bindings that bind *?v* to *y*. For example consider the precondition:

```
(:sort-by ?d #'> (and (at ?here) (distance ?here ?there ?d)))
```

This precondition will cause SHOP2 to consider bindings in decreasing (high to low) order of the value of *?d*. If the comparison function (*e*) is omitted, it defaults to `#'<`, indicating increasing (low to high) order.

4.7 Axioms

An **axiom** is an expression of the form

(:- a [name$_1$] E_1 [name$_2$] E_2 [name$_3$] E_3 ... [name$_n$] E_n)

where the axiom's **head** is the symbol *a*, and its **tail** is the list ([*name$_1$*] E_1 [*name$_2$*] E_2 [*name$_3$*] E_3 ... [*name$_n$*] E_n) and each E_i is a logical expression and each *name$_i$* is a symbol called the *name* of E_i. The names of the expressions are optional. When a domain definition is loaded into SHOP2, a unique name will be generated for each conjunct if no name was given. These names have no semantic meaning to SHOP2, but are provided to help the user debug domain descriptions by looking at traces of SHOP2's behavior.

The intended meaning of an axiom is that *a* is true if E_1 is true, or if E_1 is false but E_2 is true, or if all of E_1, E_2, ... , E_{n-1} are false but E_n is true. For example, the following axiom says that a location is in walking distance if the weather is good and the location is within two miles of home, or if the weather is not good and the location is within one mile of home:

```
(:- (walking-distance ?x)
    good   ((weather-is good) (distance home ?x ?d) (call <= ?d 2))
    bad    ((distance home ?x ?d) (call <= ?d 1)))
```

4.8 Task Atoms

A **task atom** is an expression of any of the forms

(*s* t_1 t_2 ... t_n)
(:task *s* t_1 t_2 ... t_n)
(:task :immediate *s* t_1 t_2 ... t_n)

where *s* is a task symbol and the arguments t_1, t_2, ..., t_n are terms. The task atom is **primitive** if *s* is a primitive task symbol, and it is **compound** if *s* is a compound task symbol. The first and second forms are called an **ordinary task atom**; the third form is called an **immediate task atom**. The purpose of the :immediate keyword is to give a higher priority to the task, as described in the following subsection.

4.9 Task Lists

A **task list** is any of the following:

- an expression of the form (:unordered *tasklist$_1$ tasklist$_2$ ... tasklist$_n$*), where *tasklist$_1$ tasklist$_2$ ... tasklist$_n$* are task lists;
- an expression of the form ([:ordered] *tasklist$_1$ tasklist$_2$ ... tasklist$_n$*), where *tasklist$_1$ tasklist$_2$ ... tasklist$_n$* are task lists.
- A task atom, see 4.8.

The :ordered keyword, which is optional, specifies that SHOP2 must perform the task lists in the order that they are given. The :unordered keyword specifies that there is no

particular ordering specified between *tasklist*$_1$, *tasklist*$_2$ ... *tasklist*$_n$. With the use of the `:unordered` keyword, SHOP2 may interleave tasks between different task lists. Suppose we have two task lists as the following:

$$T = (\texttt{:ordered}\ t_1\ t_2\ \ldots\ t_m);$$
$$U = (\texttt{:ordered}\ u_1\ u_2\ \ldots\ u_n);$$

and that we have the main task list

$$M = (\texttt{:unordered}\ T\ U).$$

If none of the tasks have the `:immediate` keyword, then the tasks in T should be performed in the order given, and the tasks in U should also be performed in the order given—but it is permissible for SHOP2 to interleave the tasks of T and the tasks of U. However, if some of the tasks are immediate, then each time SHOP 2 chooses the next task to accomplish, it needs to give a higher priority to the immediate tasks. For example, if t_1 is immediate and u_1 is not immediate, then SHOP2 should perform t_1 before both t_2 and u_1.

Note: A task with the `:immediate` keyword specifies that this task must be performed immediately when it has no predecessors. Therefore, we can allow only one task with the `:immediate` keyword in the list of tasks that have no predecessors. Otherwise, SHOP2's behavior on those tasks is undefined. In other words, it is not allowed to have two tasks in an `:unordered` list and both have the `:immediate` keyword. For instance, on the example above, t_1 and u_1 cannot both have the `:immediate` keyword.

4.10 Operators

Note: We have introduced an alternative syntax for operators, described below (Operators: Alternative Syntax). This alternative syntax is easier to author, and less error-prone, so we encourage you to use it instead of the "classical" form described here.
An **operator** is description of how to perform a *primitive* task, which cannot be decomposed further. An operator definition has the following form:

```
(:operator h P D A [c])
```

where

- *h* (the operator's **head**) is a primitive task atom (i.e., a task atom with a task symbol that begins with an exclamation point)
- *P* (the operator's **precondition**) is a logical expression.
- *D* (the operator's **delete list**) is a list for which each of the element may be any of following:
    - a logical atom
    - a protection condition (see below)
    - an expression of the form `(forall V E L)`, where *V* is a list of variables in *E*, *E* is a logical expression, and *L* is a list of logical atoms

- *A* (the operator's **add list**) is a list of logical atoms that has the same form as D.
- *c* (the operator's **cost**) is a general Lisp expression. If *c* is omitted, the cost is 1.

For backwards compatibility with SHOP 1.x, SHOP2 will also accept operators where the precondition *P* is missing. In this case the domain definition pre-processing code puts a null precondition into the operator, which is always satisfied. *SHOP2's ability to recognize operators without preconditions is deprecated and is likely to disappear in the future.*

In the above definition, a **protection condition** is an expression of the form

```
(:protection a)
```

where *a* is a logical atom. The purpose of a protection condition in the add list is to tell SHOP2 that it should not execute any operator that deletes *a*. The purpose of a protection condition in the delete list is to cancel a previously added protection condition. For example, if we drive a delivery truck to a certain location in order to pick up a package, then we might not want to allow the truck to be moved away from that location until after we have picked up the package. To represent this, we might use the following operators:

```
(:operator (!drive-to ?truck ?old-loc ?location)
      ()
      ((at ?truck ?old-loc))
      ((at ?truck ?location)
            (:protection (at ?truck ?location))))

(:operator (!pick-up ?truck ?package ?location)
      ()
      ((at ?package ?location)
            (:protection (at ?truck ?location)))
      ((in ?package ?truck)))
```

As noted above, the head of the operator is a primitive task atom, so it must begin with a primitive task symbol, i.e., a symbol that begins with an exclamation point. Note that operator names which begin with *two* exclamation points have a special meaning in SHOP2; operators of this sort are known as **internal operators**. Internal operators are ones which are used for purposes internal to the planning process and are not intended to correspond to actions performed in the plan (e.g., to do some computation which will later be useful in deciding what actions to perform). Other than requiring two exclamation points at the start of the name, the syntax for internal operators is identical to the syntax for other operators. SHOP2 handles internal operators exactly the same way as ordinary operators during planning. SHOP2 includes these operators in any plans that it returns at the end of execution. It may, however, omit them from the printout of the final plan (depending on the value of the `:verbose` argument described in Section 5.1). The primary reason that the internal operator syntax exists in SHOP2 is so that automated systems which use SHOP2 plans as an input can easily distinguish between those operators which involve action and those which were merely internal to the planning process.

When designing an operator, it is important to ensure that each variable symbol in the add list, delete list, and cost always be bound to a single value when the operator is invoked. Variable symbols can be bound in the head of the operator (by the method that invokes the associated primitive task) or in the precondition of the operator. An operator should be written such that for any variable appearing after the precondition, no two unifiers of the precondition have different bindings for that variable. SHOP2 does not check this requirement; if conflicting unifiers are available when applying an operator, it will apply one arbitrarily. This can lead to unpredictable behavior and plans with ambiguous semantics. In general, we recommend that operator preconditions be designed such that only one unifier is possible. However, SHOP2 will be able to correctly process operators that have multiple unifiers for preconditions as long as no two unifiers can provide different values for a variable that appears in the add list, delete list, or cost.

4.10.1 Operators: Alternative Syntax

In practice, we have found that operator definitions are prone to hard-to-detect syntax errors that can give rise to difficult to identify "garbage in/garbage out" bugs. Particularly prevalent are hard-to-identify bugs arising when a programmer inadvertently reverses the order of add and delete lists in a SHOP2 operator. These problems are exacerbated by the extreme permissiveness of SHOP2's parser. Accordingly, we provide an alternative syntax based on keyword arguments, instead. The new SHOP2 operators are written in this form:

```
(:op head [:add add-list] [:delete delete-list] [:precond precondition]
    [:cost cost-fn])
```

The arguments marked with keywords are all optional, and may appear in any order. The add-list, and delete-list default to being empty. The preconditions default to being vacuously true, and the cost defaults to 1.0.

4.11 Methods

A **method** is a list of the form

$$\texttt{(:method}\ h\ \ \texttt{[}n_1\texttt{]}\ \ C_1\ \ T_1\ \ \texttt{[}n_2\texttt{]}\ \ C_2\ \ T_2\ \ \ldots\ \ \texttt{[}n_k\texttt{]}\ \ C_k\ \ T_k\texttt{)}$$

where

- h (which is called the method's **head**) is a task atom in which no *call- or eval-terms* can appear;
- Each C_i (which is called a **precondition** for the method) is a logical precondition.
- Each T_i (which is called a **tail** of the method) is a task list. The task atoms in the list can contain call-terms.
- Each n_i is the *name* for the succeeding C_i T_i pair. These name are optional and if omitted a unique name will be assigned for each pair. These names have no semantic meaning to SHOP2, but are provided in order to help the user debug domain descriptions by looking at traces of SHOP2's behavior.

A method indicates that the task specified in the method's head can be performed by performing all of the tasks in one of the methods tails when one that tail's precondition is

satisfied. Note that the preconditions are considered in the given order, and a later precondition is considered *only* if all of the earlier preconditions are not satisfied. If there are multiple methods for a given task available at some point in time, all of these methods can be considered. Consequently, the following code:

```
(:method (eat ?food)
      (have-fork ?fork)
      ((!eat-with-fork ?food ?fork))
      (have-spoon ?spoon)
      ((!eat-with-spoon ?food ?spoon))
```

is semantically equivalent to the following code with multiple methods and explicitly exclusive preconditions:

```
(:method (eat ?food)
      (have-fork ?fork)
      ((!eat-with-fork ?food ?fork)))
(:method (eat ?food)
      (and (not (have-fork ?fork)) (have-spoon ?spoon))
      ((!eat-with-spoon ?food ?spoon))
```

In both of the above examples, the !eat-with-spoon operator may be performed only if the `(have-spoon ?spoon)` is satisfied *and* `(have-fork ?fork)` is not satisfied.

4.12 Planning Domain

A **planning domain** is an object that contains all of the information for solving a class of planning problems[3]. At a minimum, it will include definitions of the operators (or actions) and methods available in the domain. A planning domain definition may also contain axioms, or other items that are accepted by specific SHOP domain extensions. Finally, a domain definition can *include* other domains by reference (see , below).

4.12.1 Simple Form

A planning domain definition in the simple form looks like this:

`(defdomain` *domain-name* `(`i_1 i_2 ... i_n`))`

where *domain-name* is a symbol (which does not need to be quoted). Beginning users of SHOP should simply use the simple `domain-name` form of this argument.
Each item i_i is one of the following: an operator, a method, or an axiom. Note that domain names are not used in SHOP2; they are left in the syntax for backward compatibility.

4.12.2 Extended form

The extended form of the SHOP2 domain definition looks like this:

`(defdomain (`*domain-name* `&rest` *args*`) (`i_1 i_2 ... i_n`))`

[3] The term "class" here is meant *informally;* the reader should draw no conclusions about programming language classes in the SHOP implementation. -- *rpg*

args includes the following keyword arguments:

- a `:type` keyword argument, allowing the domain modeler to indicate a specific subclass of the SHOP2 `domain` class. E.g., one might have `(my-domain :type pddl-domain)`.
- A `:redefine-ok` argument. If this is NIL (the default), `defdomain` will warn when the domain *domain-name* is already defined.
- A `:noset` argument. Currently this defaults to NIL, to provide for backward compatibility, but I would like to see this move to defaulting to T.
  This is actually a bit of a kludge. The existing `defdomain` form, as a side-effect, sets the global variable `*domain*`. If this were only a default domain name, that would be fine, but it is used everywhere as a special variable to mean "the domain within which we are planning." So if there's concurrent action, or there are multiple copies of SHOP (or its component libraries) running in a single Lisp image, bad things can happen. I would like to stamp out the use of `*domain*` as a default domain.

The question of which additional arguments are accepted in *args* is a matter for the implementer of the specialized domain type being used. Any additional arguments will be passed to the `make-instance` method for the domain class.[4] SHOP2 extenders can create new subclasses of domain that accept initialization arguments. A first example of the use of this is the built-in pddl-domain class.
If you are using the extended form of `defdomain`, you should have in hand a new SHOP2 domain subclass, with a description of its arguments. If you do not, you should ignore the extended form.

4.12.3 Inclusion directives

A domain definition can include the items of another domain by reference using the include directive:

`(:include` *domain-name file-name*`)`

for example

```
(:include flight-operators
    #.(asdf:system-relative-pathname "core-domains"
                                     "domains.lisp"))
```

would take the text of the `flight-operators` domain, which should be found in the `domains.lisp` file. Note the use of the reader evaluation form – "`#.`" -- to force evaluation of the expression that yields the pathname.

4.13 Planning Problem

A **planning problem** has the form

`(defproblem` *problem-name domain-name* `(`a_1 a_2 ... a_n`)` *T*`)`

where *problem-name* is a symbol, *domain-name* is a symbol, each a_i is a ground logical atom, and *T* is a task list. This form defines a problem which may be solved by

[4] If you don't know what this means, you may safely ignore it.

addressing the tasks in *T,* using the operators, methods and axioms in *domain-name,* starting in an initial state defined by the atoms a_1 through a_n.

4.14 Planning Problem Set

A **planning problem set** has the form

(def-problem-set *set-name* (p_1 p_2 ... p_n))

where *set-name* is a symbol and each p_i is the name of a planning problem.

4.15 Plans

The previous subsections describe the inputs to SHOP2. This subsection describes the result that SHOP2 produces. A **plan** is a list of the form

(h_1 c_1 h_2 c_2 ... h_n c_n)

where each h_i and c_i, respectively, are the head and the cost of a ground operator instance o_i. If p = (h_1 c_1 h_2 c_2 ... h_n c_n) is a plan and S is a state, then $p(S)$ is the state produced by starting with S and executing o_1, o_2, ..., o_n in the order given. The **cost** of the plan p is $c_1 + c_2 + ... + c_n$ (thus, the cost of the empty plan is 0).

5 Running SHOP2

The latest version of SHOP2 is loaded by using the ASDF system definition facility. The first of the following subsections explains how to use ASDF to load SHOP2. Note that previous methods of starting SHOP2, by hand-coded load files, and mk:defsystem, are no longer supported. There are two ways to execute the SHOP2 planning process: `find-plans`, which finds plans for a single planning problem, and `do-problems`, which finds plans for a planning problem set. Subsection 5.2 describes the use of these functions. Subsection 5.3 describes the functions `shop-trace` and `shop-untrace`, which are the primary mechanisms for debugging SHOP2 domain descriptions and problem specifications. Subsection 5.4 describes some additional features that may also be useful for debugging domain descriptions and problems for SHOP2. Finally, subsection 5.7 describes some hook routines that can be used to customize the behavior of SHOP2.

5.1 Loading the Planner

The SHOP2 planner should be loaded into your lisp environment using ASDF.
Assuming that ASDF is properly installed, and the shop2.asd system definition file can be found by ASDF,, the following command should get the system loaded:

```
(asdf:load-system :shop2)
```

SHOP2 is defined in the SHOP2 package (and uses the shop2.theorem-prover package). The easiest way to use the system for experimentation will be to change to the predefined `:shop2-user` package and work in there:

```
(in-package :shop2-user)
```

If you are working on a larger or more ambitious project, it will be more appropriate for you to work in a package of your own definition, which should, at least, `:use` the `shop2` and `common-lisp` packages.

5.2 Executing the Planner

The `find-plans` function has one mandatory argument, the name of a planning problem, and a set of optional keyword arguments. It returns up to four values. `Find-plans` will always return two values: (1) a list of plans and (2) the total amount of CPU time used during planning (in seconds). If the :plan-tree argument (see below) is non-NIL, then two additional values will be returned: (3) a list of plan tree data structures and (4) a list of final state data structures. From the plan state data structures, the user can extract full state trajectories for the plans.
The `do-problems` function has one mandatory argument, which can either be the name of a planning problem set or a list of names of planning problems. It executes `find-plans` on each of the given planning problems and returns `nil`. Both of these functions use the same keyword arguments.

The keyword arguments to `find-plans` and `do-problems` are as follows:

- *which* says what kind of search to do. Here are its possible values and what they mean. The default value of *which* is the value of the global variable `*which*` (whose default value is `:first`).

Value	Kind of search
`:first`	Depth first search, stopping at the first plan found
`:all`	Depth-first search, but don't stop until all plans in plans(S, T, M) have been found
`:shallowest`	Depth-first search for the shallowest plan (or the first such plan if there is more than one of them). In many domains, this is also the least-cost plan
`:all-shallowest`	Depth-first search for all shallowest plans in the search space
`:id-first`	Iterative-deepening search, stopping after the first plan found
`:id-all`	Iterative-deepening search for all shallowest plans

  The `:id-all` and `:id-first` options are equivalent to taking a modified version of `find-plans` that backtracks each time it reaches depth *d*, and calling it repeatedly with *d* = 1, 2, ..., until a plan is found.

- *verbose* says what information to print out, as shown in the following table. The default value for *verbose* is 1.

Value	What to print
0 or nil	Nothing

1 or :stats	Some statistics about the search
2 or :plans	The statistics plus a succinct version of each plan found (internal operators and operator costs are omitted).
3 or :long-plans	The statistics plus the complete version of each plan found

- *If* `gc` is non-nil, then find-plans calls the garbage collector just before starting its search, thus making it somewhat easier to get repeatable experimental results. Note that this feature of SHOP2 is only supported under Macintosh Common Lisp and Allegro Common Lisp; in all other Lisp implementations the value for this keyword is ignored. The default value of `gc` is *t*.
- If *pp* is non-`nil`, then all printing done by SHOP2 is performed using the Common Lisp pretty-printing mechanism. This typically leads to more easily read output. The default value of *pp* is `t`.
- The *state* argument controls how states are represented internally. SHOP2 can have different performance characteristics depending on the value provided to this augment. If you are encountering out-of-memory errors in SHOP2 or you want to get the maximum speed possible from SHOP2 for a particular set of problems, you may wish to experiment with different values for this argument. The default value is `:mixed`, which represents states using a combination of lists and hash tables; this value has been shown to provide a reasonably good combination of speed and memory usage on a variety of test problems. The other values are `:list`, `:hash`, and `:bit`.
- The *optimize-cost* argument is used to perform planning with branch-and-bound optimization of the total plan cost. The default value for this argument is `nil`. If the value of this argument is `nil`, the optimization feature is disabled. If the value of the argument is t, SHOP2 will search for plans with the minimum total cost. If the value of the argument is a number, SHOP2 will use the branch-and-bound technique to search for plans with cost less than or equal to the value of the argument. The optimization feature is written under the assumption that the costs of operators are always non-negative. If this assumption is invalid, SHOP2 will produce unreliable results (specifically it will prune out some valid plans). The interaction of `:optimize-cost` with the various options for :which can be subtle. Below are notes on each possible combination:
  - `(:which :first :optimize-cost t)`
    Under these arguments, SHOP2 returns the first plan found for which no other valid plan has a lower total cost. Note that this option may take much more time to run than using (`:which :first :optimize-cost nil`) since even after it finds the plan, it must keep searching to see if it can find a cheaper plan. However, this option may be significantly faster than (`:which :all :optimize-cost nil`) since the branch-and-bound mechanism will prune out non-optimal plans without having to consider them all the way to the end. In some cases, this will mean that (`:which :first :optimize-cost t`) terminates and (`:which :all :optimize-cost nil`) does not.
  - `(:which :first :optimize-cost` *number*`)`

Under these arguments, SHOP2 returns the first plan found whose total cost is less than or equal to the number given. If there is no plan whose total cost is less than or equal to that number, SHOP2 will return no plans. Note that if the number given is large enough, these arguments can produce results much more quickly than with `(:which :first :optimize-cost t)`; specifically, as soon as SHOP2 finds a plan for which the cost is met, it can terminate and does not have to keep searching for cheaper plans.

- `(:which :all :optimize-cost t)`
  Under these arguments, SHOP2 returns all plans for which no other valid plan has a lower total cost. Obviously, all plans returned under these options will have equal total cost.
- `(:which :all :optimize-cost` *`number`*`)`
  Under these arguments, SHOP2 returns all plans with total cost less than or equal to the given number.
- `(:which :shallowest :optimize-cost t)`
  Under these arguments, SHOP2 returns a plan that has the shallowest depth of all valid plans and for which there is no other shallowest depth valid plan which has a lower total cost. In other words, these arguments produce the cheapest of all shallowest plans (which, incidentally, is not necessarily the same thing as the shallowest of all cheapest plans).
- `(:which :shallowest :optimize-cost` *`number`*`)`
  Under these arguments, SHOP2 returns a plan which has the shallowest depth of all valid plans and whose total cost is less than or equal to the given number. Note that if there is no plan whose cost is less than or equal to the number and whose depth is shallowest among all valid plans, then no plan will be returned (even if there are deeper plans which do have cost less than or equal to the number).
- `(:which :all-shallowest :optimize-cost t)`
  Under these arguments, SHOP2 returns all plans which have the shallowest depth of all valid plans and for which there is no other shallowest depth valid plan which has a lower total cost.
- `(:which :all-shallowest :optimize-cost` *`number`*`)`
  Under these arguments, SHOP2 returns all plans which have the shallowest depth and whose total cost is less than or equal to the given number.
- `(:which :id-first)` or `(:which :id-all)`
  The *id-first* and *id-all* arguments produce the same results as the *shallowest* and *all-shallowest* arguments, respectively for each different combination with `:optimize-cost`. Note, however, that there are domains for which SHOP2 will terminate using *id-first* and *id-all* and will not terminate using other values for `:which`.

- The *time-limit* argument may either `nil` or a number. It's default is `nil` and if it is `nil`, no time limit is imposed on the planning process. If the *time-limit* argument is a number, SHOP2 will check the elapsed CPU time at the start of each step of the planning process, and if the number of seconds elapsed is greater than the argument value, SHOP2 will immediately terminate. The main use for

this feature is in combination with `(:optimize-cost t)` argument, in order to return the optimal value found within the given time limit. For example, consider the call `(find-plans 'foo :verbose 1 :optimize-cost t :time-limit 120)`. This call addresses a problem named *foo*, and runs until it either finds the minimum cost plan or until 2 minutes have elapsed. It then returns the lowest cost plan that it found during that time. This functionality is inspired, in part, by Anytime Algorithms [Dean and Boddy, 1998].

- If *explanation* is non-nil, SHOP2 adds extra information at the end of each operator explaining how the preconditions for that operator were satisfied. Currently supports only logical atoms, `and`, and `or`; it doesn't work with `forall`, `not`, `eval`, etc. If this feature is used with the `external-access-hook` feature (see Section 5.4), any attribution information provided by the `external-access-hook` routine is included in the relevant explanation. The default value of *explanation* is `nil`.
- The *plan-tree* argument defaults to nil; if true, the planner will return two additional values: (1) a list of complete task decomposition trees for the plans and (2) a list of plan state data structures corresponding to the final states of each plan. Plan trees are encoded in a nested list format in which the decomposition of an upper level task into lower level tasks is represented by the upper level task atom, followed by trees for each lower level task. The leaves of the tree, involving operators, are each lists of three elements: the cost of the operator, the task atom for the operator, and the numerical position of the operator in the plan (staring at 1). For example, a task `(travel houston springfield)` that was directly decomposed into operators, `(!fly houston boston)` with cost 200 and `(!drive boston springfield)` with cost 50, would have the following plan tree:

```
((travel houston sprinfield)
 (200 (!fly houston boston) 1)
 (50 (!drive boston springfield) 2))
```

5.3 Tracing

There are two functions used for controlling the tracing mechanism in SHOP2: `shop-trace` and `shop-untrace`. These are similar to Lisp's `trace` and `untrace` functions. Once they have been invoked, subsequent calls to `find-plans` or `do-problems` will print out information about elements of the domain for which tracing is enabled whenever those elements are encountered. More specifically:

- `(shop-trace` *item*`)` will turn on tracing for item, which may be any of the following:
  - a method, axiom, operator, task, or goal;
  - one of the keywords `:methods`, `:axioms`, `:operators`, `:tasks`, `:goals`, or `:protections` in which case SHOP2 will trace *all* items of that type (`:goals` refers to predicates that are goals for the theorem-prover, and `:protections` refers to predicates used as arguments of `:protection` in operators);

- the keyword `:states`, in which case SHOP2 will include the current state whenever it prints out a tracing message
- the keyword `:plans` in which case SHOP2 will print diagnostic information whenever it has found a plan (and may be considering whether or not to keep the plan, depending on the `:which` and `:optimize` arguments of `seek-plans`).
- The keyword :all, which will trace all available items, currently methods, axioms, operators, tasks, goals and protections.

- `(shop-trace` *`item1 item2 ...`*`)` will do the same for a list of items
- `(shop-trace)` will print a list of what's currently being traced
- `(shop-untrace` *`item`*`)` will turn off tracing for an item
- `(shop-untrace` *`item1 item2 ...`*`)` will turn off tracing for a list of items
- `(shop-untrace)` will turn off tracing for all items

5.4 Other Debugging Features

There are three variables, namely *current-state*, *current-plan*, and *current-tasks*, in SHOP2. These variables can be used to monitor the current status of the state, current plan and the list of current tasks to be accomplished respectively. Since these are the internal variables of the SHOP2 planning system, the following functions are defined to access the current contents of those variables: `print-current-state`, `print-current-plan`, and `print-current-tasks`, respectively. Note that these are Lisp functions that must be called by using the Lisp evaluator. The best way to use these functions is to define dedicated methods in the domain that invoke the functions using eval or call expressions in their predicates. Those methods can then be used in the problem definition where debugging output is needed. For example, the following methods can be included in any domain description for this purpose:

```
(:method (print-current-state)
      ((eval (print-current-state)))
      ())
(:method (print-current-tasks)
      ((eval (print-current-tasks)))
      ())
(:method (print-current-plan)
      ((eval (print-current-plan)))
      ())
```

And these special purpose methods can be used in the task decompositions of other methods for debugging purposes. For example,

```
(:method (do-both ?x ?y) nil
      (:ordered (:task !do ?y)
                (:task print-current-state)
                (:task !do ?x))))
```

There is now a new variable, `*break-on-backtrack*`, that will cause the Lisp environment to throw into a break loop when SHOP2 backtracks.

5.5 Syntax Checks

We have adopted for SHOP2 the "singleton variable" check common in Prolog implementations. Logic variables are used to express unification constraints on expressions. In practice, a singleton logical variable in a SHOP2 expression (a method, operator, or axiom definition) is often a typographical error. Accordingly, SHOP2 will issue a warning when it encounters a logical variable used only once. If the single use is correct, the proper (and nicely self-documenting) way to disable this warning is to use an *anonymous variable* (see page 6).

5.6 Debugging Suggestions

When you have a problem that does not solve as expected, the following general recipe may help you home in on bugs in your domain definition:

1. Start by doing `(SHOP-TRACE :TASKS)` and then try `FIND-PLANS` again.
2. In many cases, the domain will be written so that there will be little or no backtracking. In this case, examine the output of the traced call to `FIND-PLANS` and look for the first backtracking point.
3. The above process should help you identify a particular task, either a primitive or a complex task, as a likely problem spot. If it's a primitive task, the next step is to examine the operator definition. If it's a complex task, you should check the method definitions. If you have any trouble identifying which method definition is relevant, you can use `(SHOP-TRACE :METHODS)` to further focus your attention.
4. If visual inspection of method and operator definitions does not reveal the problem, you most likely have problems with precondition expressions. In this case, try using `(SHOP-TRACE :GOALS)`, rerunning `FIND-PLANS` and check to see what's happened when your problem method or operator's preconditions are checked.

This recipe has proven effective for finding the vast majority of bugs in SHOP2 domains.

5.7 Hook Routines

SHOP2 recognizes several different hook routines. These are Lisp routines that may be defined by the user; if they are defined, they are invoked under specific circumstances. Hook routines are typically used when embedding SHOP2 in an application; they allow such an application to obtain additional information from SHOP2 or to affect it's behavior. There are three hooks that are recognized by SHOP2:

- `(plan-found-hook state which plan cost depth)`
  If this routine is defined, SHOP2 invokes it whenever it finds a plan. It can be useful for displaying and/or recording details about the plan. The arguments are the current state, the value for the `:which` argument that was provided to the planner, the plan, the cost of the plan, and the search depth at which the plan was found.
- `(trace-query-hook type item additional-information state-atoms)`
  If this routine is defined, SHOP2 invokes it whenever it invokes the tracing mechanism (See Section 5.2). The arguments include the type of item being

traced (e.g., `:task`, `:method`), the item, the list of Lisp values that are printed by the tracing mechanism, and a list of logical atoms in the current state.

- `(external-access-hook query)`
  This hook routine is intended to allow SHOP2 to use an external source (such as a database) to determine the applicability of methods and operators. To use this hook routine, a domain must include one or more logical expressions that have the keyword `:external` as the first symbol. Such expressions must only involve a single logical atom, or a single conjunction of logical atoms. When SHOP2 attempts to find a binding that satisfies such an expression, it will first invoke `external-access-hook` to satisfy the expression; if that routine is undefined or returns `nil`, SHOP2 will then try to satisfy the expression using its internal knowledge state. The argument to `external-access-hook` is a list of the form `'(and (<pred> <val> <val>)...)`. It returns a list of responses, each of which is a list of two elements: an attribution and a list of bindings for the unbound variables in the query. The attribution is stored for use with the *explanation* option for the planning system (See Section 5.1). For example, consider a method that has the following precondition:

```
(or (and (clear ?b1) (clear ?b2) (clear ?b3)
    (:external and (on ?b1 ?b2) (on ?b2 ?b3)))
```

  When this precondition is encountered and `external-access-hook` is defined, SHOP2 invokes that routine with the argument `'(and (on ?b1 ?b2) (on ?b2 ?b3))`. The routine might (for example) return the list:

```
'((database-123 ((?b1 block10) (?b2 block 11) (?b3 block 12)))
  (database-223 ((?b1 block20) (?b2 block 21) (?b3 block 22))))
```

6 Internal Technical Information

This section presents information about the internal workings of the SHOP2 planning process. **Important Note**: This section is primarily of interest to planning researchers and planning system developers. Most SHOP2 users (especially beginning users) are advised to skip this section.

The first subsection presents some key internal knowledge structures that must be defined in order to completely specify the behavior of SHOP2. The second subsection presents the formal semantics of operators and plans. The third subsection describes an assortment of functions within SHOP2 that are used to accomplish those semantics.

6.1 Internal Knowledge Structures

The following SHOP2 internal knowledge structures must be defined in order to fully specify the semantics of plan generation in SHOP2.

6.1.1 Substitutions

A **substitution** is a list of dotted pairs of the form

$$((x_1 \ . \ t_1) \ (x_2 \ . \ t_2) \ \ldots \ (x_k \ . \ t_k))$$

where every x_i is a variable symbol and every t_i is a term. If e is an expression and u is the above substitution, then the **substitution instance** e^u is the expression produced by starting with e and replacing each occurrence of each variable symbol x_i with the corresponding term t_i.

If d and e are two expressions, then:

- d is a **generalization** of e if e is a substitution instance of d;
- d is a **strict generalization** of e if d is a generalization of e but e is not a generalization of d;
- d and e are **equivalent** if each is a generalization of the other.

If u and v are two substitutions, then:

- u is a **generalization** of v if for every expression e, e^u is a generalization of e^v;
- u is a **strict generalization** of v if for every expression e, e^u is a strict generalization of e^v;
- u and v are **equivalent** if for every expression e, e^u and e^v are equivalent.

If e is an expression and $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_k$ are the variable symbols in e, then a **standardizer** for e is a substitution of the form

$$((x_1 \ . \ y_1) \ (x_2 \ . \ y_2) \ \ldots \ (x_k \ . \ y_k))$$

where each y_i is a new variable symbol that is not used anywhere else. Note that if u is a standardizer for e, then e and e^u are equivalent expressions.

If d and e are expressions and there is a substitution u such that $d^u = e^u$, then d and e are **unifiable** and u is a **unifier** for them. A unifier of d and e is a **most general unifier** (or **mgu**) of d and e if it is a generalization of every unifier of d and e. Note that all mgu's for d and e are equivalent.

6.1.2 States and Satisfiers

A **state** is a list of ground atoms intended to represent some "state of the world". A conjunct C is a **consequent** of a state S and an axiom list X if every logical expression l in C is a consequent of S and X. A logical expression l is a consequent of S and X if one of the following is true:

- l is an atom in S;
- l is a ground expression of the form `(eval p` t_1 t_2 … t_n`)`, and the evaluation of p with arguments t_1,t_2,…, t_n returns a non-`nil` value;
- l is a ground expression of the form `(call p` t_1 t_2 … t_n`)`, and the evaluation of p with arguments t_1,t_2,…, t_n returns a non-`nil` value;

- l is an expression of the form `(not` a`)`, and the atom a is not a consequent of S and X;
- l is an expression of the form `(assign` v t`)`, where v is a variable symbol and t is any Lisp expression. The value of t, which was evaluated via a call to the Lisp evaluator, is a substitution of v, i.e. `(`v `.` t`)`. This term is always a consequent of S and X;
- l is an expression of the form `(or` l_1 l_2 `...` l_n`)`, where l_1, l_2, l_3, ..., l_n are logical expressions, and at least one expression in this list is a consequent of S and X;
- l is an expression of the form `(forall` V Y Z`)`, where Y and Z are logical expressions and V is the list of variables in Y such that for every satisfier u that satisfies Y in S and X, u also satisfies Z in S and X;
- l is an expression of the form `(imply` Y Z`)`, where Y and Z are logical expressions such that a satisfier u satisfies Y in S and X also satisfies Z in S and X;
- there exists a substitution v and an axiom `(:-` a n_1 C_1 n_2 C_2 ... n_n C_n`)` in X such that $l = a^v$ and one of the following holds:
  - C_1^v is a consequent of S and X;
  - C_1^v is not a consequent of S and X, but C_2^v is a consequent of S and X;
  - neither C_1^v nor C_2^v is a consequent of S and X, but C_3^v is a consequent of S and X;
  - ...;
  - none of C_1^v, C_2^v, C_3^v, ..., C_{n-1}^v is a consequent of S in X, but C_n^v is a consequent of S and X.

If C is a consequent of S and X, then it is a **most general consequent** of S and X if there is no strict generalization of C that is also a consequent of S and X.

Let S be a state, X be an axiom list, and C be an ordinary conjunct. If there is a substitution u such that C^u is a consequent of S and X, then we say that S and X **satisfy** C and that u is the **satisfier**. The satisfier u is a **most general satisfier** (or **mgs**) if there is no other satisfier that is a strict generalization of u. Note that C can have multiple non-equivalent mgs's. For example, suppose X contains the "walking distance" axiom given earlier, and S is the state

```
((weather-is good)
   (distance home convenience-store 1)
   (distance home supermarket 2))
```

Then for the conjunct `((walking-distance ?y))`, there are two mgs's from S and X: `((?y . convenience-store))` and `((?y . supermarket))`.

Let S be a state, X be an axiom list, and C = `(:first` C'`)` be a tagged conjunct. If S and X satisfy C', then the **most general satisfier** (or **mgs**) for C from S and X is the *first* mgs for C' that would be found by a left-to-right depth-first search. For example, if S and X are as in the previous example, then for the tagged conjunct `(:first (walking-distance ?y))`, the mgs from S and X is `((?y . convenience-store))`.

6.2 Formal Semantics

Recall that a plan is a list of operator invocations with costs and that an operator has an add list and a delete list. Informally, the meaning of the plan is that the specified operators are performed in sequence, incurring the specified costs. Similarly, the meaning of the operator is that the assertions in the add list are added to the state and the assertions in the delete list are removed from the state. The meaning of a method is that when the method's precondition is satisfied, the task specified in the method's head can be performed by performing each of the tasks specified in the method's tail.

This subsection elaborates these informal notions, presenting detailed formal semantics of operators and plans. It is of particular use to anyone who has a SHOP2 domain and wishes to prove theorems (e.g., correctness, completeness, etc.) regarding plans generated in that domain.

6.2.1 Semantics of Operators

The intent of an operator is to specify that the task h can be accomplished at a cost of c, by modifying the current state of the world to remove every logical atom in D and add every logical atom in A if P is satisfied in the current state. In order to prevent plans from being ambiguous, there should be at most one operator for each primitive task symbol.

Let S be a state, X be the list of axioms, L be the list of protected conditions, t be a primitive task atom, and o be a planning operator whose head, precondition, delete list, add list, and cost are h, P, D, A, and c, respectively. Suppose that there is an mgu u for t and h, such that h^u is ground, that none of the ground atoms in D^u are in the list of protected conditions, and P^u is satisfied in S. Then we say that o^u is **applicable** to t, and that h^u is a **simple plan** for t. If S is a state, then the state and the protection list produced by executing o^u (or equivalently, h^u) in S and L is the new state:

$$(S',L') = \text{result}(S,L,h^u) = \text{result}(S,L,o^u) = (S - D^u) \cup A^u.$$

where S' and L' are obtained by modifying the current state of the world and the list of protected conditions as follows:

- remove every logical atom in D^u from the current state;
- remove every protection condition in D^u from the list of protected conditions;
- for every expression `(forall V Y Z)` in D^u and every satisfier v such that S and X satisfy Y^v, remove every logical atom in Z^u from the current state;
- for every expression `(forall V Y Z)` in D^u and every satisfier v such that S and X satisfy Y^v,, remove every protection condition in Z^u from the list of protected conditions;
- add every logical atom in A^u to the current state;
- add every protection condition in A^u to the list of protected conditions;
- for every expression `(forall V Y Z)` in A^u and every satisfier v such that S and X satisfy Y^v, add every logical atom in Z^u to the current state;

- for every expression `(forall V Y Z)` in A^u and every satisfier v such that S and X satisfy Y^v, add every protection condition in Z^u to the list of protected conditions.

Here is an example:

S	((has-money john 40) (has-money mary 30))
T	(!set-money john 40 35)
O	(:operator (!set-money ?person ?old ?new) ((has-money ?person ?old)) ((has-money ?person ?old)) ((has-money ?person ?new)))
U	((?person . john) (?old . 40) (?new . 35))
o^u	(:operator (!set-money john 40 35) ((has-money john 40)) ((has-money john 40)) ((has-money john 35)))
h^u	(!set-money john 40 35)
Result(S,h^u)	((has-money john 35) (has-money mary 30))
result(S,o^u)	((has-money john 35) (has-money mary 30))

Here is an example using the forall keyword

S	((location l1) (location l2) (location l3) (truck-at truck1 l1))
T	(!clear-locations)
O	(:operator (!clear-locations) ((forall (?l) ((location ?l) (not (truck-at ?t ?l))) ((location ?l)))) ())
U	()
o^u	(:operator (!clear-locations) ((forall (?l) ((location ?l) (not (truck-at ?t ?l))) ((location ?l)))) ())
h^u =	(!clear-locations)
Result(S,h^u)	((location l1) (truck-at truck1 l1))
result(S,o^u)	((location l1) (truck-at truck1 l1))

6.2.2 Semantics of Methods

The purpose of a method is to specify the following:

- If the current state of the world satisfies C_1, then h can be accomplished by performing the tasks in T_1 in the order given;
- otherwise, if the current state of the world satisfies C_2, then h can be accomplished by performing the tasks in T_2 in the order given;
- ...;

- otherwise, if the current state of the world satisfies C_k, then h can be accomplished by performing the tasks in T_k in the order given.

Let S be a state, X be an axiom list, t be a task atom (which may or may not be ground), and m be the method `(:method` h C_1 T_1 C_2 T_2 ... C_k T_k`)`. Suppose there is an mgu u that unifies t with h; and suppose that m has a precondition C_i such that S and X satisfy C_i^u (if there is more than one such precondition, then let C_i be the first such precondition). Then we say that m is **applicable** to t in S and X, with the **active precondition** C_i and the **active tail** T_i. Then the result of applying m to t is the following set of task lists:

$$R = \{Call((T_i^u)^v) : v \text{ is an mgs for } C_i^u \text{ from } S \text{ and } X\}$$

where C*all* is SHOP2's evaluation function (the function that evaluates the values of the call-terms in the form `(call f` t_1 t_2 `..` t_n`)`). Each task list r in R is called a **simple reduction** of t by m in S and X. Here is an example:

S
```
((has-money john 40) (has-money mary 30))
```
X
```
nil
```
t
```
(transfer-money john mary 5)
```
M
```
(:method (transfer-money ?p1 ?p2 ?amount)
         ((has-money ?p1 ?m1)
          (has-money ?p2 ?m2)
          (call >= ?m1 ?amount))
         (:ordered (:task !set-money ?p1 ?m1
                          (call - ?m1 ?amount))
                   (:task !set-money ?p2 ?m2
                          (call + ?m2 ?amount))))
```
u
```
((?p1 . john) (?p2 . mary) (?amount . 5))
```
h^u
```
(transfer-money john mary 5)
```
C_1^u
```
((has-money john ?m1)
 (has-money mary ?m2)
 (call >= ?m1 5))
```
T_1^u
```
(:ordered (:task !set-money john ?m1 (call - ?m1 5))
          (:task !set-money mary ?m2 (call + ?m2 5))))
```
v
```
((?m1 . 40) (?m2 . 30))
```
$(C_1^u)^v$
```
((has-money john 40)
 (has-money mary 30)
 (call >= 40 30)))
```
$(T^u)^v$
```
(:ordered (:task !set-money john 40 (call - 40 5))
          (:task !set-money mary 30 (call + 30 5)))
```
$call((T^u)^v)$
```
(:ordered (:task !set-money john 40 35)
          (:task !set-money mary 30 35))
```

6.2.3 Semantics of Plans

Recall that a planning domain contains axioms, operators, and methods, and that a planning problem is a 4-tuple (*S,M,L,D*), where S is a state, M is a task list, L is a

protection list, and D is a domain representation. Let T be the list of tasks in M that have no predecessor (i.e., those tasks can be performed at this time if they are applicable). If t is a task in T, and S is a state, then a **reduction** of t in S and D with respect to M and L that results in a new planning problem (S',M',L',D) is defined as follows:

if t is a primitive task, **then**
    (S', L') = result(S,L,t);
    M' = the task list produced by removing t from M
else t is a compound task, **then**
    $S' = S$;
    $L' = L$;
    Suppose m is an applicable method to t in S, with unifier u, the active precondition C_i and the active tail T_i.
    M' = the task list produced by replace t with T_i^u in M
endif

If $P = (p_1\ p_2\ \ldots\ p_n)$ is a plan, then we say that P **solves** (S,M,L,D), or equivalently, that P achieves M from S in D (we will omit the phrase "in D" if the identity of D is obvious) in any of the following cases:

Case 1.
both M and P are empty.

Case 2.
$T = (t_1\ t_2\ \ldots\ t_k)$ is a list of tasks in M that have no predecessor for which there is a task t_i that has the `:immediate` keyword and is applicable to the current state S. Let (S', M', L') = reduction(t_i, S, M, L). We say P **solves**(S,M,L,D) if either of the following is true.

- t_i is primitive and $p_1 = t_i$ and $(p_2\ p_3 \ldots p_n)$ solves (S', M', L', D)
- t_i is not primitive, and P solves (S', M', L', D)

Case 3.
$T = (t_1\ t_2\ \ldots\ t_k)$ is a list of tasks in M that have no predecessor, where t_i is a task in T that's applicable to the current state S. Let (S', M', L') = reduction(t_i, S, M, L). We say P **solves** (S,M,L,D) if either of the following is true.

- t_i is primitive and $p_1 = t_i$ and $(p_2\ p_3 \ldots p_n)$ solves (S', M', L', D)
- t_i is not primitive and P solves (S', M', L', D)

The planning problem (S,M,L,D) is **solvable** if there is a plan that solves it. For example, suppose that

S	`nil`
M	`((:ordered (:task do-both op1 op2)))`
T	`((:task do-both op1 op2))`
L	`nil`

D	`((:operator (!do ?operation) nil ((did ?operation)))`
	`  (:method (do-both ?x ?y) nil`
	`  (:ordered (:task !do ?x)`
	`  (:task !do ?y)))`
	`  (:method (do-both ?x ?y) nil`
	`  (:ordered (:task !do ?y)`
	`  (:task !do ?x))))`

P_1 P_2	`((do op1) 1 (do op2) 1))` `((do op2) 1 (do op1) 1))`

Then P_1 and P_2 are all of the plans that solve (*S,M,L,D*).

6.3 Key Functions in SHOP2

Below are some important functions in the Lisp implementation of SHOP2. They should be of interest to anyone who wishes to modify SHOP2 or to directly access internal capabilities of SHOP2. Pseudocode algorithms for the main planning functions of SHOP2 are also presented.

`(apply-substitution e u)`

e is an expression and *u* is a substitution. The function returns e^u.

`(compose-substitutions u v)`

If *u* and *v* are substitutions, then this function returns a substitution *w* such that for every expression *e*, $e^w = (e^u)^v$.

`(standardizer e)`

This function returns a standardizer for *e*.

`(standardize e)`

This function is equivalent to `(apply-substitution e (standardizer e))`.

`(unify d e)`

This procedure returns an mgu for the expressions *d* and *e* if they are unifiable, and returns `fail` otherwise.

`(find-satisfiers C S &optional just-one)`

If *C* is a conjunct and *S* is a state, then this function returns a list of mgs's, one for every most general instance of *C* that is satisfied by *S*. If the optional argument *just-one* is not `nil`, then the function returns the first mgs it finds, rather than all of them. Calling `(find-satisfiers C S)` is roughly equivalent to calling the following (simplified) pseudocode:

```
procedure find-satisfiers(C, S)
        if C is empty then return {nil}
        l = the first logical atom in C; B = the remaining logical atoms in C
        answers = nil
        if l is an expression of the form (not e) then
                if find-satisfiers(e, S, nil) = nil then
                        return find-satisfiers(B, S)
                else
                        return nil
                end if
        else if l is an expression of the form (eval e) then
                if eval(e) is not nil then
                        return find-satisfiers(B, S)
                else
                        return nil
                end if
        else if l is an expression of the form (or p1 p2 ... pn) then
                for every unifier u that unifies any pi with l
                        for every v in find-satisfiers(B^u, S)
                                insert compose-substitutions(u,v) into answers
                        end for
                end for
        else if l is an expression of the form (imply C1 C2) then
                mgu = find-satisfiers(C1, S)
                if mgu is null or there exist a unifier u in mgu such that
                        find-satisfiers(C2^u, S) is not equal to nil then
                        return find-satisfiers(B, S)
                else
                        return nil
                end if
        else if l is an expression of the form
                (forall variables bounds conditions) then
                mgu = find-satisfiers(bounds, S)
                if mgu is null or for every unifier u in mgu,
                        find-satisfiers(conditions^u, S) is not equal to nil then
                        return find-satisfiers(B, S)
                else
                        return nil
                end if
        else
                for every atom s in S that unifies with l
                        let u be the unifier
                        for every v in find-satisfiers(B^u, S)
                                insert compose-substitutions(u,v) into answers
                        end for
                end for
```

for every axiom x in *axioms* whose head unifies with l
let u be the unifier
if tail(x) contains a conjunct D such that
find-satisfiers(append(D^u, B^u), S) is not nil **then**
let D be the first such conjunct
for every v in find-satisfiers(append(D^u, B^u), S)
insert compose-substitutions(u, v)
into answers
end for
end if
end for
end if
return answers
end find-satisfiers

In this pseudo-code, *axioms* is an internal variable of SHOP2. It holds the list of the axioms defined for the domain under consideration.

`(apply-method S t m)`

If S is a state, t is a task, and m = `(:method h` C_1 T_1 C_2 T_2 `...` C_k T_k`)` is a method, then this function does the following:

- If m is not applicable to t in S, then the function returns the symbol `FAIL`.
- If m is applicable to t in S and C_i is the active precondition, then the function returns a list of all simple reductions of T_i, one for each satisfier of C_i in S.

`(apply-operator S t o)`

If S is a state, t is a task, and o is an operator, then this function does the following:

- If there is an mgu u for o and t, then it returns the state produced by executing o^u in S.
- Otherwise, it returns `FAIL`.

```
(find-plans problem &key which verbose pshort gc pp state plan-tree
                         optimize-cost time-limit explanation)
```

This function implements the SHOP2 planning algorithm. For more about the arguments to and use of this function, see Section 5.1. A brief overview of the algorithm for this function is presented here. Calling `find-plans` is roughly equivalent to calling the following pseudocode, where S is the current state, T is a partially ordered set of tasks, and L is a list of protected conditions:

procedure find-plans (S,T,L)
if T is empty **then**
return NIL
endif

```
        nondeterministically choose a task t in T that has no predecessors
        <r,R'> = reduction (S,t)
        if r = FAIL then
            return FAIL
        endif
        nondeterministically choose an operator instance o applicable to r in S
        S' = the state produced from S by applying o to r
        L' = the protection list produced from L by applying o to r
        T' = the partially ordered set of tasks produced from T by replacing t
            with R'
        P = find-plans (S',T',L')
        return cons(o,P)
    end find-plans


    procedure reduction (S,t)
        if t is a primitive task then
            return <t,NIL>
        else if no method is applicable to t in S then
            return <FAIL,NIL>
        endif
        nondeterministically let m be any method applicable to t in S
        R = the decomposition (partially ordered set of tasks) produced by m
            from t
        r = any task in R that has no predecessors
        <r',R'> = reduction (S,r)
        if r' = FAIL then
            return <FAIL,NIL>
        endif
        R'' = the partially ordered set of tasks produced from R by replacing r
            with R'
        return <r',R''>
    end reduction
```

`(defdomain` *`domain-name D`*`)`

This macro gives the name *domain-name* to planning domain *D*. (More specifically, what it does is to store *D*'s axioms, operators, and methods on *domain-name*'s property list.)

`(defproblem` *`problem-name domain-name S T`*`)`

This macro gives the name *problem-name* to the planning problem *(S,T,D)*, where *D* is the planning domain whose name is *domain-name*. (More specifically, what it does is to store *S*, *T*, and *domain-name* on *problem-name*'s property list.)

`(def-problem-set` *`set-name list-of-problems`*`)`

This macro gives the name *set-name* to the set of planning problems in *list-of-problems*. (More specifically, what it does is to store *list-of-problems* on *set-name*'s property list.)

Note that for backwards compatibility, SHOP2 also accepts the forms make-domain, make-problem, and make-problem-set, which were employed in SHOP 1.x, using the same arguments as defdomain, defproblem, and def-problem-set. The difference between the make-X and def-X forms is that in the latter case since the form itself is a macro, the arguments are not evaluated. This changes the syntax one uses. Thus in a SHOP 1.x domain one might define a problem as

```
(make-problem ‘problem-name ‘domain-name
              ‘(list of state atoms)
              ‘(list of tasks to be accomplished))
```

whereas in SHOP2 the syntax becomes

```
(defproblem problem-name domain-name
              (list of state atoms)
              (list of tasks to be accomplished))
```

where the arguments are all quoted in the SHOP 1.x make-problem function, they are unquoted when using the SHOP2 defproblem macro.

`(print-axioms &optional` *name*`)`
: This function prints a list of the axioms for the domain whose name is *name*; defaults to the most recently defined domain.

`(print-operators &optional` *name*`)`
: This function prints a list of the operators for the domain whose name is *name*; defaults to the most recently defined domain.

`(print-methods &optional` *name*`)`
: This function prints a list of the methods for the domain whose name is *name*; defaults to the most recently defined domain.

`(get-state` *name*`)`
: This function returns the initial state for the problem whose name is *name*.

`(get-tasks` *name*`)`
: This function returns the list of tasks for the problem whose name is *name*.

`(get-problems` *name*`)`
: This function returns the list of problem names for the problem set whose name is *name*.

`(do-problems name-or-list &rest keywords)`

name-or-list should be either a list of problem names or the name of a problem set. This function runs `find-plans` on each planning problem specified by the list or problem set, and then returns `nil`. The keywords are simply passed on to `find-plans`.

7 PDDL Compatibility

The current release of SHOP2 provides a preliminary capability to incorporate PDDL domain definitions into a SHOP2 domain. You should be able to incorporate components of a PDDL domain definition into a SHOP2 domain definition of `:type pddl-domain` or `simple-pddl-domain`. A `pddl-domain` corresponds to a PDDL domain of the ADL type. The `pddl-domain` uses conditional-effects, existential-preconditions, universal-preconditions, and equality (note that these are *PDDL* conditional effects, existential preconditions and universal preconditions; these are *not* SHOP-syntax condition effects, etc.). A `simple-pddl-domain` will not have conditional-effects, existential-preconditions, universal-preconditions, or equality. Currently the PDDL integration is a little bumpy. For example, PDDL action names are translated into names that SHOP will recognize as primitives (e.g., `move` would become `!move`, and would have to be referenced that way in SHOP method definitions that use it), and you must splice the PDDL domain components into the SHOP domain definition. Later we will add the ability to reference a PDDL domain definition file, rather than pulling in its components. Fully ground STRIPS-style domains will work very poorly. Note that the parsing of PDDL domains in SHOP is not strict. This is intentional, because we don't want to make it impossible to include SHOP constructs together with PDDL constructs. However, there should probably be a "strict mode" that checks for true conformance with PDDL syntax, and we should probably codify rules for mingling SHOP and PDDL syntaxes.

8 Differences between SHOP 1.x and SHOP2

The differences between SHOP2 and SHOP 1.x can be grouped in two sets: syntactic changes in the domain definitions and differences in functionality.

8.1 SHOP 1.x Syntax Comparison

The table below gives examples of SHOP 1.x syntax, comparing it to the syntax used in SHOP2:

Previous syntax	**New Syntax**

(make-domain 'travel
  '(
  (:- (have-taxi-fare ?distance)
  ((have-cash ?m)
  (eval (>= ?m (+ 1.5 ?distance)))))
 	
  (:- (walking-distance ?u ?v)
  ((weather-is'good)
  (distance ?u ?v ?w)
  (eval (<= ?w 3)))
  ((distance ?u ?v ?w)
	(defdomain travel
	  (
	  (:- (have-taxi-fare ?distance)
	  ((have-cash ?m)
	  (call >= ?m (call + 1.5 ?distance))))
	
	  (:- (walking-distance ?u ?v)
	  good ((weather-is good)
	  (distance ?u ?v ?w)
	  (call <= ?w 3))
	  bad ((distance ?u ?v ?w)

```
                (eval (<= ?w 0.5))))

    (:method (pay-driver ?fare)
          ((have-cash ?m)
             (eval (>= ?m ?fare)))
          `((!set-cash ?m ,(- ?m ?fare))))

    (:method (travel-to ?q)
          ((at ?p) (walking-distance ?p ?q))
           '((!walk ?p ?q)))

    (:method (travel-to ?y)
       ((at ?x) (at-taxi-stand ?t ?x)
        (distance ?x ?y ?d) (have-taxi-fare ?d))
      `((!hail ?t ?x) (!ride ?t ?x ?y)
        (pay-driver ,(+ 1.50 ?d)))
       ((at ?x) (bus-route ?bus ?x ?y))
        `((!wait-for ?bus ?x) (pay-driver 1.00)
          (!ride ?bus ?x ?y)))

    (:operator (!hail ?vehicle ?location)
          ()
          ((at ?vehicle ?location)))

    (:operator (!wait-for ?bus ?location)
          ()
          ((at ?bus ?location)))

     (:operator (!ride ?vehicle ?a ?b)
         ((at ?a) (at ?vehicle ?a))
         ((at ?b) (at ?vehicle ?b)))

     (:operator (!set-cash ?old ?new)
         ((have-cash ?old))
         ((have-cash ?new)))

     (:operator (!walk ?here ?there)
         ((at ?here))
         ((at ?there)))
 ))
```

```
                (call <= ?w 0.5)))

    (:method (pay-driver ?fare)
          ((have-cash ?m)
             (call >= ?m ?fare))
          ((!set-cash ?m ( call - ?m ?fare))))

    (:method (travel-to ?q)
          ((at ?p) (walking-distance ?p ?q))
           ((!walk ?p ?q)))

    (:method (travel-to ?y)
        by-taxi
        ((at ?x) (at-taxi-stand ?t ?x)
        (distance ?x ?y ?d) (have-taxi-fare ?d))
        ((!hail ?t ?x) (!ride ?t ?x ?y)
         (pay-driver (call + 1.50 ?d)))
        by-bus
       ((at ?x) (bus-route ?bus ?x ?y))
       ((!wait-for ?bus ?x) (pay-driver 1.00)
          (!ride ?bus ?x ?y)))

    (:operator (!hail ?vehicle ?location)
          () ()
          ((at ?vehicle ?location)))

    (:operator (!wait-for ?bus ?location)
          () ()
          ((at ?bus ?location)))

     (:operator (!ride ?vehicle ?a ?b)
         ()
         ((at ?a) (at ?vehicle ?a))
         ((at ?b) (at ?vehicle ?b)))

     (:operator (!set-cash ?old ?new)
         ((have-cash ?old))
         ((have-cash ?old))
         ((have-cash ?new)))

     (:operator (!walk ?here ?there)
         ((at ?here))
         ((at ?here))
         ((at ?there)))
 ))
```

```
(make-problem 'go-park-rich 'travel

  `((distance downtown park 2)
   (distance downtown uptown 8)
   (distance downtown suburb 12)
   (at-taxi-stand taxi1 downtown)
   (at-taxi-stand taxi2 downtown)
   (bus-route bus1 downtown park)
   (bus-route bus2 downtown  uptown)
   (bus-route bus3 downtown  suburb)
   (at downtown)
   (weather-is good)
   (have-cash 80))
```

```
(defproblem go-park-rich travel

   ((distance downtown park 2)
   (distance downtown uptown 8)
   (distance downtown suburb 12)
   (at-taxi-stand taxi1 downtown)
   (at-taxi-stand taxi2 downtown)
   (bus-route bus1 downtown park)
   (bus-route bus2 downtown uptown)
   (bus-route bus3 downtown  suburb)
   (at downtown)
   (weather-is good)
   (have-cash 80))
```

'((travel-to park)))	((travel-to park)))
(make-problem-set 'travel '(go-park-broke go-park-rich))	(def-problem-set travel (go-park-broke go-park-rich)) *def-problem-set is not available in JSHOP
(do-problems 'travel :which :all)	Works in SHOP2 without any changes. Not available in JSHOP.

To summarize, the changes in syntax are as follows:

- Quotes, back quotes and commas are not used in SHOP2 except as needed in general Lisp expressions.
- *make-domain* is replaced with *defdomain.*
- *make-problem* is replaced with *defproblem.*
- Operators may have preconditions in SHOP2.
- The tail of an axiom can have names for each of the conjuncts, and the tail of a method can have names for each of the precondition-tail pairs. These names are optional.
- An ordinary list can be differentiated from a predicate or a function by inserting the optional label, *list*, before the first element of the list.
- In SHOP 1.x it was valid to have methods of the following form, where *e* is any Lisp expression:

```
(:method  (varSubtasks ?tasklist)
          ((precondition))
          e)
```

  This kind of method is not supported in SHOP2.

Note that in many cases, SHOP2 is able to process SHOP 1.x syntax (i.e., SHOP2 is partially backward compatible). For example, the old *make-domain* and *make-problem* forms can be handled by SHOP2. It is recommended, however, that new domains be written using the new SHOP2 forms.

8.2 SHOP 1.x Functionality Comparison

The following are some key differences between the functionality of SHOP 1.x and SHOP2:

- Unlike SHOP 1.x, SHOP2 allows the combination of partially ordered and fully ordered tasks through the use of the `:unordered` and `:ordered` keywords.

- The following keywords in SHOP2 domain definitions are not supported in SHOP 1.x: `or`, `assign`, `sort-by`, `forall`. The functionality associated with those keywords is not available in SHOP 1.x.
- The `not` keyword in SHOP 1.x can only be applied to individual atoms, not to arbitrary logical expressions.
- The `:optimize-cost`, `:time-limit`, and `:plan-tree` keyword arguments for SHOP2 are not supported in SHOP 1.x. The functionality associated with those keywords is not available in SHOP 1.x.
- The debugging features in SHOP2 (see Sections 5.2 and 5.3) are not present in SHOP 1.x.
- SHOP2 version 1.1 includes a Java interface. SHOP 1.x has no such interface.

SHOP2 is largely backward compatible with SHOP 1.x . SHOP2 can run most SHOP 1.x knowledge bases with only little or no modification.

9 General Notes on SHOP2

1. Since the null conjunct is always true, an axiom of the form `(:- a nil)` is equivalent to asserting the atom *a* as a basic fact. The difference is that the expression `(:- a nil)` is what one would put into the set of axioms for the problem domain, whereas the atom *a* is what one would put into a state description. An atom *a* in the state description can be deleted by an operator. However, if we have an axiom `(:- a nil)`, then *a* is always true, no operator can change that.

2. An axiom with several conjuncts in its tail has a different semantics than what you would get by making each conjunct the tail of a separate axiom. For example, consider the following axiom lists:

```
X1 = ((:- (a ?x) ((b ?x))
                 ((c ?x)))))

X2 = ((:- (a ?x) ((b ?x)))
      (:- (a ?x) ((c ?x))))
```

   In X_1, the single axiom acts like an *if-then-else*: if ((b ?x)) is true then `find-satisfiers` returns the satisfiers for (b ?x); otherwise if ((c ?x)) is true then it returns the satisfiers for (c ?x). For example,

```
(find-satisfiers '((a ?u)) '((b 2) (c 3)))
```

   would return

```
(((?u . 2))).
```

   On the other hand, in X_2, the set of axioms acts like a logical "or": `find-satisfiers` returns every satisfier for (b ?x) and every satisfier for (c ?x). In this case,

```
(find-satisfiers '((a ?u)) '((b 2) (c 3)))
```

would return

```
(((?u . 2)) ((?u . 3))).
```

3. Since a primitive task name is basically a call to an operator, you should never create a set of methods and operators that has more than one operator for the same primitive task. Otherwise, your plans will be ambiguous.

4. The following two calls to `find-plans` SHOP2 will find the same set of all shallowest plans, but in the first case SHOP2 will use a depth-first search and in the second case it will use an iterative-deepening search:

```
(find-plans 'p :which :all-shallowest)
(find-plans 'p :which :id-all)
```

   Likewise, the following two calls to SHOP2 will both find the same shallowest plan, but in the first case SHOP2 will use a depth-first search and in the second case it will use an iterative-deepening search:

```
(find-plans 'p :which :shallowest)
(find-plans 'p :which :id-first)
```

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