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Greedy On-Line Planning

- abstract overview: what is greedy on-line planning?	
Part 1: - greedy on-line planning makes planning tractable example: greedy localization	
Part 2: - greedy on-line planning is reactive to the current situation (plus other advantages) example: greedy mapping example: moving a robot to goal coordinates in unknown terrat	n
Part 3: - fast replanning for greedy on-line planning example: replanning of shortest paths example: moving a robot to goal coordinates in unknown terrat example: greedy mapping example: symbolic planning heuristic search-based replanning calculating the heuristics for heuristic search-based planning	n
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state space can even become deterministic

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Nondeterministic Planning: Greedy On-Line Planning

both agent-centered search and assumption-based planning are

greedy planning methods because they make simplifying assumptions to make planning tractable

on-line planning methods because they interleave planning and plan execution

Note: without additional assumptions, it is not guaranteed that greedy on-line planning methods achieve the goal!

Nondeterministic Planning - Another Solution Assumption-Based Planning

planning in nondeterministic domains is time consuming due to the many contingencies assumption-based planning makes it more efficient by making assumptions about the outcomes of action executions



Nondeterministic Planning: Robot Navigation under Incomplete Information Sensor-Based Planning [Choset and Burdick, 1994]

robot knows the map but not its location - localization

robot knows its location but not the map

- mapping
- goal-directed navigation in unknown terrain



Hardness of (Approximately) Optimal Localization

Theorem [Tovey and Koenig, 2000]

It is in NP to determine whether there exists a valid localization plan that executes no more movements than a given value.

It is NP-hard to find a localization plan in gridworlds of size $m \times n$ whose worst-case number of movements to localization is within a factor $O(\log(mn))$ of optimum, even in connected gridworlds in which localization is possible.

contrast with: [Dudek, Romanik, Whitesides, 1995]







Hardness of (Approximately) Optimal Localization

Consider the following localization plan: Find the closest signature (= gives the robot its current column). Then move into all vertical corridors that correspond to a smallest set cover (= gives the robot its current row).

The number of movements of this localization plan is at most 3y^{*}xy.

Thus, the number of movements of an optimal localization plan is at most 3y^{*}xy.

Thus, the number of movements of a localization plan whose worst-case number of movements to localization is within a factor $O(\log(mn))$ of optimum is at most $O(\log(mn))$ $3y^*xy = O(\log(x))$ $3y^*xy \le O(3x^3y)$.

Thus, such a plan cannot leave its current east-west corridor and can only localize by moving into all corridors that correspond to a set cover. Let y' denote the cardinality of this set cover. Then, the number of movements is at least (2y'-1)(xy-x-1).

Thus, the number of movements is at least (2y'-1)(xy-x-1) and at most $O(\log(x)) 3y^*xy$, implying that $y' = O(\log(x)) y^*$ and thus that the set cover is within a factor $O(\log(x))$ of minimum.

However, it is NP-hard to find a set cover whose number of sets is within a factor $O(\log(x))$ of minimum.

qed



Cost of (Approximately) Optimal Localization

Theorem [Tovey and Koenig, 2000]

For every gridworld of size $m \times n$, there exists a valid localization plan that executes O(mn) movements to localization and that can be found in time O(mn).

This result is the best possible in the sense that there exist gridworlds of size $m \times n$ in which every valid localization plan must execute $\Omega(mn)$ movements to localization and can only be found in time $\Omega(mn)$.



Greedy Localization Greedy Localization repeatedly makes the robot execute a shortest (deterministic) movement sequence (subplan) that is guaranteed to reduce the number of possible robot cells by at least one. [Genesereth and Nourbakhsh, 1993][Koenig and Simmons, 1998] Greedy localization uses new information right away. {A1,C1,E1,B4,D4} 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 move east А {A2.B5} {C2.E2.D5} В С move south D {D2,E5} {F2} ... Е F

Cost of (Approximately) Optimal Localization



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Greedy Localization = Agent-Centered Search

Greedy Localization repeatedly makes the robot execute a shortest (deterministic) movement sequence (subplan) that is guaranteed to reduce the number of possible robot cells by at least one.

Thus, it plans in the deterministic part of the nondeterministic state space until a plan is found that achieves a gain in information.





Note: Assume localization is possible. The state space is safely explorable. Greedy Localization always achieves a gain in information. Thus, Greedy Localization localizes the robot.

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Gr	eedy Localization makes planning tractable.
Theorem	
The plann tion are g of the grid	ning and plan-execution times of Greedy Localiza- uaranteed to be low-order polynomials in the size dworld.
$\frac{1}{10000000000000000000000000000000000$	Greedy Approximately) Optimal Localization
Dist of (7 Howe Example fo	Greedy Approximately) Optimal Localization ever, its plan-execution time cannot be optimal.

Cost of (Approximation ptimal Localization

Greedy Localization is fast in practice.

Random Acyclic Mazes

	izution to rocutization
11×11 41.3% 2.4×1.4	5 = 3.6
21 x 21 45.4 % 3.3 x 1.7	7 = 5.4
31 x 31 46.8 % 3.8 x 1.7	7 = 6.6
41 x 41 47.6 % 4.1 x 1.8	8 = 7.5
51 x 51 48.1 % 4.5 x 1.8	8 = 8.0
61 x 61 48.4 % 4.7 x 1.8	8 = 8.6
71 x 71 48.6 % 4.9 x 1.9	9 = 9.1 (5041 cells)

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Cost of (Approximately) Optimal Localization

Our Acyclic Mazes

	gridworld size	obstacle density	av. number of subplans		av. number of steps per		av. total number of
			to localization	l	to localization		to localization
	11 x 25	50.2 %	4.5	х	2.3	=	10.2
	13 x 36	50.2 %	5.9	х	2.9	=	16.9
	15 x 49	50.2 %	7.4	х	3.2	=	23.7
	17 x 64	50.2 %	8.9	х	3.4	=	30.6
	19 x 81	50.2 %	10.4	х	4.0	=	42.0
	21 x 100	50.1 %	11.5	х	4.4	=	50.0
	23 x 121	50.1 %	13.4	х	4.5	=	60.4
	25 x 144	50.1 %	14.4	х	4.9	=	71.1
	27 x 169	50.1 %	16.0	х	5.2	=	82.5 (4563 cells)
	29 x 196	50.1 %	18.0	х	5.4	=	98.0 (5684 cells)
	31 x 225	50.1 %	19.4	х	5.7	=	110.5
	33 x 256	50.1 %	20.8	х	5.8	=	121.5
	35 x 289	50.1 %	22.5	х	6.1	=	137.7
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Greedy Cost of (Approximately) Optimal Localization

However, its plan-execution time cannot be optimal.

Example for a Room-Like Terrain*

The worst-case number of movements of Greedy Localization can be a factor $\Omega((mn)/(\log(mn)))$ worse than the optimal worst-case number of movements to localization in gridworlds of size $m \times n$, even in connected gridworlds in which localization is possible.

* We also have even better lower bounds (although in more complex gridworlds) and small upper bounds.

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 Greedy Cost of (Approximately) Optimal Localization Summary
 Localization

 (Approximately) Optimal Localization
 Greedy Localization

 planning time plan-execution time
 (likely) exponential low-order polynomial
 low-order polynomial





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[Burgard, Fox, Thrun, 1997]



Greedy Mapping = Agent-Centered Search

Greedy Mapping always moves the robot on a shortest path to closest **unobserved** (or unvisited) cell.

Thus, it plans in the deterministic part of the nondeterministic state space until a plan is found that achieves a gain in information.





Note: Assume mapping is possible. The state space is safely explorable. Greedy Mapping always achieves a gain in information. Thus, Greedy Mapping maps the terrain.

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Greedy Mapping we assume here that the robot can move in eight directions

Greedy Mapping always moves the robot on a shortest path to closest unobserved (or unvisited) cell.

[Koenig, Tovey, Halliburton, 2001] [Thrun et al. 1998] [Romero, Morales, Sucar, 2001]



Greedy Mapping - Advantages we assume here that the robot can move in eight directions

can easily be integrated into robot architectures ("reactive planning")







for example, our implementation combines greedy mapping and schema-based navigation (MissionLab) [Mackenzie, Arkin, Cameron, 1997]

does not need to be in control of the robot at all times ("reactive planning")



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Greedy Mapping - Travel Distance

Here: Greedy Mapping always moves the robot on a shortest path to the closest **unvisited** cell. This version of Greedy Mapping works on any strongly connected undirected graph.







Greedy Mapping - Travel Distance

Here: Greedy Mapping always moves the robot on a shortest path to the closest **unvisited** cell.



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Planning with the Freespace Assumption

Planning with the Freespace Assumption always moves the robot on a shortest potentially unblocked path to the goal cell.

[Brumitt and Stentz, 1998] [Hebert, McLachlan, Chang, 1999] [Matthies et al., 2000] [Thayer et al., 2000]



- Demo Vehicles of the Darpa UGV II Program - Mars Rover Prototype
- Prototypes of Urban Reconnaissance Robots

HMMWV that navigated 1,410 meters of natural outdoor terrain in 1995 [Stentz and Hebert, 1995]



Freespace Assumption = Assumption-Based Planning

Planning with the Freespace Assumption always moves the robot on a shortest potentially unblocked path to the goal cell.

Thus, it makes assumptions about outcomes of actions that make the nondeterministic state space deterministic.



Note: Assume moving to the goal is possible. The state space is safely explorable. Planning with the Freespace Assumption always achieves a gain in information. Thus, Planning with the Freespace Assumption moves to the goal.

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Freespace Assumption - Travel Distance

Here: Planning with the Freespace Assumption always moves the robot on a shortest (potentially unblocked) path to the goal vertex.



Freespace Assumption - Travel Distance Planning with the Freespace Assumption results in small travel distances if the freespace assumption is approximately satisfied, that is, if the obstacle density is small. However, the travel distances are also small if the freespace assumption is not satisfied.

Freespace Assumption - Travel Distance

Here: Planning with the Freespace Assumption always moves the robot on a shortest (potentially unblocked) path to the goal vertex.





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Greedy Mapping - Implementation we assume here that the robot can move in eight directions

Greedy Mapping always moves the robot on a shortest path to the

closest **unobserved** (or unvisited) cell.





Freespace Assumption - Implementation We assume here that the robot can move in eight directions Planning with the Freespace Assumption always moves the robot on a shortest potentially unblocked path to the goal cell. $\begin{array}{r} 5 & 4 & 3 & 3 & 3 \\ 5 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 2 & 2 \\ \hline 5 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 2 \\ \hline 5 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 5 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 5 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 5 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 5 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 5 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 5 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 5 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 5 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 5 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 5 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 5 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 5 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 5 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 5 & 5 & 5 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ \end{array}$





















	Path Planning - Exper changed eight-connected gridv uninformed search	vorld - first implementation heuristic search
complete search		(with the same tie-breaking as LPA*) ve= 284.0 +/- 5.9 va= 6177.3 +/- 129.3 hp= 1697.3 +/- 39.9
incremental search	ve = 173.0 +/- 4.9 va = 5697.4 +/- 167.0 hp = 956.2 +/- 26.6 ve = vertex expansions, va = vertex	Lifelong Planning A* ve= 25.6 +/- 2.0 va= 1235.9 +/- 75.0 hp= 240.1 +/- 16.9 accesses, hp = heap percolates



	Path Planning - Exper changed eight-connected gridwo uninformed search	rimental Evaluation orld - second implementation heuristic search
complete search	ve = 801.76 hp = 2359.60	(with the same tie-breaking as LPA*) ve= 172.20 hp= 724.60
incremental search	ve = 115.95 $hp = 561.48$ $ve = vertex expansions,$	Lifelong Planning A* ve= 18.80 hp=182.15 hp = heap percolates

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Path Planning - Lifelong Planning A* [Koenig, Likhachev, 2001] procedure CalculateKev(s) U.TopKey() returns the smallest priority return [min(g(s), rhs(s)) + h(s,s_{goal}); min(g(s), rhs(s))]; of all vertices in the priority queue U. procedure Initialize() If U is empty, then U.TopKey() returns $U = \emptyset;$ $[\infty; \infty]$. U.Pop() deletes the vertex with the for all $s \in S$ rhs $(s) = g(s) = \infty$ $rhs(s_{start}) = 0;$ smallest priority in priority queue U and U.Insert(sstart, CalculateKey(sstart)]; returns the vertex. U.Insert(s,k) inserts procedure UpdateVertex(u) vertex s into priority queue U with if $(u \neq s_{start})$ rhs $(u) = min_{s' \in Pred(u)}(g(s')+c(s',u));$ priority k. Finally, U.Remove(s) removes if $(u \in U)$ U.Remove(u); vertex s from priority queue U. if (g(u) ≠ rhs(u)) U.Insert(u, CalculateKey(u)); procedure ComputeShortestPath() The heuristics need to be nonnegative and while (U.TopKey < CalculateKey(s_{goal}) OR rhs(s_{goal}) \neq g(s_{goal})) (forward) consistent: u = U.Pop();if (g(u) > rhs(u)) $h(s_{goal}, s_{goal}) = 0$ g(u) = rhs(u);and $h(s,s_{goal}) \le c(s,s') + h(s',s_{goal})$ for all $s \in Succ(u)$ UpdateVertex(s); for all vertices $s \in S$ and $s' \in Succ(s)$. else $g(n) = \infty$ for all $s \in Succ(u) \cup \{u\}$ UpdateVertex(s); This version of LPA* can be procedure Main() optimized further without changing Initialize(): its overall operation. forever ComputeShortestPath(); Wait for changes in edge costs; We also have versions of LPA* that for all directed edges (u, v) with changed edge costs - break ties differently Update the edge cost c(u,v); - work with inconsistent heuristics UpdateVertex(v); - terminate earlier - contain several runtime optimizations.





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Path Planning - Lifelong Planning A*

Theorem: [Likhachev and Koenig, 2001]

ComputeShortestPath() expands every vertex at most twice and thus terminates.

Theorem: [Likhachev and Koenig, 2001]

After ComputeShortestPath() terminates, one can trace back a shortest path from the start to the goal by always moving from the current vertex s, starting at the goal, to any predecessor s' that minimizes g(s') + c(s',s) until the start is reached (ties can be broken arbitrarily).



Path Planning - Lifelong Planning A*

"Theorem:" [Likhachev and Koenig, 2001]

The first search of Lifelong Planning A* is the same as that of A*. Afterwards, Lifelong Planning A* operates in a very similar way to A*. (The theorem makes this more concrete. For example, ComputeShortestPath() expands locally overconsistent vertices with finite f-values in the same order as A*.)

Path Planning - Lifelong Planning A*

Theorem: [Likhachev and Koenig, 2001]

ComputeShortestPath() does not expand any vertices whose g-values were equal to their respective start distances before Compute-ShortestPath() was called.

= LPA* is efficient because it uses incremental search

Theorem: [Likhachev and Koenig, 2001]

ComputeShortestPath() expands at most those vertices s with [f(s); $g^*(s)$] \leq [f(s_{start}); $g^*(s_{start})$] or [g_{old}(s)+h(s); g_{old}(s)] \leq [f(s_{start}); $g^*(s_{start})$], where f(s) = $g^*(s)$ +h(s) and $g_{old}(s)$ is the g-value of s directly before the call to ComputeShortestPath().

= LPA* is efficient because it uses heuristic search

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Freespace Assumption - Implementation we assume here that the robot can move in eight directions

Planning with the Freespace Assumption always moves the robot on a shortest potentially unblocked path to the goal cell.







Transforming Planning with the Freespace Assumption to Path Planning here: search from the goal location towards the robot location - makes incremental search efficient



Freespace Assumption - D* Lite (Basic Version) Idea

When the robot moves, the goal of the search (s_{start}) moves. This influences the priorities of the vertices in the priority queue (but not which vertices are in the priority queue).

vertex s is locally inconsistent iff vertex s is in the priority queue with priority [min(g(s),rhs(s))+h(s_{olectart},s); min(g(s),rhs(s))]. h(s_{newstart},s)

This value changes when the robot moves from $s_{oldstart}$ to $s_{newstart}$. Thus, one needs to reorder the priority queue. [Stentz, 1994]







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Freespace Assumption - D* Lite (Final Version) Fictitious Example

priority queue A: [8;5]; B: [8;6]; C: [8;7] add vertex D with priority [10;5] priority queue A: [6;5]; B: [6;6]; C: [6;7] add vertex D with priority [10;5] priority queue A: [8;5]; B: [8;6]; C: [8;7] add vertex D with priority [12;5] priority queue A: [8;5]; B: [8;6]; C: [8;7] priority queue A: [8;5]; B: [8;6]; C: [8;7] priority queue B: [8;6]; C: [8;7]; A: [9;5] priority queue B: [8;6]; C: [8;7]; A: [9;5] correct priority is B: [8;6] expand B







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Greedy Mapping - Implementation we assume here that the robot can move in eight directions

we assume here that the robot can move in eight directions

Greedy Mapping always moves the robot on a shortest path to closest **unobserved** (or unvisited) cell.













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Symbolic Planning (with HSP) - Continual Planning



Greedy On-Line Planning; (c) Sven Koenig; Georgia Tech; January 2002. SA3 - 119 of 141 Symbolic Planning (with HSP) - Continual Planning



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Symbolic Planning (with HSP) - Continual Planning ve for elevator (5 floors) Miconic Domain (5 ttp savings percentage planning from scratch with SHERPA number of people SHERPA achieves speedups up to 80 percent













Symbolic Planning (with HSP) - One-Time Planning





and so on, for a total of 22 g-value updates. Minimax LPA* needs only 6. Note: Minimax LPA* expands every state at most twice.

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while there exists at least one state with g(s) = rhs(s) pick a state s with g(s) = rhs(s) and then set g(s) := rhs(s)

Prioritized Sweeping [Moore and Atkeson; 1993]

- chooses the g-value of which state to update
- updates the g-value of the chosen state in a particular way

Reinforcement Learning and On-Line DP

- minimizes the expected or worst-case plan-execution cost for MDPs

Minimax LPA*

- chooses the g-value of which state to update
- updates the g-value of the chosen state in a particular way
- terminates immediate once a shortest path is found
- uses heuristics to focus the search
- minimizes the worst-case plan-execution cost for MDPs











Control (with the Parti-Gam	ne algorithm)
terrains of size 2000 x 20	000
Implementation	Planning Time
Uninformed Search from Scratch Informed Search from Scratch Uninformed Incremental Search Informed Incremental Search (Minimax LPA*)	362 minutes 55 seconds 135 minutes 15 seconds 14 minutes 53 seconds 13 minutes 53 seconds

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Greedy On-Line Planning and Lifelong Planning Artificial Intelligence

Related Work:

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