

Principles of AI Planning

1. Introduction

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Albert-Ludwigs-Universität Freiburg

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AI Planning

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About the course

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Lecturers

Prof. Dr. Bernhard Nebel

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Assistant

Thomas Keller

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Tutor

Yusra Alkhazraji

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Time & place

Lectures

- time: Tuesday 16:15-18:00, Friday 14:15-15:00
- place: SR 101-01-018

Exercises

- time: Friday 15:15-16:00
- place: SR 101-01-018

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Course web site

<http://gki.informatik.uni-freiburg.de/teaching/ws1112/aip/>

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

Teaching materials

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

Acknowledgments:

- slides based on earlier courses by Jussi Rintanen, Bernhard Nebel and Malte Helmert
- many figures by Gabi Röger

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Target audience

Students of Computer Science:

- Master of Science, any year
- Bachelor of Science, ~3rd year

Students of Applied Computer Science:

- Master of Science, ~2nd year

Other students:

- advanced study period (~4th year)

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Prerequisites

Course prerequisites:

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

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Credit points & exam

- 6 ECTS points
- special lecture in concentration subject
Artificial Intelligence and Robotics
- oral exam of about 30 minutes B.Sc. students
- written or oral exam for M.Sc. students
(depending on their number)

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Exercises (written assignments):

- handed out on Tuesdays (exception: sheet 1 handed out this Friday instead of Tuesday next week because of All Saints' Day)
- due Tuesday following week, before the lecture
- discussed Friday that week
- may be solved in groups of two students ($2 \neq 3$)
- successful participation prerequisite for exam admission

Projects (programming assignments):

- handed out every now and then
(probably three times over the course of the semester)
- more time to work on than for exercises
- may be solved in groups of two students ($2 = 2$)
- language: Python
- codebase: <https://bitbucket.org/malte/pyperplan>
- solutions that obviously do not work: 0 marks
 - may fix bugs uncovered by our testing
if still within submission deadline
- successful participation prerequisite for exam admission

Admission to exam

- points can be earned for “reasonable” solutions to exercises and projects (one project counts like two exercise sheets).
- at least 50% of points prerequisite for admission to final exam.

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Plagiarism

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What is plagiarism?

- passing off solutions as your own that are not based on your ideas (work of other students, Internet, books, ...)
- <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Plagiarism> is a good intro

Consequence: no admission to the final exam.

- We may (!) be generous on first offense.
- Don't tell us "We did the work together."
- Don't tell us "I did not know this was not allowed."

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What is planning?

Planning

“Planning is the art and practice of thinking before acting.”

— Patrik Haslum

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

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Why is planning difficult?

- solutions to classical planning problems are **paths from an initial state to a goal state** in the **transition graph**
 - efficiently solvable by Dijkstra's algorithm in $O(|V| \log |V| + |E|)$ time
 - Why don't we solve all planning problems this way?
- state spaces may be **huge**: $10^{10}, 10^{100}, 10^{1000}, \dots$ states
 - constructing the transition graph is infeasible!
 - planning algorithms try to **avoid constructing whole graph**
- planning algorithms are often much more efficient than obvious solution methods constructing the transition graph and using e. g. Dijkstra's algorithm

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Different classes of problems

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

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Properties of the world: dynamics

Deterministic dynamics

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

Nondeterministic dynamics

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

Probabilistic dynamics

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

Analogy: deterministic versus nondeterministic automata

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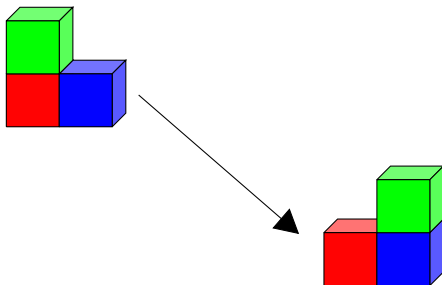
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Deterministic dynamics example

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



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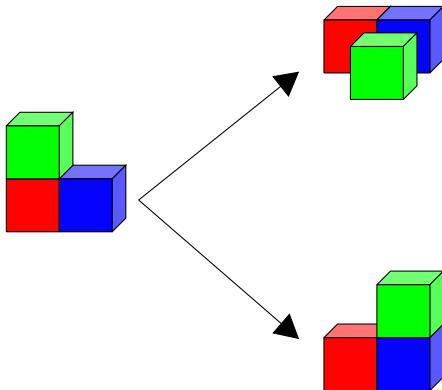
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Nondeterministic dynamics example

Moving objects with an **unreliable** robotic hand:
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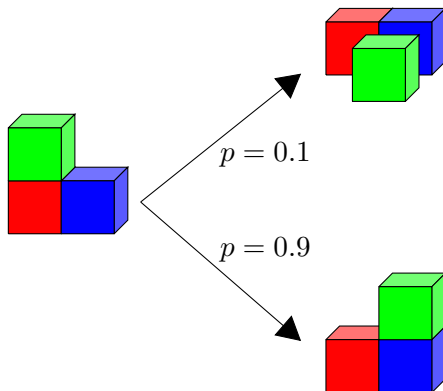
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Probabilistic dynamics example

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



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Properties of the world: observability

Full observability

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

Partial observability

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

No observability

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

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

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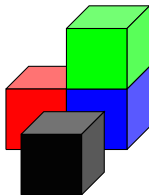
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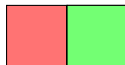
Summary

What difference does observability make?

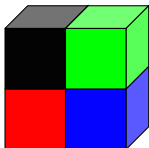
Camera A



Camera B



Goal



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Different objectives

- ➊ Reach a goal state.
 - **Example:** Earn 500 Euro.
- ➋ Stay in goal states indefinitely (infinite horizon).
 - **Example:** Never allow bank account balance to be negative.
- ➌ Maximize the probability of reaching a goal state.
 - **Example:** To be able to finance buying a house by 2022 study hard and save money.
- ➍ Collect the maximal **expected** rewards/minimal expected costs (infinite horizon).
 - **Example:** Maximize your future income.
- ➎ ...

Relation to games and game theory

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

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What do you learn in this course?

- emphasis on **classical** planning (“simplest” case)
- **theoretical background** for planning
 - formal **problem definition**
 - basic **theoretical notions**
(e. g., normal forms, progression, regression)
 - **computational complexity** of planning
- **algorithms** for planning:
 - based on **heuristic search**
 - based on satisfiability testing (**SAT**)
(time permitting)

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

- **hands-on experience** with a classical planner

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