

The Model Checking Integrated Planning System (MIPS)

Stefan Edelkamp and Malte Helmert

With the Model Checking Integrated Planning System MIPS, model checking has eventually approached classical AI planning. It was the first planning system based on formal verification techniques that turned out to be competitive with the various Graphplan- or SAT-based approaches on a broad spectrum of domains.

MIPS uses binary decision diagrams (BDDs, introduced by Bryant (1986)) to compactly store and operate on sets of states. More precisely, it applies reduced ordered binary decision diagrams, which we will refer to simply as BDDs for the rest of this article.

Its main strength compared to other, similar approaches lies in its precompiling phase, which infers a concise state representation by exhibiting knowledge that is implicit in the description of the planning domain (Edelkamp & Helmert 1999). This representation is then used to carry out an accurate reachability analysis without necessarily encountering exponential explosion of the representation.

The original version of MIPS, presented at ECP99, was capable of handling the STRIPS subset of PDDL. It was later extended to handle some important features of ADL, namely domain constants, types, negative preconditions and universally quantified conditional effects.

Other extensions include two additional search engines based on heuristics, one incorporating a single-state hill-climbing technique very similar to Hoffmann's FF, the other one making use of BDD techniques, thus combining heuristic search with symbolic representations. However, as the former does not contribute many new ideas, its merits mainly lying in the combination of Hoffmann's heuristic estimate with the preprocessing techniques of MIPS, we won't dwell on it.

Neither will we say much about the symbolic heuristic search techniques included in MIPS, namely the BDDA* and Pure BDDA* algorithms, as those were disabled in the AIPS 2000 planning competition in favor of the original MIPS planning algorithm, partly because it turned out to perform better on some domains, partly because it always yields optimal (sequential) plans, which we consider an important property of the planner that counterbalances some of its weaknesses in performance compared to other current planning systems such as FF. Readers interested in those

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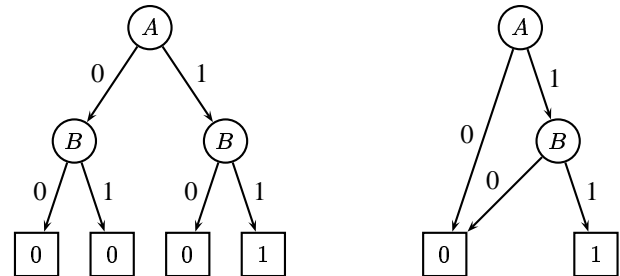


Figure 1: Two equivalent BDDs, a non-reduced and a reduced one. The “1” sink can only be reached by following the edges labeled “1” from A and B , thus the represented boolean function $\psi(A, B)$ evaluates to true if and only if A and B are true.

parts of the MIPS planning system are referred to Edelkamp and Helmert (2000).

So in the following sections we will cover the core of MIPS, illustrating its basic techniques with a very simple example.

BDDs: Why and For What?

MIPS is based on satisfiability checking. This is indeed not a new idea. However, MIPS was the first SAT-based planning system to make use of binary decision diagrams to avoid (or at least lessen) the costs associated with the exponential blowup of the Boolean formulae involved as problem sizes get bigger. Since the early days of MIPS, other planning systems based on BDDs have emerged, most notably Fourman's PROPPLAN and Stör's BDDPLAN. We believe that the key advantage of MIPS compared to those systems lies in its preprocessing algorithms.

So it looks like BDDs are currently considered an interesting topic in AI Planning. Why is that? There is no doubt about the usefulness of this data structure. Nowadays, BDDs are a fundamental tool in various research areas, such as model checking and the synthesis and verification of hardware circuits. In AI Planning, they are mainly useful because of their ability to efficiently represent huge sets of states commonly encountered in state-space search.

Without going into too much detail, a BDD is a data struc-

ture for efficiently representing Boolean functions, mapping bit strings of a fixed length to either “true” or “false”. A BDD is a directed acyclic graph with a single root node and two sinks, labeled “1” and “0”, respectively. For evaluating the represented function for a given input, a path is traced from the root node to one of the sinks, quite similar to the way decision trees are used. What distinguishes BDDs from decision trees is the use of certain reductions, detecting unnecessary variable tests and isomorphisms in subgraphs, leading to a unique representation that is polynomial in the length of the bit strings for many interesting functions. Figure 1 provides an example.

Among the operations supported by current BDD packages are all usual Boolean connectors such as “and” and “or”, as well as constant time satisfiability and equality checking. MIPS uses the “Buddy” package by Jørn Lind-Nielsen, which we considered particularly useful for our purposes because of its ability to form groups of several Boolean variables to easily encode finite domain integers.

In MIPS, BDDs are used for two purposes: Representing sets of states and representing state transitions.

BDDs for Representing Sets of States

Given a fixed-length binary code for the state space of a planning problem, BDDs can be used to represent the characteristic function of a set of states (which evaluates to true for a given bit string, i.e. state, if and only if it is a member of that set). The characteristic function can be identified with the set itself.

Unfortunately, there are many different possibilities to come up with an encoding of states in a planning problem, and the more obvious ones seem to waste a lot of space which often leads to bad performance of BDD algorithms. It seems worthwhile to spend some effort on finding a “good” encoding, so this is where the preprocessing of MIPS enters the stage.

Let us consider a very simple example of a planning problem where a truck is supposed to deliver a package from Los Angeles to San Francisco. The initial situation in PDDL notation is given by (PACKAGE package), (TRUCK truck), (LOCATION los-angeles), (LOCATION san-francisco), (AT package los-angeles), and (AT truck los-angeles). Goal states have to satisfy the condition (AT package san-francisco). The domain provides three action schemata named LOAD to load a truck with a certain package at a certain location, the inverse operation UNLOAD, and DRIVE to move a truck from one location to another.

The first preprocessing step of MIPS will detect that only the AT (denoting the presence of a given truck or package at a certain location) and IN predicates (denoting that a package is loaded in a certain truck) are fluents and thus need to be encoded. The labeling predicates PACKAGE, TRUCK, LOCATION are not affected by any operator and thus do not need to be specified in a state encoding.

In a next step, some mutual exclusion constraints are discovered. In our case, we will detect that a given object will always be at or in at most one other object, so propositions such as (AT package los-angeles) and (IN package truck) are mutually exclusive.

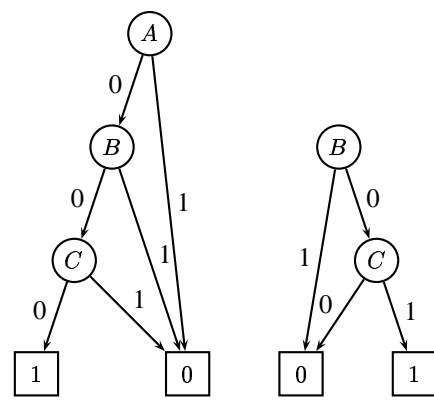


Figure 2: BDDs for the characteristic functions of the initial state, $init(A, B, C) = \neg A \wedge \neg B \wedge \neg C$, and of goal states, $goal(A, B, C) = \neg B \wedge C$.

This result is complemented by what we call fact space exploration: Ignoring negative (delete) effects of operators, we exhaustively enumerate all propositions that can be satisfied by any legal sequence of actions applied to the initial state, thus ruling out illegal propositions such as (IN los-angeles package), (AT package package) or (IN truck san-francisco).

Now all the information that is needed to devise an efficient state encoding schema for this particular problem is at the planner’s hands. MIPS discovers that three Boolean variables A , B , and C are needed. The first one is required for encoding the current city of the truck, where A is set if (AT truck san-francisco) holds true, and A is cleared otherwise, i.e. if (AT truck los-angeles) holds true. The other two variables B and C encode the status of the package: both are cleared if it is at Los Angeles, C but not B is set if it is at San Francisco, and B but not C is set if it is inside the truck.

We can now rephrase initial state and goal test as Boolean formulae, which can in turn be represented as BDDs: $\neg A \wedge \neg B \wedge \neg C$ denotes the initial situation, and the goal is reached in every state where $\neg B \wedge C$ holds true. The corresponding BDDs are illustrated in Figure 2.

BDDs for Representing State Transitions

What have we achieved so far? We were able to reformulate the initial and final situations as BDDs. As an end in itself, this does not help too much. We are interested in a sequence of actions (or *transitions*) that transforms an initial state into one that satisfies the goal condition.

Transitions are formalized as relations, i.e. as sets of tuples of predecessor and successor states, or alternatively as the characteristic function of such sets, Boolean formulae using variables A, B, C for the old situation and A', B', C' for the new situation. For example, the action (DRIVE truck los-angeles san-francisco), which is applicable if and only if the truck currently is in Los Angeles, and has as its effect a change of location of the truck, not altering the status of the package, can be formalized using the Boolean formula $\neg A \wedge A' \wedge (B \leftrightarrow B') \wedge (C \leftrightarrow C')$.

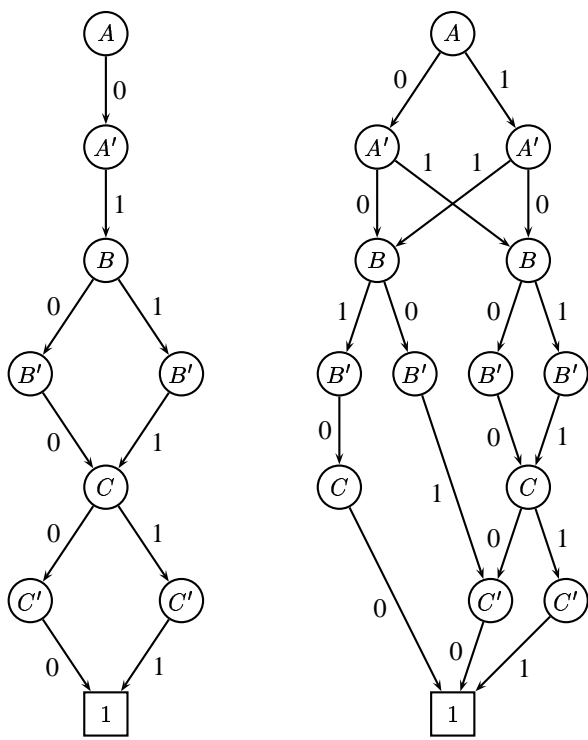


Figure 3: The left BDD represents the single action (DRIVE truck los-angeles san-francisco), the right one the disjunctions of all possible actions and thus the complete transition relation. The “0” sink and edges leading to it have been omitted for aesthetic reasons.

By conjoining this formula with any formula describing a set of states using variables A , B and C introduced before and querying the BDD engine for the possible instantiations of (A', B', C') , we can calculate all states that can be reached by driving the truck to San Francisco in some state from the input set. This, put shortly, is the relational product operator that is used at the core of MIPS to calculate a set of successor states from a set of predecessor states and a transition relation. Of course, we have more than one action at our disposal (otherwise planning would not be all that interesting), so rather than using the transition formula denoted above, we will build one such formula for each feasible action (adding a no-op action for technical reasons) and calculate the disjunction of those, illustrated in Figure 3.

Doing this in our example, starting from the set containing only the initial state, we get a set of three states (the initial state, one state where the truck has moved and one where the package was picked up), represented by a BDD with three internal nodes. Repeating this process, this time starting from the state set just calculated, we get a set of four states represented by a BDD with a single internal node, and a third iteration finally yields a state where the goal has been reached (Figure 4). This can be tested by building the conjunction of the current state set and goal state BDDs and testing for satisfiability.

By keeping the intermediary BDDs, a legal sequence of

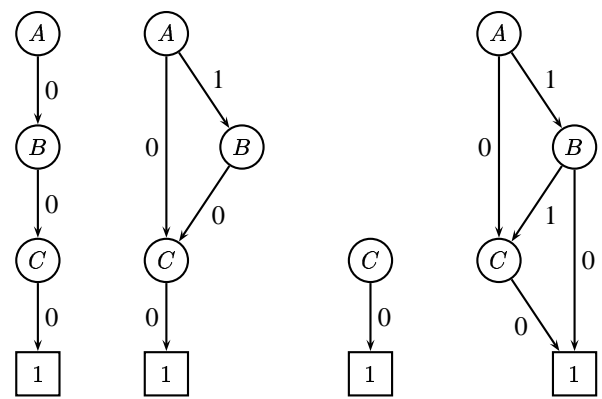


Figure 4: BDDs representing the set of reachable states after zero, one, two, and three iterations of the exploration algorithm. Note that the size (number of internal nodes) of a BDD does not necessarily grow with the number of states represented. Again, edges leading to the “0” sink have been omitted.

states linking the initial state to a goal state can then easily be extracted, which in turn can be used to find a corresponding sequence of actions.

Evaluation of the MIPS Algorithm

It is not hard to see that, given enough computational and memory resources, MIPS will find a correct plan if one exists. As it performs a breadth-first search in the state space, the first solution found will consist of a minimal number of steps. If no solution exists, this will also be detected - the breadth first search will eventually reach a fixpoint, which can easily be detected by comparing the successor BDD to the predecessor BDD after calculating the relational product. Thus, the algorithm is complete and optimal.

However, it is not blindingly fast, so various efforts were made to speed it up, mostly well-known standard techniques in symbolic search such as forward set simplification. A bigger gain in efficiency was achieved by using bidirectional search, which can be incorporated into the algorithm in a straight-forward fashion. One problem that arises in this context is that in some planning domains, backward iterations are far more expensive than forward iterations, and it is not trivial to decide when to perform which. We tried three different metrics to decide on the direction of the next exploration step: BDD size, number of states encoded, and time spent on the last exploration step in that direction. In our experiments, the last metric turned out to be most effective.

Outlook

As for the basic exploration algorithm, big improvements leading to a dramatically better performance are not to be expected for the near future, with the possible exception of transition function splitting, which still needs to be incorporated into the system.

From the algorithmic repertoire of MIPS, the heuristic symbolic search engine, which up to now has produced

promising results but is still lacking in some domains, is getting most attention at the moment (Edelkamp 2001). It might also be worthwhile to investigate the issue of optimal parallel plans, building on the work done by Haslum and Geffner for HSP (Haslum & Geffner 2000).

Another research aim is the development of precomputed, informative and admissible estimates for explicit and symbolic search based on heuristic pattern databases.

The single most important area of interest, however, is certainly the extension of MIPS to more general flavours of planning such as conformant or strong cyclic planning where the strengths of symbolic methods are much more apparent than in the classical scenario (Cimatti & Roveri 1999; Daniele, Traverso, & Vardi 1999).

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Biographical Information

Stefan Edelkamp is a research assistant at the Algorithms and Data Structures group of the Institute for Computer Science at the University of Freiburg. He studied computer science and mathematics in Dortmund and Dublin and received his Ph.D. in computer science from the University of Freiburg on the subject of "Data Structures and Learning Algorithms in State Space Search". His current research interests include sequential sorting, heuristic search, AI planning, model checking, and graph algorithms. His e-mail address is edelkamp@informatik.uni-freiburg.de.

Malte Helmert is currently working on his Ph.D. thesis at the Artificial Intelligence group of the Institute for Computer Science at the University of Freiburg. He studied computer science in Freiburg and Durham.

His current research interests include AI planning, complexity theory, games, and computational geometry. His e-mail address is helmert@informatik.uni-freiburg.de.