# HANDLING UNCERTAINTY SYSTEMS IN THE SITUATION CALCULUS WITH MACRO-ACTIONS

by

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#### Abstract

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The situation calculus is a second-order logic language used to describe the characteristics of autonomous agents acting in a dynamic system. Its breadth and powerfulness has been shown by the tremendous work achieved in broad areas. Recently, researchers have become more and more interested in modeling and controlling the performance of agents in an uncertainty system with such language.

In this paper, we focus on the problems that the autonomous agent performs similar strategies repeatedly under same local situations in some uncertainty system. We introduce a special concept of action — macro-action — into the situation calculus, extend basic action theories and regression operators, and develop a knowledge base for the macro-actions so that the agent can remember certain information of them and later "recall" it when the agent performs the macro-actions in the same local situation again, therefore achieving the goal of saving computational time.

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## Chapter 1

### Introduction

Since the birth of artificial intelligence (AI) in the mid-1950s [20, 5], developing techniques for constructing robust, autonomous agents that are able to achieve good performance in complex, real-world environments is always a central goal of AI. In order to achieve such a goal, researchers study simulated actions of autonomous agents in dynamic environments and try to develop formalized high-level controllers for autonomous agents. Several logicbased action formalisms have been developed to facilitate describing dynamic systems, such as the situation calculus [18, 17, 28], features and fluents [29],  $\mathcal{A}$  calculus [11] and event calculus [14, 31]. The situation calculus is one of the oldest and most powerful languages. After the solving of frame problem in the situation calculus [27], the research on the applications of situation calculus and further implementations now become a very active area in AI. The *Cognitive Robotics* group [1] of the University of Toronto has been working on it and proposed a programming language called *Golog* [15] which "appears to offer significant advantage over current tools for applications in dynamic domains like the high-level programming of robots and software agents, process control, discrete event simulation, complex database transactions, etc" [28].

To make autonomous agents perform "intelligently" in the real world, especially in an uncertainty environment, we not only study the relationship between actions and

dynamic world, but also need to get known about how human beings act intelligently in a dynamic world, so that the autonomous agents can simulate human behaviors and act "intelligently" (although AI is not always about simulating human intelligence [19]). As we know, in the real world, people often meet with unpredictable situations. For instance, when we flip a coin, we can not foretell the outcome is head or tail. So is it for autonomous agent, it is natural to require an autonomous agent to fit in such uncertainty system. Hence, from the end of 90's of last century, based on the study of the situation calculus and logic with probability [10], researchers began to work on highlevel programming for robot acting in probabilistic uncertainty systems with stochastic actions. From different points of view, they give several kinds of study results. For example, an extended interpreter of Golog called stGolog (c.f. [28] Chapter 12) deals with derived probabilities and expected values problems for robots with probabilistic uncertain outcomes of actions. The dtGolog [4] is another extended interpreter of Golog dealing with decision-making problems. C. Boutilier, R. Reiter and B. Price proposed symbolic dynamic programming for first-order Markov Dedision Processes (FOMDPs) [3], which is a new approach using the situation calculus to deal with problems modeled in FOMDPs. All these studies not only show the possibility of dealing with uncertainty dynamic world by using the logic programming language, but also show the contribution of planning and decision-making theory to high-level robotic control.

The research of uncertainty systems in the situation calculus till now is based on primitive actions. Every step of regression and computation of probabilities needs to be repeated even if we compute for same sequences of actions under similar situations at different time. However, we notice that a robot, or more generally, an autonomous agent often works under a similar environment and is asked to solve similar problems, which involves lots of repetition in actions and outcomes of probabilities. For example, if we ask an autonomous agent to climb a hundred continuous same-height stairs, it can be viewed as that the agent repeats a certain sequence of actions at the same situation hundreds of times provided that we can reset the agent's situation to be the initial situation if malfunctions occur. Inspired by the idea of reuse of local policies for local Markov decision processes (MDPs) [25, 13, 21, 32], we here are trying to consider certain combinations of primitive actions described in the situation calculus as a whole , preprocess its properties, and later reuse the outcomes as if the agent has "learned" the knowledge, therefore make the agent become "cleverer".

We will begin with some background review of the situation calculus, the Golog and the stGolog in Chapter 2. And then, in Chapter 3, by giving an example of robot climbing stairs, we lead the discussion to treating certain complex actions as a whole, naming them as *macro-actions*, and discuss the change of basic action theories on them as well as the extended probabilities for uncertainty systems. In Chapter 4, we develop a knowledge base (static part) for macro-actions by using extended regression operator. After developing the static part of the knowledge base, we give an interpreter modified from the stGolog for programs that might include macro-actions in Chapter 5, and discuss the benefits and limitations of using macro-actions based on experiments. We end up with conclusions and future work in Chapter 6.

## Chapter 2

### Literature Review and Background

Since much of the proposed work is predicated on the high-level agent control in the uncertainty system, a review of the technical and historical background for the work of remaining chapters is presented here.

At least two aspects need to be addressed while modeling the behavior of an agent acting in an uncertainty system. First, the situation calculus and the basic action theory give us the power to model the dynamic world, the actions of the agent and their effects. Second, concerning the uncertainty system, we need a good understanding of how probabilistic uncertainty is expressed in the situation calculus.

### 2.1 The Language of the Situation Calculus

The basic conceptual and formal ingredients of the situation calculus were first proposed by John McCarthy in 1963 [18]. Based on several researchers' study and proposals [22, 6, 12, 30, 9], Ray Reiter [27] provided a solution to the frame problem observed by John McCarthy and Pat Hayes [18] and systematically described the situation calculusbased approaches to modeling dynamic world [28]. In the last ten years, under the leadership of Ray Reiter and Hector Levesque, the Cognitive Robotics Group [1] at University of Toronto uses the situation calculus as a foundation for practical work in planning, control, simulation, etc, which disabuses some limiting view of the situation calculus [28]. Their work draws researchers' attention, and the situation calculus becomes more popular in the AI area.

The language of the situation calculus  $\mathcal{L}_{sc}$  that we adopt here is from [28], which is a second-order language specifically designed for representing dynamically changing world. It is a three-sorted language with equality. The three disjoint sorts of  $\mathcal{L}_{sc}$  are:

- action: a first-order term representing actions in dynamic world, such as jump (the action of jumping), kick(x) (kicking object x), and put(r, x, y) (robot r putting object x on top of object y), etc. The constant and function symbols for actions are completely application-dependent.
- situation: a first-order term which denotes possible world histories. A distinguished constant S<sub>0</sub> and function symbol do are used. S<sub>0</sub> denotes the *initial situation*, before any action has been performed; do(a, s) denotes the situation that results from performing action a in situation s.
- *object:* a catch-all sort representing for everything else depending on the domain of application, such as **ball**, Mary, etc.

In fact, every situation corresponds to a sequence of actions. For example, the initial situation  $S_0$  corresponds to empty sequence of actions, the situation

$$do(\texttt{pickup}(x), do(\texttt{drop}(y), do(\texttt{pickup}(y), S_0)))$$

corresponds to the action sequence pickup(y), drop(y), pickup(x) from the beginning. Moreover, we will use binary relation  $s \sqsubset s'$  to represent that s is a proper sub-history of s', and  $s \sqsubseteq s'$  is equivalent to  $s = s' \lor s \sqsubset s'$ .

Another important term in the situation calculus is *fluent*. *Fluents* are predicates and functions whose values may vary from situation to situation, used to describe what holds in a situation. By convention, the last argument of a fluent is a situation. For example, the fluent Holding(r, x, s) might stand for the relation of robot r holding object x in situation s.

The logical symbols of the language are  $\neg$ ,  $\land$ ,  $\exists$ . Other connectives and the universal quantifier are the usual abbreviations.

Finally, a distinguished predicate Poss(A, s) is used to state that the action A can be performed in situation s. For example,  $Poss(pickup(r, x), S_0)$  says that the robot is able to pick up object x in the initial situation.

This completes the specification of the language  $\mathcal{L}_{sc}$ . For later convenience, an abbreviation is introduced as follows:

Abbreviation 2.1 ([28] Chapter 4.5)

- $do([], s) \stackrel{def}{=} s;$
- $do([a_1, a_2, \cdots, a_n], s) \stackrel{def}{=} do(a_n, do(\cdots, do(a_1, s) \cdots)).$ And  $[a_1, a_2, \cdots, a_n]$  is called a log.

Notice that there is a one-to-one correspondence between a log beginning at the initial time and a situation, whenever this log is finite or infinite.

#### 2.2 The Basic Action Theory

A basic action theory is a set of axioms represented in the situation calculus to model the actions and their effects in a given dynamic system  $\mathcal{D}$  together with functional fluent consistency property. Hereby we just present a summary, the detailed explanation could be found in [24, 28].

The set  $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D}_f \bigcup \mathcal{D}_{ap} \bigcup \mathcal{D}_{ss} \bigcup \mathcal{D}_{una} \bigcup \mathcal{D}_{S_0}$  consists of following axioms:

• Fundamental axioms, denoted as  $\mathcal{D}_f$ .

There are four axioms included in  $\mathcal{D}_f$  [24]. For instance,  $\neg s \sqsubset S_0$  represents no situation is a proper history of the initial situation.

Since the fundamental axioms is so mechanical, we will not write them out during description, but assume them to be true for any basic action theory.

• Action precondition axioms, denoted as  $\mathcal{D}_{ap}$ .

For each action function (could be 0-ary) A, there is one axiom of the form:

$$Poss(a(\vec{x}), s) \equiv \Pi_a(\vec{x}, s),$$

where  $\Pi_a(\vec{x}, s)$  is a formula uniform in s (cf. Appendix B),  $\vec{x} = x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  for some natural number n (if  $n = 0, a(\vec{x})$  is 0-ary A) and all atomic propositions in it are fluents. This axiom characterizes the preconditions of performing action A in the current situation s.

Successor state axioms, denoted as D<sub>ss</sub>.
 A successor state axiom for an (n + 1)-ary (n ∈ {0, 1, 2, · · · }) relational fluent F is a sentence of L<sub>sc</sub> of the form:

$$F(\vec{x}, do(a, s)) \equiv \Phi_F(\vec{x}, a, s),$$

where  $\Phi_F(\vec{x}, a, s)$  is a formula uniform in  $s, \vec{x} = x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_n$  (if n = 0, F has one parameter of sort situation) and all atomic propositions in it are ground fluents or of form  $a = a_i$  where  $a_i$  is some action.

Similarly, a successor state axiom for an (n+1)-ary functional fluent f is a sentence of  $\mathcal{L}_{sc}$  of the form:

$$f(\vec{x}, do(a, s)) = y \equiv \Phi_f(\vec{x}, y, a, s),$$

where  $\Phi_f(\vec{x}, y, a, s)$  is a formula uniform is s.

The successor state axiom for fluent F (respectively f) completely characterizes the value of fluent F in the successor resulting from performing primitive action a in situation s.

Unique name axioms, denoted as D<sub>una</sub>.
For any n-ary action a, a(x<sub>1</sub>, · · · , x<sub>n</sub>) = a(y<sub>1</sub>, · · · , y<sub>n</sub>) ⊃ x<sub>1</sub> = y<sub>1</sub> ∧ · · · ∧ x<sub>n</sub> = y<sub>n</sub>; for any distinct actions a and b, a(x) ≠ b(y).

Since the unique name axioms is so mechanical, we will not write them out during description, but assume them to be true for any basic action theory.

• Initial database, denoted as  $\mathcal{D}_{S_0}$ .

It is a set of first order sentences in which  $S_0$  is the only term of the situation sort (i.e., uniform in  $S_0$ ). No sentence of  $\mathcal{D}_{S_0}$  quantifies over situations, or mentions *Poss* or the function symbol *do*. Notice that the initial database may contain sentences mentioning no situation term at all, for example, unique names for individuals, or "timeless" facts like  $dog(x) \supset mammal(x)$ .

Finally, the *functional fluent consistency property* is as follows:

Suppose f is a functional fluent whose successor state axiom in  $\mathcal{D}_{ss}$  is

$$f(\vec{x}, do(a, s)) = y \equiv \phi_f(\vec{x}, y, a, s),$$

then

$$\mathcal{D}_{una} \cup \mathcal{D}_{S_0} \models (\forall \vec{x}).(\exists y)\phi_f(\vec{x}, y, a, s) \land [(\forall y, y').\phi_f(\vec{x}, y, a, s) \land \phi_f(\vec{x}, y', a, s)] \supset y = y'.$$

The reason of requiring this consistency property is that it provides a sufficient condition for preventing a source of inconsistency in f's successor state axiom.

Notice that the models we consider in this report all satisfy the *Markov* property – the truth values of the fluents at next situation are dependent only on the action and the truth values of the fluents at current situation.

### 2.3 Complex actions, Procedures and Golog

So far, in our treatment of the situation calculus, we only talked about primitive actions, with effects and preconditions independent of each other. In this section we will introduce a kind of compositional treatment of the frame problem for complex actions, i.e., actions that have other actions as components. This results in a novel kind of high-level programming language – Golog [16].

To handle complex actions, it is sufficient to show that for each complex action  $\delta$  we care about, there is a ternary relation in the situation calculus, which we call  $Do(\delta, s, s')$ , is an abbreviation for a situation calculus formula which indicates that complex action  $\delta$ , when started in situation s, can terminate legally in situation s'. Here  $\delta$  is of one of the following actions:

- 1. Primitive action: a (a might have parameters).
- 2. Sequence:  $\alpha;\beta$ . Do action  $\alpha$ , followed by action  $\beta$ .
- 3. Test action: p?. Test the truth value of expression p in the current situation.
- 4. Nondeterministic action choice:  $\alpha | \beta$ . Do  $\alpha$  or do  $\beta$ .
- 5. Nondeterministic choice of arguments:  $(\pi x)\alpha(x)$ . Nondeterministically pick a value for x, and for that value of x, do action  $\alpha(x)$ .
- 6. Conditionals: if-then-else and while loops.
- 7. Procedures, including recursion.

Because of the definition of complex actions, we then can deal with nondeterministic, conditional, or concurrent operations. Detailed explanation and examples can be found in [28]. Golog program is a procedure defined as following:

**Definition 2.2** ([28] Chapter 6.1.1) A Golog program is of form:

proc  $P_1(\vec{v_1})\delta_1$  endproc;...; proc  $P_n(\vec{v_n})\delta_n$  endproc;  $\delta_0$ 

where  $P_i$  is declaration of procedures with formal parameter  $\vec{v_i}$  and procedure body  $\delta_i$ for each  $i(1 \leq i \leq n)$ ,  $\delta_0$  is the main program body.  $\delta_0, \dots, \delta_n$  are complex actions, extended by actions for procedure calls, as described in above Definition.

The semantics of a program is

$$Do(\{ \text{proc } P_1(\vec{v_1})\delta_1 \text{ endproc}; \cdots; \text{proc } P_n(\vec{v_n})\delta_n \text{ endproc}; \delta_0 \}, s, s') \stackrel{def}{=} (\forall P_1, \cdots, P_n).[\bigwedge_{i=1}^n (\forall s_1, s_2, \vec{v_i}).Do(\delta_i, s_1, s_2) \supset P_i(\vec{v_i}, s_1, s_2)] \supset Do(\delta_0, s, s'), s' \in \mathbb{C}$$

i.e. when  $P_1, \dots, P_n$  are the smallest binary relations on situations that are closed under the evaluation of their procedure bodies  $\delta_1, \dots, \delta_n$ , then any transition (s, s') obtained by evaluating the main program  $\delta_0$  is a Golog transition for the evaluation for the program.

Golog appears to offer significant advantages over current tools for applications in dynamic domains like the high-level programming of robots and software agents, process control, discrete event simulation, complex database transactions, etc [2, 7].

### 2.4 The Regression Operator

Regression is a central computational mechanism that forms the basis for many planning procedures (Waldinger [33]) and for automated reasoning in the situation calculus (Pednault [23], Pirri and Reiter [24]). Roughly speaking, the regression of a formula  $\phi$ through an action a is a formula  $\phi'$  that holds prior to a being performed iff  $\phi$  holds after a. Successor state axioms support regression in a natural way. In [28], Reiter introduces a notation  $\mathcal{R}$  as regression operator, and defines the regression of a *regressable* formula W of  $\mathcal{L}_{sc}$  as follows:

**Definition 2.3** ([28] Definition 4.5.1) A formula W of  $\mathcal{L}_{sc}$  is regressable iff

- 1. Every term of sort situation mentioned by W has the syntactic form  $do([\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n], S_0)$  for some  $n \ge 0$ , and for terms  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$  of sort action.
- 2. For every atom of the form  $Poss(\alpha, \sigma)$  mentioned by W,  $\alpha$  has the syntactic form  $A(t_1, \dots, t_n)$  for some n-ary function symbol A of  $\mathcal{L}_{sc}$ .

- 3. W does not quantify over situations.
- 4. W does not mention the predicate symbol  $\Box$ , nor does it mention any equation atom  $\sigma = \sigma'$  for terms  $\sigma, \sigma'$  of sort situation.

**Definition 2.4** ([28] Definition 4.7.2)

1. Suppose  $W = Poss(a(\vec{t}), \sigma)$  where  $a(\vec{t})$  and  $\sigma$  are of sort action and situation respectively, and we have action precondition axiom of form

$$Poss(a(\vec{x}), s) \equiv \Pi_a(\vec{x}, s) ,$$

without loss of generality, assume that all quantifiers (if any) of  $\Pi_a(\vec{x}, s)$  have had their quantified variables renamed to be distinct from the free variables (if any) of  $Poss(a(\vec{t}), \sigma)$ , then

$$\mathcal{R}[W] = \mathcal{R}[\Pi_a(\vec{t},\sigma)]$$

- 2. Suppose W is a regressable atom, but not a Poss atom. There are three possibilities:
  - (a)  $S_0$  is the only term of sort situation (if any) mentioned by W, then

$$\mathcal{R}[W] = W$$

(b) Suppose that W mentions a term of the form g(t, do(α', σ')) for some functional fluent g, and α' and σ' are of sort action and situation respectively.
g(t, do(α', σ')) mentions a prime functional fluent [28] term of form f(r, do(α, σ)) where α and σ are of sort action and situation uniform in S<sub>0</sub> respectively. Suppose f's successor state axiom in D<sub>ss</sub> is

$$f(\vec{x}, do(a, s)) = y \equiv \phi_f(\vec{x}, y, a, s) .$$

Without loss of generality, assume that all quantifiers (if any) of  $\phi_f(\vec{x}, y, a, s)$ have had their quantified variables renamed to be distinct from the free variables (if any) of  $f(\vec{r}, do(\alpha, \sigma))$ . Then

$$\mathcal{R}[W] = \mathcal{R}[(\exists y).\phi_f(\vec{r}, y, \alpha, \sigma) \land W|_{\boldsymbol{y}}^{f(\vec{r}, do(\alpha, \sigma))}].$$

Here y is a variable not occurring free in  $W, \vec{r}, \alpha$  or  $\sigma$ .

(c) W is a relational fluent atom of form  $F(\vec{t}, do(\alpha, \sigma))$  where  $\alpha$  and  $\sigma$  are of sort action and situation respectively. Let F's successor state axiom in  $\mathcal{D}_{ss}$  be

$$F(\vec{x}, do(a, s)) \equiv \Phi_F(\vec{x}, a, s)$$
.

Without loss of generality, assume that all quantifiers (if any) of  $\Phi_F(\vec{x}, a, s)$ have had their quantified variables renamed to be distinct from the free variables (if any) of  $F(\vec{t}, do(\alpha, \sigma))$ . Then

$$\mathcal{R}[W] = \mathcal{R}[\Phi_F(\vec{t}, \alpha, \sigma)]$$
.

3. For non-atomic formulas, regression is defined inductively as follows.

$$\mathcal{R}[\neg W] = \neg \mathcal{R}[W]$$
$$\mathcal{R}[W_1 \land W_2] = \mathcal{R}[W_1] \land \mathcal{R}[W_2]$$
$$\mathcal{R}[(\exists x)W] = (\exists x)\mathcal{R}[W]$$

#### 2.5 Stochastic Actions, Probability and stGolog

In this work, we will concentrate on the dynamical systems with uncertainty. In an uncertainty system, stochastic actions, actions with with uncertain outcomes that an agent can perform, are introduced. For example ([28]) in text, stochastic action go(l) means that the robot goes to location l, and the performance of go(l) ends up with two outcomes: one is endUpAt(l) meaning that the robots ends up at location l, the other is getLost(l) meaning that the robot gets lost in the process of going to location l. These outcomes are nature's choices, i.e., not under the control of the robot. Notationally, we characterize this setting by:

$$choice(go(l), a) \stackrel{def}{=} a = endUpAt(l) \lor a = getLost(l).$$

All the nature's choices of stochastic actions are primitive actions and the action precondition axioms and successor state axioms are presented for every primitive action. Moreover, we need to represent the probability of each outcome of a stochastic action. We must require that whenever one of nature's action's preconditions is false, the action will have zero probability, i.e.,

$$prob(a, \beta, s) = p \stackrel{def}{=} choice(\beta, a) \land Poss(a, s) \land p = prob_0(a, \beta, s) \lor [\neg choice(\beta, a) \lor \neg Poss(a, s)] \land p = 0.$$
(2.1)

Here,  $prob_0(a, \beta, s)$  is a specification of the probability that a is selected in the situation s and the outcome of stochastic action  $\beta$ , given that a is one of the nature's choices for  $\beta$  and, moreover, that a is possible in s [28].

It is axiomatizer's responsibility to ensure that a proper probability distribution has been defined while formalizing a probabilistic domain in the situation calculus. One needs to verify the following two properties:

for any stochastic action  $\alpha$  and its nature's choices  $A_i$  (i = 1, 2, ..., k),

(a) 
$$Poss(A_i, s) \supset prob_0(A_i, \alpha, s) > 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, k.$$
  
<sub>k</sub>
(2.2)

(b) 
$$Poss(A_1, s) \lor \cdots \lor Poss(A_k, s) \supset \sum_{i=1} prob(A_i, \alpha, s) = 1.$$
 (2.3)

Based on above extensions, new programs, named stGolog program [28] are constructed from stochastic actions together with the Golog program constructors sequence, tests, while loops, conditionals and procedures. stGolog program do not involve any form of nondeterminism; neither the nondeterministic choice, |, of two actions, nor the  $\pi$ operator are allowed. Moreover, notice that there is a dummy symbol nil is introduced into sequence indicating the end of the sequence, which is another difference from Golog sequence. An stGolog interpreter (Appendix A) [28] is developed via  $stDo(\alpha, p, s, s')$  meaning that agent performs stGolog program (or actions)  $\alpha$  at the situation s, by nature's choices, it may ends at situation s' with probability p. With the help of stDo, the probability that some situation-suppressed sentence  $\psi$  will be true after executing stGolog program  $\gamma$ :

$$probF(\psi,\gamma) \stackrel{def}{=} \sum_{\{(p,\sigma) \mid \mathcal{D}\models stDo(\gamma:nil,p,S_0,\sigma) \land \psi(\sigma)\}} p, \qquad (2.4)$$

where  $\mathcal{D}$  stands for the background basic action theory.

We also can introduce cost and reward of actions, exogenous events and uncertain initial situation into stGolog [28]. To simplify problems we will meet with, we ignore them here. Up till now, we finished reviewing almost all the knowledge background that our later discussion will based on.

At last, for later convenience, we use the following conventions:

- 1. In an uncertainty system modeled in the situation calculus, we use upper-case letters (with or without subscript and superscript) to denote the deterministic actions, use lower-case letters (with or without subscript and superscript) to denote variables of the deterministic actions, and use α, β (with or without subscript and superscript) to denote any kinds of actions including either stochastic or deterministic, primitive or complex, instance or variable. When we say α is of sort action, we mean that α is either instance or variable of a deterministic primitive action.
- 2. For the sake of the convenience for expressions and notations, except specific announcement (e.g. in an example), for an uncertainty system modeled in the situation calculus, we may omit the free variables appearing in the action functions. That is to say, n-ary action function, say a(x), for some natural number n (whether deterministic or stochastic, primitive or complex) will be often denoted as a later.

## Chapter 3

# Introducing Macro-actions into the Uncertainty System

As we saw in the previous chapter, the basic action theories as well as the theory of probability provide a convenient way for us to deal with high-level robot control in uncertainty systems. However, we want to make the autonomous agent become "cleverer" in the uncertainty world in the sense that it can remember what it did before under same environment. Therefore, similar to an intelligent human being, the agent won't waste time on re-computation. In this chapter, we will discuss the motivation of the work in this paper explicitly and then start the first step of reaching the object of making robot "cleverer".

### 3.1 Example of Climbing Stairs and the Motivation

One of the main purposes of creating intelligent autonomous agents is to make them serve and help human beings efficiently on particular topics such as exploring volcanos, assisting disabled people at home, and making products in the factories. These agents although "living" in uncertainty systems, still meet lots of similar situations, work on the same tasks and repeat the same strategies most of the time. Let us first look at a simple example as follows:

**Example 3.1** Consider a robot with two legs, *main* and *supporting*, is asked to climb stairs. We first declare following hypotheses:

- (1) The main leg has thigh, shin and foot, and we will describe their actions in detail.
- (2) We ignore most actions of supporting leg's thigh and shin, and will simplify the actions to only one action.
- (3) The stairs are much lower than the legs' knees.
- (4) The width of every stair is short enough so that the robot is always directly in front of the new stair after a previous sequence of climbing actions.









(0) ready

(1) liftUpperLeg(h)

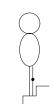
(2) forwLowLeg

(3) stepDown(main)







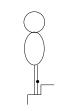


(4) moveBarycenter(main)

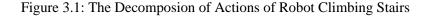
(5) straightMain

(6) forwSupLeg

(7) stepDown(supporting)



(8) moveBarycenter(supporting) (ready again)



In detail, the following stochastic actions are concerned when we describe a robot climbing stairs (cf. Figure 3.1):

- *liftUpperLeg(h)*, meaning that the robot lifts the thigh of the main leg, is decomposed into the following two nature's choices:
  - liftTill(h): the thigh is lifted successfully till the knee's height is h to current stair;
  - malfunc(h): malfunction occurs when robot lifts its thigh till the knee's height is h to current stair, then the main leg's position will end up at wrongPos, meaning wrong position, which represents an abnormal position unsuitable for performing further actions.
- *forwLowLeg*, meaning that the robot moves forward the shin of the main leg, is decomposed into the following two nature's choices:
  - *forwLowLegS*: the action *forwLowLeg* performs successfully;
  - forwLowLegF: malfunction occurs and the action forwLowLeg fails.
- stepDown(l), meaning that the robot steps the leg and foot of leg l down straightly till it touches the surface of the stair, is decomposed into the following two nature's choices:
  - stepDownS(l): the action stepDown(l) performs successfully;
  - stepDownF(l): malfunction occurs and the action stepDown(l) fails.
- *moveBarycenter(l)*, meaning that the robot moves its barycenter onto leg *l*, is decomposed into the following two nature's choices:
  - moveBarycenterS(l): the action moveBarycenter(l) performs successfully;
  - moveBarycenterF(l): malfunction occurs and the action fails.
- *straightLeg* is actually a deterministic action, meaning that the robot straightens his main leg (its side effect is that the supporting leg leaves the ground).
- *forwSupLeg*, meaning that the robot moves forward his supporting leg, is decomposed into the following two nature's choices:
  - *forwSupLegS*: the action *forwSupLeg* performs successfully;
  - forwSupLegF: malfunction occurs and the action forwSupLeg fails.

Notice that the *current stair to leg l* is defined as whose ground the foot of leg *l* is on, or whose ground the foot of leg *l* was on before this foot touches a surface of some other stair again; and the *new stair to leg l* is defined as the next stair in front of current one, i.e., it will always be "new" to leg *l* before the foot of leg *l* touches the ground of the *new stair*. Now, we introduce following fluents to specify the environment:

- Relational fluent straightMain(s): the main leg is straight.
- Relational fluent barycenter(l, s): the barycenter of the robot is on leg l.
- Relational fluent footOnGround(l, s): the foot of leg l is on the ground.
- Relational fluent overNewStair(l, s): the leg l is over the new stair to leg l.
- Functional fluent mainToCurr(s): either is the height of the main leg's the foot to the ground of the current stair to main, or becomes a special term wrongPos if stochastic action liftUpperLeg(H) for some H doesn't perform successfully; and once the robot's main leg is in wrongPos, it stays.

Because nature's actions above are all deterministic, it is predictable how they change the state of the world.

$$straightMain(do(a, s)) \equiv a = straightLeg \lor$$
$$straightMain(s) \land \neg(\exists h)a = liftTill(h),$$
$$barycenter(l, do(a, s)) \equiv a = moveBarycenterS(l) \lor barycenter(l, s) \land$$
$$\neg(\exists l')[a = moveBarycenterS(l') \land l \neq l'],$$

 $footOnGround(l, do(a, s)) \equiv$   $a = stepDownS(l) \lor footOnGround(l, s) \land [l = main \land$   $\neg(\exists h)a = liftTill(h) \lor l = supporting \land a \neq straightLeg],$ 

 $overNewStair(l, do(a, s)) \equiv$ 

 $a = forwLowLegS \land l = main \lor a = forwSupLegS \land l = supporting \lor overNewStair(l, s) \land a \neq stepDownS(l),$ 

$$\begin{split} mainToCurr(do(a,s)) &= h \equiv \\ a = stepDownS(main) \wedge h = 0 \lor (\exists h')a = malfunc(h') \wedge h = wrongPos \lor \\ a = liftTill(h) \lor mainToCurr(s) = wrongPos \wedge h = wrongPos \lor \\ mainToCurr(s) \neq wrongPos \wedge \neg (\exists h')a = malfunc(h') \wedge \\ a \neq stepDownS(main) \wedge \neg (\exists h')[a = liftTill(h') \wedge h \neq h'] \wedge \\ h = mainToCurr(s). \end{split}$$

Moreover, the action preconditions for nature's actions are specified as follows:

 $\begin{aligned} Poss(liftTill(h), s) &\equiv barycenter(supporting, s), \\ Poss(malfunc(h), s) &\equiv barycenter(supporting, s), \\ Poss(forwLowLegS, s) &\equiv \neg mainToCurr(wrongPos, s) \land \\ \neg footOnGround(main, s), \end{aligned} \\ Poss(forwLowLegF, s) &\equiv \neg mainToCurr(wrongPos, s) \land \\ \neg footOnGround(main, s), \end{aligned}$  $\begin{aligned} Poss(stepDownS(l), s) &\equiv \neg footOnGround(l, s) \land overNewStair(l, s), \\ Poss(stepDownF(l), s) &\equiv \neg footOnGround(l, s) \land overNewStair(l, s), \end{aligned}$  $\begin{aligned} Poss(moveBarycenterS(l), s) &\equiv footOnGround(l, s), \\ Poss(moveBarycenterF(l), s) &\equiv footOnGround(l, s), \end{aligned}$ 

 $Poss(straightLeg, s) \equiv \neg straightMain(s) \land footOnGround(main, s) \\ \land barycenter(main, s),$ 

 $Poss(forwSupLegS, s) \equiv barycenter(main, s) \land straightMain(s),$  $Poss(forwSupLegF, s) \equiv barycenter(main, s) \land straightMain(s).$ 

For example, the robot is possible to lift the thigh of his main leg iff its barycenter is on his supporting leg; it can attempt to move forward the shin of his main leg iff his main leg is not in a wrong position and the foot of his main leg is not on the ground; etc.

Moreover, since we are characterizing an uncertainty model, we need to declare the following probabilities:

$$prob_{0}(liftTill(h), liftUpperLeg(h), s) \stackrel{def}{=} 100/(h + 100),$$
  

$$prob_{0}(malfunc(h), liftUpperLeg(h), s) \stackrel{def}{=} h/(h + 100),$$
  

$$prob_{0}(forwLowLegS, forwLowLeg, s) \stackrel{def}{=} 80/(mainToCurr(s) + 80),$$
  

$$prob_{0}(forwLowLegF, forwLowLeg, s) \stackrel{def}{=} mainToCurr(s)/(mainToCurr(s) + 80),$$
  

$$prob_{0}(stepDownS(l), stepDown(l), s) \stackrel{def}{=} 0.9,$$
  

$$prob_{0}(stepDownF(l), stepDown(l), s) \stackrel{def}{=} 0.1,$$
  

$$prob_{0}(moveBarycenterS(l), moveBarycenter(l), s) \stackrel{def}{=} 0.8,$$
  

$$prob_{0}(moveBarycenterF(l), moveBarycenter(l), s) \stackrel{def}{=} 0.2,$$
  

$$prob_{0}(straightLeg, straightLeg, s) \stackrel{def}{=} 1.0,$$
  

$$prob_{0}(forwSupLegS, forwSupLeg, s) \stackrel{def}{=} 0.8,$$
  

$$prob_{0}(forwSupLegF, forwSupLeg, s) \stackrel{def}{=} 0.2.$$

At last, we have following complete description of the initial database:

$$\begin{split} straightMain(S_0), \\ barycenter(supporting, S_0), \\ footOnGround(l, S_0) &\equiv l = main \lor l = supporting, \\ \neg overNewStair(l, S_0), \\ mainToCurr(0, S_0), \\ legalStair(h) &\equiv number(h) \land 0 < h < 20, \end{split}$$

where predicate number(h) means that h is a real number. Then, the following sequence of stochastic actions

describes the actions that the robot need to execute when it climbs a stair, and it climbs the legal stair successfully iff the log

[liftTill(h), forwLowLegS, stepDownS(main), moveBarycenterS(main), straightLegS, forwSupLegS, stepDownS(supporting), moveBarycenterS(supporting)]

is performed by nature's choices when the above sequence of stochastic actions is requested to be performed by the agent.

Thinking of human beings, when they climb stairs, they don't care how many stairs they've climbed or how they have climbed. As long as they know how to climb stairs and there is some stair in front of them, they will naturally repeat the sequence of climbing actions without "thinking". If they fall by accident (not very seriously injured of course), they will stand up again and repeat the sequence of actions. Similar for the autonomous agent here, we would like the robot to concentrate on the local status of climbing a stair, and provide that the controller can reset the robot to the initial status when malfunctions occur. If we ask the robot to climb stairs of same height n times (including the times that the robot is reset and requested to re-climb) without remembering how it climbs former stairs, we need to compute the probabilities of the nature's choices of above sequence repeatedly, and do regressions step by step again and again by using stGolog, since the methodology we have met before in the situation calculus is memoryless except the history of the log from the initial situations. We hope that the agent can have some "memory", and will "recall" the information it remembers, and therefore will perform climbing actions without "thinking" in some sense. To achieve this, our intuitive idea is considering certain types of complex actions in the situation calculus as a whole, performing some preprocessing (including extending the basic axioms and probabilities and save them as rules) and later reusing the saved informations for application. This is exactly what we are going to do in the later sections and chapters.

### 3.2 The Macro-actions

In this section, we focus on the uncertainty system with stochastic actions described above in Section 2.5. We are going to observe different types of complex actions in the situation calculus generally to see which kinds of complex actions can be consider as a whole (later, without ambiguity, called *macro-action* in the situation calculus), and get unique extended precondition axioms, extended successor state axioms, axioms of the probabilities for them, therefore for the purpose of reuse. In practical life, intelligent agents are often designed to deal with particular types of problems as the examples mentioned in the former section, meet with similar environments and perform similar sequence of actions repeatedly. Under such situations, to reuse the outcome of certain type of macro-actions for solving problems may bring us computational advantage.

#### 3.2.1 Finding the Proper Structure of the Macro-actions

For the clarity, we restate here that we are dealing with the uncertainty system with stochastic actions  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_t$ . And, we have the nature's choices  $A_{i,1}, A_{i,2}, \dots, A_{i,k_i}$ for stochastic action  $\alpha_i$  (when  $k_i = 1$ ,  $\alpha_i$  is actually a deterministic action), the precondition axioms for every primitive deterministic action, successor state axioms for fluents involving primitive deterministic actions and probability of each nature's choice of stochastic actions as  $prob_0$  given above in section 2.5.

Firstly, we will not consider disjunction "|" or existential quantification " $\pi$ " as a part of macro-actions, because we are interested in probabilistic uncertainty and wish to obtain the explicit probabilistic information that we desire to keep for macro-actions. The logical uncertainty expressed with disjunction and existential quantification doesn't has such exact information. For example (cf. [28] chapter 12), after dropping a coin, there is *some* place on the floor where it will end up with, but we don't know where and how exact that place will be. Therefore, it is impossible for us to keep any numerical information for logical uncertainty.

Secondly, let's look at a complex action that we are obviously not easy to get a unique successor axiom for – the "while" loop. We may have a look at the following simple example.

**Example 3.2** Suppose we are given stochastic action *flipcoin* with the following basic axioms:

$$choice(a, flipcoin) \equiv a = fliphead \lor a = fliptail,$$

$$Poss(fliphead, s) \equiv true,$$

$$Poss(fliptail, s) \equiv true,$$

$$head(do(a, s)) \equiv a = fliphead \lor head(s) \land a \neq fliptail,$$

$$tail(do(a, s)) \equiv a = fliptail \lor tail(s) \land a \neq fliphead,$$

$$prob_0(fliphead, flipcoin, s) = 0.5,$$

$$prob_0(fliptail, flipcoin, s) = 0.5,$$

$$\neg head(S_0),$$

$$\neg tail(S_0).$$

And now, we may have following procedure:

proc showHead while ¬head do flipcoin endproc

It is easy to see that there is no way for us to tell in advance how many times we need to flip the coin to satisfy the goal "showing head" under general situations. Although for any finite number of iterations we can foretell the exact probability, there could have infinite choices to achieve the conditions of the "while" loop. However, there is not enough space for us to keep the extended axioms and probabilities for all the possible finite iterations. Therefore, we will not consider the "while" loop as a part of macro-actions.

Thirdly, the sequence action operator ";" seems considerable for constructing the macro-actions we need. Intuitively, a finite sequence of stochastic actions is totally deterministic in some sense, therefore easy for us to trace its characters and effects.

Consider a finite sequence of stochastic actions  $\alpha = \alpha_1; \alpha_2; \cdots; \alpha_n \ (n \ge 1)$ . We present following extended definition of *regressable* formulas and *prime* functional fluents.

**Definition 3.3** Suppose s is either the initial situation  $S_0$  or a variable of sort situation. A formula W of  $\mathcal{L}_{sc}$  is called s-regressable for s iff

- every term of sort situation mentioned by W has the form do([α<sub>1</sub>, · · · , α<sub>n</sub>], s) for some n ≥ 0 (special case: if n = 0, do([α<sub>1</sub>, · · · , α<sub>n</sub>], s) = s) and for terms α<sub>1</sub>, · · · , α<sub>n</sub> of sort action;
- 2. other conditions are same as the  $2^{nd}$ ,  $3^{rd}$  and  $4^{th}$  conditions in the Definition 2.3.

**Definition 3.4** Suppose s is either the initial situation  $S_0$  or a variable of sort situation. A functional fluent term is s-prime for s iff it has the form  $f(\vec{t}, do([\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n], s))$  for  $n \ge 1$  and each of the terms  $\vec{t}, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$  is uniform in s.

Notice that the *regressable* formula defined in [28] is same as  $S_0$ -regressable formula and *prime* functional fluent [28] is same as  $S_0$ -prime functional fluent we defined here. Moreover, the concept *uniform* is defined in [28] as Definition 4.4.1 (also, cf. Appendix B). Similar to *Remark 4.7.1* in [28], we have

**Remark 3.5** Suppose that  $g(\vec{\tau}, do(\alpha, \sigma))$  has the property that every term of sort situation that it mentions has the form  $do([\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n], s)$  for some  $n \ge 0$ . Then  $g(\vec{\tau}, do(\alpha, \sigma))$ mentions a s-prime functional fluent term.

We then can extend the regression operator  $\mathcal{R}$  onto *s*-regressable formula W for some situation *s* as follows:

#### Definition 3.6

1. Suppose  $W = Poss(a(t), \sigma)$  where a(t) and  $\sigma$  are of sort action and situation respectively,  $\mathcal{R}[W]$  is defined same as Definition 2.4.

- 2. Suppose W is a s-regressable atom, but not a Poss atom.
  - (a) s is the only term of sort situation (if any) mentioned by W. Then

$$\mathcal{R}[W] = W$$
.

- (b) Otherwise, the definition of R[W] is same as Definition 2.4, except for changing "prime functional fluent" to be "s-prime functional fluent".
- 3. For non-atomic formulas, regression is defined same as Definition 2.4.

The reason we still keep using notation  $\mathcal{R}$  is because the definition above is same as Definition 2.4 when W is regressable, i.e., Definition 3.6 is only an extension of the original regression operator.

Now we return to discuss if we can extend the action precondition axioms, the successor state axioms and the probability axioms for complex action composed by using operator ";". Suppose we have a sequential action  $A = A_1; A_2; \dots; A_n$ , where  $A_i$  is primitive deterministic action for every  $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ , notice that

$$Do(A, s, s') \equiv (\exists !s_0, s_1, \cdots, s_n) . s_0 = s \land s_n = s' \land (\land_{i=1}^n s_i = do(A_i, s_{i-1}))$$
  
$$\equiv s' = do([A_1, A_2, \cdots, A_n], s),$$

hence, to distinguish from abbreviation log and later be convenient to establish extended axioms, we can extend the notation do(A, s) where A is of sort primitive action to be  $do(A_1; A_2; \dots; A_n, s)$   $(n \ge 1)$  for primitive actions  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$ , indicating the situation after taking deterministic sequential action  $A_1; A_2; \dots; A_n$  in the situation s.

- The precondition axiom Poss(A, s) can be extended as follows:
  - n = 1 Poss(A, s) is the precondition axiom given in  $\mathcal{D}$  for action A;
  - n > 1 Poss(A, s), meaning that A can be performed in the situation s,

$$= Poss(A_{1}; A_{2}; \cdots; A_{n}, s)$$

$$\stackrel{def}{=} (\wedge_{i=2}^{n} Poss(A_{i}, do([A_{1}, \cdots, A_{i-1}], s))) \wedge Poss(A_{1}, s) \qquad (3.2)$$

$$\equiv \mathcal{R}[(\wedge_{i=2}^{n} Poss(A_{i}, do([A_{1}, \cdots, A_{i-1}], s))) \wedge Poss(A_{1}, s)],$$

$$\equiv \Pi(\vec{t}, s),$$

where  $\Pi(\vec{t}, s)$  is a formula uniform in *s* obtained by regression and simplification. The brief proof of the property that the regression result of a *s*-regressable formula is uniform in *s* can be found in Appendix B.

- Suppose given sequential action variable  $a = a_1; a_2; \dots; a_n \ (n \in \mathcal{N})$ , where every  $a_i$  is a variable for primitive deterministic action for every  $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ , the successor state axiom of every relational fluent  $F(\vec{x}, do(a, s))$  and of every functional fluent  $f(\vec{x}, do(a, s))$  can be extended as follows:
  - n = 1  $F(\vec{x}, do(a, s)) \equiv \phi_F(\vec{x}, a, s)$  is the given successor state axiom for relational fluent F; and  $f(\vec{x}, do(a, s)) = y \equiv \phi_f(\vec{x}, y, a, s)$  is the given successor state axiom for functional fluent f;

$$> 1 \quad F(\vec{x}, do(a, s))$$

$$= \quad F(\vec{x}, do(a_1; a_2; \cdots; a_n, s))$$

$$\equiv \quad \mathcal{R}[F(\vec{x}, do([a_1, a_2, \cdots, a_n], s))]$$

$$\equiv \quad \psi_F(\vec{x}, a_1, a_2, \cdots, a_n, s)$$

n

for some  $\psi_F$  uniform in s, if F is relational fluent; and

$$f(\vec{x}, do(a, s)) = y$$
  

$$\equiv f(\vec{x}, do(a_1; a_2; \cdots; a_n, s)) = y$$
  

$$\equiv \mathcal{R}[f(\vec{x}, do([a_1, a_2, \cdots, a_n], s)) = y]$$
  

$$\equiv \Psi_f(\vec{x}, y, a_1, a_2, \cdots, a_n, s)$$

for some  $\Psi_f$  uniform in s, if f is functional fluent.

• Now we also need to extend the probability function(2.1) prob in the stGolog for a deterministic sequential action  $A = A_1; A_2; \dots; A_m$  of stochastic sequential action  $\alpha = \alpha_1; \alpha_2; \dots; \alpha_n$ , which is denoted as probMac.

$$probMac(A, \alpha, s) = p \stackrel{def}{=}$$

$$choiceMac(\alpha, A) \land Poss(A, s) \land p = prob_0(A_1, \alpha_1, s) \ast$$

$$prob_0(A_2, \alpha_2, do(A_1, s)) \ast \cdots \ast prob_0(A_m, \alpha_m, do([A_1, \cdots, A_{m-1}], s))$$

$$\lor (\neg choiceMac(\alpha, A) \lor \neg Poss(A, s)) \land p = 0,$$

in which we define predication *choiceMac* as follows:

$$choiceMac(\alpha, a) \stackrel{def}{=} a \in \{A_1; A_2 \cdots; A_m \mid m \in \mathcal{N} \land 1 \le m \le n \land (\land_{i=1}^m choice(\alpha_i, A_i))\},\$$

and say that deterministic sequential action A is a nature's choice of  $\alpha$  if  $choiceMac(\alpha, A)$  is true. In fact, choiceMac is an extension of choice, and probMac is an extension of prob in the stGolog.

As in [28], to specify an appropriate probabilistic domain for an uncertainty system, we need to verify that a proper probability distribution has been defined, i.e., the axiomatizer must ensure the two propositions (2.2) and (2.3) described Section 2.5 are satisfied. Therefore, according to the specification above, we can prove several properties for the definition of probMac.

**Lemma 3.7** Let  $\alpha = \alpha_1; \alpha_2; \cdots; \alpha_n$   $(n \in \mathcal{N} \text{ and } n \geq 1)$  be stochastic sequential actions, and A be deterministic sequential actions satisfying that

$$choiceMac(\alpha, A) \equiv true.$$

Suppose properties (a) and (b) above have been verified, then the following sentences follow from these properties, and the definition of probMac:

1. All probabilities for deterministic sequential actions are bounded by 0 and 1:  $(\forall a, \vec{x}, s).0 \leq probMac(a, \alpha, s) \leq 1.$  2. All non-outcomes of  $\alpha$  have probability 0:

 $(\forall a, \vec{x}, s)$ .  $\neg choiceMac(\alpha, a) \supset probMac(a, \alpha, s) = 0.$ 

3. Nature's choices are possible iff they have non-zero probability:  $(\forall \vec{x}, s).Poss(A, s) \equiv probMac(A, \alpha, s) > 0.$ 

**Proof:** Straightforward from the definition of *probMac* and properties (a) and (b).

**Definition 3.8** For any stochastic sequential action  $\alpha = \alpha_1; \alpha_2; \cdots; \alpha_n$  and situation s, we define following set  $maxPoss(\alpha, s) \stackrel{def}{=} \{A = A_1; A_2; \cdots; A_m \mid choiceMac(\alpha, A) \land Poss(A, s) \land$  $(m = seqLength(\alpha) \lor m < seqLength(\alpha) \land ((\forall a).choice(\alpha_{m+1}, a) \supset \neg Poss(A; a, s)))\},$ 

where the predicate seqLength(a), meaning the length of a, for macro-action or sequential action a is recursively defined as follows:

- 1. if a is a deterministic or stochastic action, then seqLength(a) = 1;
- 2. if a is of form  $\alpha; \beta$ , then  $seqLength(a) = seqLength(\alpha) + seqLength(\beta)$ .

Intuitively, set  $maxPoss(\alpha, s)$  is a collection of the maximal possible performable choices of  $\alpha$  in the situation s. Then, we have following property.

**Theorem 3.9** In the probabilistic domain specified properly satisfying above two conditions (a) and (b), for any stochastic sequential action  $\alpha = \alpha_1; \alpha_2; \cdots; \alpha_n$ , we have

$$\bigvee (A = A_1, \cdots, A_n \wedge choiceMac(\alpha, A) \wedge Poss(A, s)) \supset$$
$$\sum probMac(A, \alpha, s) = 1.$$

 $A \in maxPoss(\alpha, s)$ 

**Proof:** We will prove it by complete induction on n.

n = 0, choiceMac(α, A) = Ø, the precondition is false, hence the whole proposition is true;

- n = 1, α is primitive action, every A satisfying the precondition is its nature's choice, then our proposition is same as (b), therefore the proposition is true;
- Now, we suppose the proposition is true for n < k where k is some natural number, we are considering for n = k, i.e. for any  $\alpha = \alpha_1; \alpha_2; \cdots; \alpha_k$ , suppose there exists  $A^0$  such that  $A^0 = A_1^0; A_2^0; \cdots; A_k^0 \wedge choiceMac(\alpha, A^0) \wedge Poss(A^0, s)$ , we will prove that

$$\sum_{A \in maxPoss(\alpha,s)} probMac(A,\alpha,s) = 1.$$

Let  $\alpha' = \alpha_1; \alpha_2; \cdots; \alpha_{k-1}$ , since  $A^0$  satisfying that  $choiceMac(\alpha, A^0) \wedge Poss(A^0, s)$ , therefore, let  $A' = A_1^0; A_2^0; \cdots; A_{k-1}^0$ , and it is easy to see that A' satisfies

$$choiceMac(\alpha', A') \land Poss(A', s).$$

By hypothesis, we have

$$\sum_{A \in maxPoss(\alpha',s)} probMac(A,\alpha',s) = 1.$$

Then for every  $A \in maxPoss(\alpha', s)$ , suppose  $A = A_1; \cdots; A_m$  for some  $m \leq k-1$ ,

- (1) if m < k 1, then  $A \in maxPoss(\alpha, s)$  by definition of maxPoss;
- (2) if m = k 1 and for any  $A_k$  satisfying  $choice(\alpha_k, A_k) \supset \neg Poss(A; A_k, s)$ , then  $A \in maxPoss(\alpha, s)$  by definition of maxPoss;
- (3) if m = k 1 and there exists  $a_k$  satisfying  $choice(\alpha_k, A_k) \wedge Poss(A; A_k, s)$ , then  $Poss(A_k, do([A_1, \dots, A_{k-1}], s))$  by the definition of Poss for deterministic sequential action, therefore by induction assumption

$$= \sum_{\substack{b \in maxPoss(\alpha_k, do([A_1, \cdots, A_{k-1}], s))\\b \in maxPoss(\alpha_k, do([A_1, \cdots, A_{k-1}], s))}} prob_0(b, \alpha_k, do([A_1, \cdots, A_{k-1}], s)) = 1$$

so, for fixed A, let  $B'_i = A$ ;  $B_i$  for every  $B_i \in maxPoss(\alpha_k, do([A_1, \cdots, A_{k-1}], s))$ , we have  $B'_i \in maxPoss(\alpha, s)$ , and

$$\sum_{i} probMac(B'_{i}, \alpha, s))$$

$$= probMac(A, \alpha', s) *$$

$$(\sum_{B \in maxPoss(\alpha_{k}, do([A_{1}, \cdots, A_{k-1}], s)))} prob_{0}(B, \alpha_{k}, do([A_{1}, \cdots, A_{k-1}], s)))$$

$$= probMac(A, \alpha', s).$$

Therefore, by (1),(2), and (3), we have

$$\sum_{\substack{A \in maxPoss(\alpha,s)}} probMac(A, \alpha, s)$$
$$= \sum_{\substack{A \in maxPoss(\alpha',s)}} probMac(A, \alpha', s) = 1.$$

Hence, we proved the proposition is true for all  $n \in \mathcal{N}$ .

This theorem indicates the common sense of the property of probabilities. The definition of maxPoss and the property above are what we are really interested in. Because as we argued in the motivation, when the agent meets the macro-action in the same local situation it has met before, rather than recomputes the possible choices and probabilities, we would like the agent to "recall" the maximal possible deterministic sequences it has computed and remembered before.

Up till now, everything works properly for sequential actions, and it is reasonable for us to consider the *macro-action* can be of form  $\alpha_1; \alpha_2; \cdots; \alpha_n$  for *n* stochastic actions where *n* is a finite natural number no less than 2.

Finally, there are still two complex actions we need to consider. We think it is not an obligation to keep the test action "?" as a part of macro-actions. The reason is that "?" is not actually an action which might affects the state of the environment, i.e., executing the test action will not affect the truth values of any fluents in the system. There is no

extra intermediate information we need to keep for executing the test action. However, joining the testing actions into the macro-actions may make it difficult for us to define the nature's choices for a macro-action, since the tests can appear anywhere in the macro-action and these tests are situation-based. Similarly, for the conditional complex action if  $\varphi$  then  $\alpha$  else  $\beta$  we are more interested in the probability results of executing of the body  $\alpha$  or  $\beta$  than the testing of  $\varphi$ . Hence, currently we would like to keep our life easy and will not bind the testing and the conditional complex action into macro-actions. Maybe in the near future, we would like to discuss what will happen if we combine these two actions as parts of the macro-actions under certain condition.

#### 3.2.2 Spotting Macro-action

What does spotting macro-actions mean? Why do we need to do this? Given a very long sequence of stochastic actions, for example,

$$go(office(Sue)); giveMail(Sue); giveCoffee(Sue); go(office(Pat));$$
  
 $giveMail(Pat); giveCoffee(Pat),$ 

we are not willing to treat it as a whole macro-action, since it is actually can be considered as performing same macro-action go(office(p)); giveMail(p); giveCoffee(p) on different instances, which has unique precondition axiom, successor state axiom and probability computing formulas. Moreover, if we do not have obvious disparity between normal sequential actions and the macro-actions, it is difficult for the agent to identify macroactions from a long sequence of stochastic actions. Another reason is that the macroactions actually can be viewed as a kind of special procedures, but we still need to differ it from the ordinary ones. Finally, if the macro-actions have names, it will be convenient for both the controller and the autonomous agent to remember and recognize them. Hence, similar to procedures, we introduce terms macro and endmacro such that

macro  $p_{name}$   $\Delta$  endmacro,

meaning that  $\Delta$  is a macro-action named  $p_{name}$ .

Therefore, as an example, if we define

macro serve(p) go(office(p)); giveMail(p); giveCoffee(p) endmacro,

then the example we mentioned at the beginning of this sub-section can be represented as

All in all, we summarize the definition of *macro-action* as follows:

**Definition 3.10** A macro-action in an uncertainty system described is a sequence of stochastic actions  $\alpha_1; \alpha_2; \cdots; \alpha_n$  with some name  $p_{name}$ , denoted as

macro  $p_{name}$   $\alpha_1; \alpha_2; \cdots; \alpha_n$  endmacro,

where  $n \in \mathcal{N}$  and  $n \geq 2$ . We also say that " $p_{name}$  is a macro-action with body  $\alpha_1; \alpha_2; \cdots; \alpha_n$ ".

To simplify the problem in this work, we do not allow the nesting of macro-actions, that is to say, the body of  $p_{name}$  only consists of sequence of stochastic actions. Moreover, the definitions of macro-actions in a dynamic system must follow the unique name axiom.

As a result, the definitions of *choiceMac*, *probMac*, *seqLength* and *maxPoss* in above sub-section also can be extended as follows.

**Definition 3.11** For any macro-action  $p_{name}$  with  $body \Delta$ ,  $choiceMac(p_{name}, a) \equiv choiceMac(\Delta, a),$   $probMac(A, p_{name}, s) = p \equiv probMac(A, \Delta, s) = p,$   $seqLength(p_{name}) = seqLength(\Delta),$  $maxPoss(p_{name}, s) = l \equiv maxPoss(\Delta, s) = l.$ 

Moreover, for later convenience, we would like to give following description of notations. **Notation 3.12** For any macro-action or sequential action  $\alpha$ , let  $\alpha[n]$  denote the  $n^{th}$  deterministic or stochastic action of  $\alpha$  or of  $\alpha$ 's body for  $1 \le n \le seqLength(\alpha)$ , i.e.

- 1. if  $\alpha$  is a macro-action with body  $\Delta$ , then  $\alpha[n] = \Delta[n]$ ;
- 2. otherwise, if  $n \leq 0$  or  $n > seqLength(\alpha)$ , then  $\alpha[n] \stackrel{def}{=} nil$ , else  $\alpha[n]$  is of sort action such that there exist actions  $a_1, a_2, \cdots, a_{n-1}, a_{n+1}, \cdots, a_{seqLength(\alpha)}$ satisfying that

$$\alpha = a_1; a_2 \cdots; a_{n-1}; \alpha[n]; a_{n+1}; \cdots; a_{seqLength(\alpha)}.$$

**Notation 3.13** Notice that, up till now, we extend several terms of the language  $\mathcal{L}_{sc}$  described in Chapter 2.1 as follows:

- 1. the term do(a, s) is extended to the form  $do(a_1; a_2; \dots; a_n, s) (n \ge 1)$  where every  $a_i$  is of sort action and s is of sort situation;
- 2. the predicate Poss(A, s) is extended to the form Poss(A<sub>1</sub>; A<sub>2</sub>; ···; A<sub>n</sub>, s)(n ≥
  1) stating that deterministic sequential action A<sub>1</sub>; A<sub>2</sub>; ···; A<sub>n</sub> can be performed in the situation s.

We denote language  $\mathcal{L}_{sc}$  with above extensions as language  $\mathcal{L}'_{sc}$ , i.e., the difference between  $\mathcal{L}_{sc}$  and  $\mathcal{L}'_{sc}$  is that  $\mathcal{L}_{sc}$  does not allow above two kinds of extended terms.

After observation and discussion above, we finally decided the structure of macroaction, and found that it is possible to develop a knowledge base for macro-action, which will include the extended successor state axioms, action preconditions, and probabilities for the macro-actions. We would like to see this work later in next chapter, and now we may look at following example of robot climbing stairs for better understanding.

# 3.3 Example of Macro-actions for Robot Climbing Stairs

Continuing Example 3.1 in previous section, suppose we have

macro stepMain(h) (3.3)
 liftUpperLeg(h); forwLowLeg; stepDown(main); moveBarycenter(main);
 straightLeg

endmacro,

i.e., we define two macro-actions stepMain(h) and stepSupp, and the procedure of climbing a stair of height h therefore can be defined as follows:

proc climbing(h) ?(legalStair(h)); stepMain(h); stepSupp endproc. (3.5)

We also can define following macro-action

macro 
$$climbStair(h)$$
 (3.6)

liftUpperLeg(h); forwLowLeg; stepDown(main); moveBarycenter(main);

straightLeg; forwSupLeg; stepDown(supporting); moveBarycenter(supporting)

endmacro

and therefore the previous procedure climbing(h) (3.1) can be represented as

proc 
$$climbing(h)$$
 ?( $legalStair(h)$ );  $climbStair(h)$  endproc. (3.7)

According to the definition of *choiceMac*, for example

 $choiceMac(malfunc(h), stepMain(h)) \equiv true,$   $choiceMac(liftTill(h); stepDown(main), stepMain(h)) \equiv false,$  choiceMac(forwSupLegS; stepDownF(supporting); $moveBarycenterS(supporting), stepSupp) \equiv true.$ 

Since seqLength(stepMain(h)) = 5 and seqLength(stepSupp) = 3, then we have nature's choices of length from 1 to 5, therefore we might need all the extended successor state axiom for sequences  $a_1; \dots; a_n$  where n = 2, 3, 4, 5. For instance, consider fluent barycenter and for variables  $a_1$  and  $a_2$ , we have

$$barycenter(l, do(a_1; a_2, s)) \equiv \mathcal{R}[barycenter(l, do([a_1, a_2], s))]$$
  
=  $\mathcal{R}[a_2 = moveBarycenterS(l) \lor barycenter(l, do(a_1, s)) \land$   
 $\neg(\exists l')[a_2 = moveBarycenterS(l') \land l \neq l']]$   
 $\equiv a_2 = moveBarycenterS(l) \lor \{a_1 = moveBarycenterS(l)$ 

$$\forall barycenter(l, s) \land \neg(\exists l')[a_1 = moveBarycenterS(l') \land l \neq l']\}$$
$$\land \neg(\exists l')[a_2 = moveBarycenterS(l') \land l \neq l']].$$

For other fluents and different lengths of deterministic sequential actions, the regression calculations are similar according to the description we gave in the previous section.

As examples of the extended action preconditions, both liftTill(h); forwLowlLegSand malfunc(h); forwLowlLegS are nature's choices of macro-action stepMain(h), their precondition axioms are

Poss(liftTill(h); forwLowlLegS, s)

- $\equiv Poss(liftTill(h), s) \land Poss(forwLowlLegS, do(liftTill(h), s)))$
- $\equiv \mathcal{R}[Poss(liftTill(h), s) \land Poss(forwLowlLegS, do(liftTill(h), s))]$
- $= \mathcal{R}[barycenter(supporting, s) \land \neg mainToCurr(wrongPos, do(liftTill(h), s)))$  $\land \neg footOnGround(main, do(liftTill(h), s))]$
- $\equiv$  barycenter(supporting, s) (by using regression and simplification), and

Poss(malfunc(h); forwLowlLegS, s)

- $\equiv \mathcal{R}[Poss(malfunc(h), s) \land Poss(forwLowlLegS, do(malfunc(h), s))]$
- $= \mathcal{R}[barycenter(supporting, s) \land \neg mainToCurr(wrongPos, do(malfunc(h), s)))$  $\land \neg footOnGround(main, do(malfunc(h), s))]$
- =  $\mathcal{R}[barycenter(supporting, s) \land \neg true]$  (by regression and simplification)
- $\equiv$  false.

Other extended action preconditions can be obtained similarly. At last, some examples of the extended probabilities are given as follows according to the descriptions in the previous section:

i. for 
$$A = liftTill(h)$$
; for  $wLowlLegS$  and  $\alpha = stepMain(h)$ , we have  
 $probMac(liftTill(h); for wLowlLegS, stepMain(h), s) = p$ 

- $= choiceMac(\alpha, A) \land Poss(A, s) \land p = prob_0(liftTill(h), liftUpperLeg(h), s) *$  $prob_0(forwLowlLegS, forwLowlLeg, do(liftTill(h), s))$  $\lor (\neg choiceMac(\alpha, A) \lor \neg Poss(A, s)) \land p = 0.$
- ii. probMac(malfunc(h); forwLowlLegS, stepMain(h), s) = 0, since we have the fact that  $\neg Poss(malfunc(h); forwLowlLegS, s)$  for any situation s;

In this chapter, we discussed the motivation of the work that goes on in this paper. Next, we began with the first step of finding what we mean *macro-action* and argued that the structure is possible and reasonable for later development. finally, we worked on an concrete example of macro-actions to get more sense. Based on this, in next chapter, we are going to perform the formal work how to develop a database for macro-actions in an uncertainty model for the purpose of reuse in later application.

# Chapter 4

# Developing the Knowledge Base for Macro-actions

We have decided the frame of the macro-actions in last chapter. Now, we are going to introduce a knowledge base which stores the information of macro-actions of an uncertainty system. To develop the knowledge base, we present an algorithm for this procedure and implement it in Prolog.

## 4.1 The Components of the Knowledge Base

As we have seen the example of robot climbing stairs, the purpose of having a knowledge base for macro-actions is that the autonomous agent can reuse local information of macroactions when it repeats the same procedures or strategies which are composed of macroactions and other complex actions under the same state of environment at different time. The reason that we call it a *knowledge base* rather than *database* is that we not only want to save the results of extended probabilities of the nature's choices, but also want to keep the extended action axioms which are more like knowledge than data.

Suppose the controller presents the basic action theories  $\mathcal{D}$  (including extended parts

such as nature's choices and probabilities) for an uncertainty system as we described in Section 2.5, and wants to introduce several macro-actions  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_t$   $(t \in \mathcal{N})$ . We would like to develop a knowledge base for these macro-actions which consists of two parts: static part and dynamic part. People may ask why we need two parts and what exactly they look like. We feel it will be much easier for us to set forth the reasons after expressing the explicit components of these two parts than to argue the reasons first.

The static part of the knowledge base is as follows:

• Definitions of Macro-actions

It consists of the statements of macro-action of the form

#### macro $p_{name}$ $\Delta$ endmacro.

We also introduce a special predicate currentMaxLength(n) which denotes the maximal length of all the macro-actions in current knowledge base. Initially, when knowledge base is empty, we have the fact currentMaxLength(0). Formally, it is defined as follows

 $currentMaxLength(n) \stackrel{def}{=}$ 

if there is some macro-action in current knowledge base, then  $n = seqLength(p_0)$  for some macro-action (procedure)  $p_0$ in current knowledge base and  $n \ge seqLength(p)$ for every macro-action p in current knowledge base;  $else \ n = 0.$  (4.1)

Since we may have nature's choices of macro-actions ranging from length 1 to n satisfying that currentMaxLength(n), we would like to keep the extended successor state axioms for deterministic sequences from length 1 to n in next part.

• Derived Theories for Macro-actions

All the derived axioms are computed and stored here, for instance, preconditions axioms for every deterministic choices of macro-actions, etc. It includes the following three sub-groups.

a. The Extended Successor State Axioms for Fluents

Assume the maximum length of macro-actions declared in the first part is n, i.e., currentMaxLength(n), we keep the extended successor state axioms of every fluent for deterministic sequences no longer than n as the form of

$$F(\vec{x}, do(a_1; a_2; \dots; a_m, s)) \equiv \Psi_F(\vec{x}, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m, s),$$
(4.2)

or

$$f(\vec{x}, do(a_1; a_2; \dots; a_m, s)) = y \equiv \Psi_f(\vec{x}, y, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m, s), \quad (4.3)$$

where m is natural number such that  $2 \leq m \leq n$ , F represents a relational fluent, f represents a functional fluent, and  $\Psi_F$  (respectively,  $\Psi_f$ ) is some formula uniform in s obtained by regression and simplification.

**b.** The Extended Precondition Axioms for Nature's Choices of Macro-actions

As discussed in Section 3.2, we are interested in the extended precondition axioms for nature's choices of macro-actions. We keep them certainly for the sake of reuse. These extended Precondition Axioms are of form

$$Poss(A_1; A_2; \dots; A_m, s) \equiv \Pi(\vec{t}, s), \tag{4.4}$$

where  $A_1; A_2; \ldots; A_m$  is a nature's choice of some macro-action declared in part a., and  $\Pi$  is some formula uniform in *s* obtained by regression and simplification. Moreover, since later we will implement the knowledge base by using Prolog, according to the property of the closed world assumption(CWA) [26], we need not keep those axioms in which  $\Pi$ 's are *false*. Additionally, we introduce a predicate  $localChoice(\alpha, L)$ , meaning that L is a list of all the nature's choices of macro-action  $\alpha$  satisfying that

for any  $A \in L$ , there is precondition axiom of form  $Poss(A, s) \equiv \Pi_A(s)$ either in this knowledge base or in  $\mathcal{D}$ ,

i.e. we discard all those nature's choices of a macro-action that are obviously not possible to be performed in any situation. We gather such information for every existing macro-action in this knowledge base. To do this additional information collecting operation can bring us the advantage that the agent later won't waste time on those non-performable choices.

c. The Extended Probabilities for Nature's Choices of Macro-actions

The most important information for uncertainty system is the probability of every nature's choice of macro-action, which is as the given definition of *probMac* in Section 3.2. To achieve the goal of reusing useful results of macroactions rather than recomputing them, we prefer saving the regression results which are uniform in s for the definition of  $probMac(A, \alpha, s)$ . But, since we have already had the information of the extended precondition axioms kept in the knowledge base, rather than using the original definition in Chapter 3, the following equivalent definition is more suitable for us (the equality can be easily proved by induction):

given A representing deterministic sequential action and variable  $\alpha$  representing a stochastic action or a macro-action,

$$probMac(A, \alpha, s) = p \stackrel{def}{=}$$

$$choiceMac(\alpha, A) \land Poss(A, s) \land p = probMac_0(A, \alpha, s)$$

$$\lor (\neg choiceMac(\alpha, A) \lor \neg Poss(A, s)) \land p = 0, \qquad (4.5)$$

in which we introduce the supplementary predicate  $probMac_0(A, \alpha, s)$  defined

recursively as follows:

$$probMac_{0}(A, \alpha, s) = p \stackrel{def}{=}$$
  
if  $seqLength(A) = 1$  then  $p = prob_{0}(A, \alpha[1], s)$ ,  
else  $(\exists y_{1}, y_{2})[y_{1} = probMac_{0}(A[1]; \cdots; A[n-1], \alpha, s) \land$   
 $y_{2} = prob_{0}(A[n], \alpha[n], do(A[1]; \cdots; A[n-1], s)) \land p = y_{1} * y_{2}]$   
where  $n = seqLength(A) \land n > 1$ . (4.6)

Notice that if we have  $Poss(A, s) \equiv false$  for some macro-action  $\alpha$ 's choice A, i.e. there is no rule for Poss(A, s) in part b., by CWA [26] and negation as failure, we could definitely know that  $probMac(A, \alpha, s) = 0$  by definition (4.5), therefore, it is not necessary to compute and save the regression result of  $probMac_0(A, \alpha, s)$  for such A. Hence, we only need to keep the regression results of  $probMac_0$  as follows

$$probMac_0(A, \alpha, s) = p \equiv f(p, \vec{t}, s)$$

$$(4.7)$$

where f is a formula uniform in s obtained by regression and simplification of (4.6) for every  $\alpha$ 's nature's choice A which has the precondition axiom in  $\mathcal{D}$  or in part **b**.

We have finished describing the components of the static part of the knowledge base. Clearly, all of the knowledge we keep in this part are universal in the sense that they are not relevant to particular situations, i.e., *s* is a variable of sort situation and we can obtain the knowledge for macro-actions described above without any descriptions of the initial database and any exact programs. Therefore, "static" does not mean that this part could not change at all, it means that the static part of a knowledge base is relatively stable and will not change with the changing of the initial database and programs. Controller can extend this part by adding more macro-actions, or totally discard the whole part by deleting the file that is used to save the above information and re-build a new one. The dynamic part of the knowledge base depends on particular situations. This part contains 3-ary predicate maxPossBase facts such that

$$maxPossBase(List, \alpha, S) \equiv List = maxPoss(\alpha, S)$$

for some macro-action  $\alpha$  and situation instance S. The information of  $maxPoss(\alpha, S)$  we discussed in previous chapter is very useful and the reuse of it can save computational time for the autonomous agent when it performs the macro-action (possibly on different instances) under the same situation. These facts,  $maxPossBase(List, \alpha, S)$ , depend on particular situations, therefore relate to the initial database and programs. They are generated during executing and will disappear when the controller reloads new initial database. Since this dynamic part is related to the initial situation, we embed the generation into application interpreter. The detail will be discussed later during application in Chapter 5.

By giving the descriptions of the knowledge base, it is clear that why we would like to separate it into two parts. We would not like the general knowledge in the static part to disappear so easily, while, on the other hand, would not like to keep the situation instance related information any more once the initial database changes.

# 4.2 An Extended Regression Operator Based on the Knowledge Base

Given the structures of knowledge base for macro-actions, it is very natural for us to think of introducing an extended regression operator, which will help us develop the knowledge base formally and later for the purpose of reusing the extended axioms in the base. Our new regression operator  $\mathcal{R}^*$  will be defined on *s*-regressable formula in  $\mathcal{L}'_{sc}$ , i.e., we allow formulas to include the extended terms described in Notation 3.13. **Definition 4.1** Suppose s either is the initial situation  $S_0$  or a variable of sort situation. A formula W of  $\mathcal{L}'_{sc}$  is s-regressable for some situation s iff

- 1. every term of sort situation mentioned by W has the form  $do(\alpha_n, \dots, do(\alpha_1, s) \dots)$ for some  $n \ge 0$ , and every  $\alpha_i$   $(1 \le i \le n)$  either is of sort action or is of form  $\alpha_{i,1}; \dots; \alpha_{i,m_i}$  for some  $m_i \ge 2$  and every  $\alpha_{i,j}$   $(1 \le j \le m_i)$  is of sort action;
- 2. for every atom of the form  $Poss(\alpha, \sigma)$  mentioned by W,  $\alpha = A_1(\vec{x_1}); \cdots; A_n(\vec{x_n})$ for some  $n \ge 1$  and all  $A_i$  are action function symbols of  $\mathcal{L}_{sc}$ ;
- 3. other conditions are same as the  $3^{rd}$  and  $4^{th}$  conditions in the Definition 2.3.

A functional fluent term is s-prime for s, iff it has the form  $f(\vec{t}, do(\alpha_n, \dots, do(\alpha_1, s) \dots))$ for  $n \ge 1$ , where every  $\alpha_i$   $(1 \le i \le n)$  either is of sort action, or is of form  $\alpha_{i,1}; \dots; \alpha_{i,m_i}$ for some  $m_i \ge 2$  and every  $\alpha_{i,j}$   $(1 \le j \le m_i)$  is of sort action; and each of the terms  $\vec{t}$  is uniform in s.

And now, we give the definition of the extended regression operator  $\mathcal{R}^*$  for *s*-regressable formula W in  $\mathcal{L}'_{sc}$  (where *s* is either  $S_0$  or a variable of sort situation) as follows:

Definition 4.2 The Extended Regression Operator

- Suppose W = Poss(α(t), σ) where α(t) is a sequence of deterministic actions (including of length 1, i.e., primitive action) and σ is of sort situation, there are two cases:
  - (a) If there is (extended) action precondition axiom given as

$$Poss(\alpha(\vec{x}), s_1) \equiv \Pi_{\alpha}(\vec{x}, s_1)$$

without loss of generality, assume that all quantifiers (if any) of  $\Pi_{\alpha}(\vec{x}, s_1)$  have had their quantified variables renamed to be distinct from the free variables (if any) of  $Poss(\alpha(\vec{t}), \sigma)$ , then

$$\mathcal{R}^{\star}[W] = \mathcal{R}^{\star}[\Pi_{\alpha}(\vec{t},\sigma)]$$

(b) Otherwise, we must have  $seqLength(\alpha(\vec{t})) > 1$ , and suppose the recursive definition of  $Poss(a_1; \cdots; a_n, s)$  for n > 1 is of form

$$Poss(a_1; \cdots; a_n, s) \equiv$$
$$Poss(a_1; \cdots; a_{n-1}, s) \land Poss(a_n, do(a_1; \cdots; a_{n-1}, s)), \qquad (4.8)$$

which is equivalent to the original definition formula(3.2) (can be proved easily), without loss of generality, assume that all quantifiers (if any) of above formula have had their quantified variables renamed to be distinct from the free variables (if any) of  $Poss(\alpha(\vec{t}), \sigma)$ , then let

$$\mathcal{R}^{\star}[W] = \mathcal{R}^{\star}[Poss(\alpha_{1}(\vec{t_{1}}); \cdots; \alpha_{n-1}(\vec{t_{n-1}}), \sigma) \land Poss(\alpha_{n}(\vec{t_{n}}), do((\alpha_{1}(\vec{t_{1}}); \cdots; \alpha_{n-1}(\vec{t_{n-1}}), \sigma))]$$

- 2. Suppose W is a s-regressable atom, but not a Poss atom. There are three possibilities:
  - (a) s is the only term of sort situation (if any) mentioned by W, then

$$\mathcal{R}^{\star}[W] = W.$$

- (b) Suppose that W mentions a term of the form g(t, do(α', σ')) for some functional fluent g, α' = α'<sub>1</sub>; · · · ; α'<sub>n</sub> for some n > 0 and every α'<sub>i</sub> is of sort action, and σ' is of sort situation. g(t, do(α', σ')) mentions a s-prime functional fluent term of form f(r, do(α, σ)) where α = α<sub>1</sub>; · · · ; α<sub>m</sub> for some m > 0 and every α<sub>i</sub> is of sort action, and σ is of sort situation.
  - If there is formula of form

$$f(\vec{x}, do(a_1; \cdots; a_m, s_1)) = y \equiv \psi_f(\vec{x}, y, a_1, \cdots, a_m, s_1)$$

in the knowledge base, without loss of generality, assume that all quantifiers (if any) of  $\psi_f(\vec{x}, y, a_1, \dots, a_m, s_1)$  have had their quantified variables renamed to be distinct from the free variables (if any) of  $f(\vec{r}, do(\alpha, \sigma))$ , then

$$\mathcal{R}^{\star}[W] = \mathcal{R}^{\star}[(\exists y).\psi_f(\vec{r}, y, \alpha_1, \cdots, \alpha_m, \sigma) \wedge W|_y^{f(\vec{r}, do(\alpha, \sigma))}];$$

• otherwise, suppose f's successor state axiom in  $\mathcal{D}_{ss}$  is

$$f(\vec{x}, do(a, s_1)) = y \equiv \phi_f(\vec{x}, y, a, s_1),$$

without loss of generality, assume that all quantifiers (if any) of  $\phi_f(\vec{x}, y, a, s_1)$ have had their quantified variables renamed to be distinct from the free variables (if any) of  $f(\vec{r}, do((\alpha, \sigma)))$ , then let  $\sigma_1 = do(\alpha_1; \cdots; \alpha_{m-1}, \sigma)$ (when  $m - 1 = 0, \sigma_1 = \sigma$ ) and

$$\mathcal{R}^{\star}[W] = \mathcal{R}^{\star}[(\exists y).\phi_f(\vec{r}, y, \alpha_m, \sigma_1) \wedge W|_{y}^{f(\vec{r}, do(\alpha, \sigma))}].$$

Here y is a variable not occurring free in  $W, \vec{r}, \alpha$  or  $\sigma$ .

- (c) W is a relational fluent atom of form  $F(\vec{t}, do(\alpha, \sigma))$  where  $\alpha = \alpha_1; \cdots; \alpha_n$  for n > 0 and every  $\alpha_i$  is of sort action, and  $\sigma$  is of sort situation.
  - If there is formula of form

$$F(\vec{x}, do(a_1; \cdots; a_n, s_1)) \equiv \psi_F(\vec{x}, a_1, \cdots, a_n, s_1)$$

in the knowledge base, without loss of generality, assume that all quantifiers (if any) of  $\psi_F(\vec{x}, a_1, \dots, a_n, s_1)$  have had their quantified variables renamed to be distinct from the free variables (if any) of  $F(\vec{t}, do(\alpha, \sigma))$ , then

$$\mathcal{R}^{\star}[W] = \mathcal{R}^{\star}[\psi_F(\vec{t}, \alpha_1, \cdots, \alpha_n, \sigma)];$$

• otherwise, suppose F's successor state axiom in  $\mathcal{D}_{ss}$  is

$$F(\vec{x}, do(a, s_1)) \equiv \Phi_F(\vec{x}, a, s_1),$$

without loss of generality, assume that all quantifiers (if any) of  $\Phi_F(\vec{x}, a, s_1)$ have had their quantified variables renamed to be distinct from the free variables (if any) of  $F(\vec{t}, do(\alpha, \sigma))$ , then let  $\sigma_1 = do(\alpha_1; \cdots; \alpha_{n-1}, \sigma)$ (when n - 1 = 0,  $\sigma_1 = \sigma$ ) and

$$\mathcal{R}^{\star}[W] = \mathcal{R}^{\star}[\Phi_F(\vec{t}, \alpha_n, \sigma_1)].$$

3. For non-atomic formulas, regression is defined inductively as follows.

$$\mathcal{R}^{\star}[\neg W] = \neg \mathcal{R}^{\star}[W]$$
$$\mathcal{R}^{\star}[W_1 \land W_2] = \mathcal{R}^{\star}[W_1] \land \mathcal{R}^{\star}[W_2]$$
$$\mathcal{R}^{\star}[(\exists x)W] = (\exists x)\mathcal{R}^{\star}[W]$$

Because regression repeatedly substitutes logically equivalent formulas for atoms, what the operator delivers will be logically equivalent for what it starts with. This forms the basis of the following:

**Theorem 4.3** Suppose W is a s-regressable sentence of  $\mathcal{L}'_{sc}$  for some situation s that mentions no functional fluents, and  $\mathcal{D}$  is a basic theory of actions. Then  $\mathcal{R}^*$  is a sentence uniform in s. Moreover,

$$\mathcal{D} \models W \equiv \mathcal{R}^*[W].$$

According to above theorem and Theorem 4.5.1, Theorem 4.5.2 in [28], we also have the following properties:

**Theorem 4.4** Suppose W is a regressable sentence of  $\mathcal{L}_{sc}$  that mentions no functional fluents, and  $\mathcal{D}$  is a basic theory of actions. Then

$$\mathcal{D} \models \mathcal{R}[W] \equiv \mathcal{R}^{\star}[W].$$

**Theorem 4.5** Suppose W is a regressable sentence of  $\mathcal{L}_{sc}$  that mentions no functional fluents, and  $\mathcal{D}$  is a basic theory of actions. Then

$$\mathcal{D} \models W iff \mathcal{D}_{S_0} \cup \mathcal{D}_{una} \models \mathcal{R}^{\star}[W].$$

Moreover, as we discussed in previous chapter,  $do(a_1; a_2; \dots; a_n, s)$  represents the same situation as  $do([a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n], s)$  for deterministic actions. Hence, for any  $S_0$ regressable formula  $W_1$  in  $\mathcal{L}'_{sc}$ , there is a regressable formula  $W_2$  equivalent to  $W_1$  obtained by replacing any  $Poss(\alpha, \sigma)$  in  $W_1$  with its equivalent formula of form (3.2) if  $seqLength(\alpha) > 1$  and replacing any  $do(a_1; a_2; \dots; a_n, \sigma)$  in  $W_1$  with  $do([a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n], \sigma)$ . We call  $W_2$  as the equal formula of  $W_1$  in  $\mathcal{L}_{sc}$ , and it is easy to see that

**Theorem 4.6** Suppose  $W_1$  is a  $S_0$ -regressable sentence of  $\mathcal{L}'_{sc}$  that mentions no functional fluents,  $W_2$  is the equal formula of  $W_1$  in  $\mathcal{L}_{sc}$ , and  $\mathcal{D}$  is a basic theory of actions. Then

$$\mathcal{D} \models W_2 \ iff \ \mathcal{D}_{S_0} \cup \mathcal{D}_{una} \models \mathcal{R}^{\star}[W_1]$$

These mean that our regression operator  $\mathcal{R}^*$  can obtain the equivalent result as the original operator. Based on the definition of regression operator  $\mathcal{R}^*$  and above properties, we are now going to develop the knowledge base developer which is a program used to develop the static part of the knowledge base in a formal way.

## 4.3 The Knowledge Base (Static Part) Developer

We have seen how we designed the knowledge base, and we are going to present how the agent develops the knowledge base (static part) based on the user-provided basic action theories and descriptions of macro-actions. Our basic idea is that for a given dynamic system with its knowledge base, if the controller wants to use some macro-actions that are not in the base, he or she will call a program built in the agent to compute and add the information of the new macro-actions into the static part of the knowledge base before using them; otherwise, the controller can use the existing macro-actions directly.

#### 4.3.1 The Algorithm

Suppose the controller has provided the description of the basic action theories  $\mathcal{D}$  together with declarations of nature's choices and probabilities  $prob_0$  for an uncertainty system M. Notice that the initial knowledge base of macro-actions for M is empty, since there is no macro-action being declared yet. We claim that the declaration of macro-actions in the knowledge base is not opaque to the controller, i.e., the controller can easily retrieve how many macro-actions have been declared in current base and how they are defined. If the controller thinks it is necessary to introduce new macro-actions, it is the controller's duty to give the names and corresponding bodies of the new macro-actions.

The knowledge base developer kbDeveloper(list, base) is a program used by the agent to compute and add information into static part of knowledge base base for new macroactions in *list* provided by the controller. The detailed algorithm of the developer kbDeveloper(list, base) is as follows:

#### The Algorithm of Developing a Knowledge Base(Static Parts)

- 1. Let n1 be the number satisfying currentMaxLength(n1), i.e. we update currentMaxLength everytime we call this program.
- 2. Let  $n^2$  be the maximal length of the macro-actions in *list*.
- (adding declarations of new macro-actions)
   Insert declarations of new macro-actions in *list* into knowledge base and current program.

- 4. (adding the successor state axioms)
  If n2 ≤ n1, then go to next step;
  else, do following step:
  for i = n1 + 1 to n2 do
  - (1) for every relational fluent  $F(\vec{x}, s)$ , compute  $\mathcal{R}^{\star}[F(\vec{x}, do(a_1; \cdots; a_i, s))]$  and get result  $\phi_{F,i}(\vec{x}, a_1, \cdots, a_i, s)$  for some  $\phi_{F,i}$  uniform in s and insert formula

$$F(\vec{x}, do(a_1; \cdots; a_i, s)) \equiv \phi_{F,i}(\vec{x}, a_1, \cdots, a_i, s)$$

into the knowledge base and the front of current program;

(2) similarly, compute R\*[f(x, do(a<sub>1</sub>; · · · ; a<sub>i</sub>, s)) = y] for every functional fluent f(x, s) and get result φ<sub>f,i</sub>(x, y, a<sub>1</sub>, · · · , a<sub>i</sub>, s) for some φ<sub>f,i</sub> uniform in s and insert formula

$$f(\vec{x}, do(a_1; \cdots; a_i, s)) = y \equiv \phi_{f,i}(\vec{x}, y, a_1, \cdots, a_i, s)$$

into the knowledge base and the front of current program.

5. (adding the extended action preconditions for nature's choices of new macroactions)

For every macro-action  $\alpha$  given in *list* do

for j = 2 to  $seqLength(\alpha)$  do

compute  $\mathcal{R}^*[Poss(A(\vec{t}), s)]$  for every deterministic sequential actions  $A(\vec{t})$  satisfying that  $choiceMac(\alpha, A(\vec{t}))$  and  $seqLengh(A(\vec{t})) = j$  to get the result  $\Pi_A(\vec{t}, s)$ ; if it is not equal to *false*, then insert formula

$$Poss(A(\vec{t}), s) \equiv \Pi_A(\vec{t}, s)$$

into the knowledge base and the front of current program.

- 6. gather facts  $localChoice(\alpha, L)$  for every  $\alpha$  in *list* and insert them into the knowledge base and current program.
- 7. (adding probMac<sub>0</sub> for nature's choices of new macro-actions)
  For every macro-action α given in list do
  for every A(t) in L satisfying localChoice(α, L), compute probMac<sub>0</sub>(A(t), α, s)
  recursively according to the definition of formula (4.6) as follows:
  If seqLength(A(t)) = 1, then

$$probMac_0(A(\vec{t}), \alpha, s) = f_A(\vec{t}, s),$$

where  $f_A(\vec{t}, s) = prob_0(A(\vec{t}), \alpha[1], s)$ , else if  $A(\vec{t}) = A_1; A_2; \cdots; A_n \ (n > 1)$  and we have computed

$$probMac_0(A_1; A_2; \cdots; A_{n-1}, \alpha, s) = y_1 \equiv f'(\vec{t}, y_1, s)$$

where f' is uniform in s, then

$$probMac_0(A(\vec{t}), \alpha, s) = y \equiv y = y_1 * y_2 \land f'(\vec{t}, y_1, s) \land f_{A_n}(\vec{t}, y_2, s),$$

where  $f_{A_n}(\vec{t}, y_2, s)$  is obtained by computing  $\mathcal{R}^*[y_2 = W]$  in which W is the equivalent formula of  $prob_0(A_n, \alpha[n], do(A_1; A_2; \dots; A_{n-1}, s))$  according to the definition of  $prob_0$ . We therefore get an equivalent formula  $f(\vec{t}, y, s)$  of  $probMac_0(A(\vec{t}), \alpha, s) = y$  uniform in s, and then insert  $probMac_0(A(\vec{t}), \alpha, s) =$  $y \equiv f(\vec{t}, y, s)$  into the knowledge base and current program.

The reason for using extended regression operator is obvious. For example, to compute the regression result of  $F(\vec{x}, do(a_1; a_2; \dots; a_n, s))$  (n > 1) given all the formulas of (4.3) and (4.4) for  $a_1; a_2; \dots; a_{n-1}$  exist, we only need two steps by using operator  $\mathcal{R}^*$ , but need n steps by using operator  $\mathcal{R}$ .

### 4.3.2 Implementation and Experiment

We implement the algorithm in Prolog which is the language that we are used to implement Golog and stGolog of the action theory.

First thing we need to do is that to choose a proper structure to represent deterministic sequential actions. Notice that the structure "list" in Prolog is similar to definition of *log* and easy to deal with; moreover, we never used this structure before in the implementation of uncertainty system therefore should not cause conflict. Hence, in implementation of the work in this paper, we will use lists to represent the nature's choices of macroactions, and always use form  $do([a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n], s)$   $(n \ge 1)$  to represent the situation  $do(a_1; a_2; \dots; a_n, s)$ . Second, because we need to compute those extended axioms by using regression, the controller needs to provide the successor state axioms, precondition axioms and probabilities  $prob_0$  in the form of Atom  $\langle = \rangle$  Expression. For example, in the system of robot climbing stairs, controller provides the following assertions:

Action Precondition and Successor State Axioms for the Developer poss(liftTill(H),S) <=> barycenter(supporting,S). poss(malfunc(H),S) <=> barycenter(supporting,S). poss(forwLowLegS,S) <=> -mainToCurr(wrongPos,S) & -footOnGround(main,S). poss(forwLowLegF,S) <=> -mainToCurr(wrongPos,S) & -footOnGround(main,S). poss(stepDownS(L),S) <=> -footOnGround(L,S) & overNewStair(L,S). poss(stepDownF(L),S) <=> -footOnGround(L,S) & overNewStair(L,S). poss(moveBarycenterS(L),S) <=> footOnGround(L,S). poss(moveBarycenterF(L),S) <=> footOnGround(L,S). poss(straightLeg,S) <=> -straightMain(S) & footOnGround(main,S) & barycenter(main,S).

poss(forwSupLegS,S) <=> barycenter(main,S) & straightMain(S).

poss(forwSupLegF,S) <=> barycenter(main,S) & straightMain(S).

% Probabilities

prob0(liftTill(H),liftUpperLeg(H),S,Pr) <=> Pr is 100/(H+100). prob0(malfunc(H),liftUpperLeg(H),S,Pr) <=> Pr is H/(H+100). prob0(forwLowLegS,forwLowLeg,S,Pr) <=> mainToCurr(H,S) & Pr is 80/(H+80). prob0(forwLowLegF,forwLowLeg,S,Pr) <=> mainToCurr(H,S) & Pr is H/(H+80). prob0(stepDownS(L),stepDown(L),S,Pr) <=> Pr = 0.9. prob0(stepDownF(L),stepDown(L),S,Pr) <=> Pr = 0.1. prob0(moveBarycenterS(L),moveBarycenter(L),S,Pr) <=> Pr = 0.8. prob0(moveBarycenterF(L),moveBarycenter(L),S,Pr) <=> Pr = 0.2. prob0(straightLeg,straightLeg,S,Pr) <=> Pr = 1.0. prob0(forwSupLegS,forwSupLeg,S,Pr) <=> Pr = 0.8. prob0(forwSupLegF,forwSupLeg,S,Pr) <=> Pr = 0.2.

Notice that in the successor state axioms, we modify do(A,S) to be do([A],S), which can make the agent realize that A is variable of primitive action instead of a general variable which may cause mistakes during regression.

Besides these assertions, the user also needs to provide the declarations of the nature's choices of stochastic actions as of form choice(a,C):- C=a1;C=a2;...;C=am. Moreover, according to the algorithm, we need to gather all the fluents and construct new head of the extended successor state axioms. Notice that there is an existing term restoreSitArg(F,S,F[S]) ([28] Chapter6.3.2) introduced in the very beginning of the implementation of Golog meaning that the result of restoring the situation S to the situation-suppressed fluent atom F is F[S]. We always have a collection of clauses of such form for all the fluents in the system. We therefore can use this collection to help us find all fluents we need to work on as well as to generate the head of the new extended successor state axioms for different situations  $do([A_1, A_2, \cdots, A_n], S)$ . Hence, the aspects described above are all the clauses we need to provide for generating a new knowledge base (static part) for an uncertainty system. If we have had a knowledge base (static part) for the system and want to extend it with new macro-actions, we also need to provide all the extended successor state axioms in it for the purpose of avoiding duplication and of saving time. Notice that we will use files to store descriptions of the systems and the knowledge base (static part), therefore, the assertions of these rules can be done by simply loading the corresponding files.

There is another problem we need to take care of. Since later we would rather to use Prolog clause form, Head: - Body, for the systems and knowledge base in the application, which is different from the form, Head <=> Body, we need for regression, hence we here desire to use two files, say *base1* and *base2*, to store the knowledge base (static part).

In *base1* we keep the declarations of the macro-actions and the extended successor state axioms in the form of Head  $\langle = \rangle$  Body. When we need to the extend knowledge base (static part) by calling the developer, *base1* will be loaded. Moreover, in case that some nature's choice of the macro-actions is also other macro-action's nature's choice and we do not want to compute the extended action precondition for it again, we introduce a predicate computedBefore(L) to collect the deterministic sequence A for which we have computed Poss(A, S) in every round of calling kbDeveloper into L and store it in *base1*, therefore avoid duplication later when we call kbDeveloper again for extending this system's knowledge base. In *base2*, all the components of knowledge base (static part) we declared in Section 4.1 are stored in the form of Head:- Body, and during application this file will be loaded in stead of *base1*. As a sequence, our kbDeveloper is modified from two arguments to be three arguments as kbDeveloper(List, Base1, Base2) where List is a list of new macro-actions in the Prolog list form [name,body].

During the implementation, we break the algorithm into three parts: the main procedure, the regression procedures and the printing procedures (cf. Figure 4.2). And, the detailed program for kbDeveloper/3 can be found in Appendix C. Most of the clauses in the program are self-explained. Only a few of them need some explanation as follows:

- quant(Head,Body,L): find quantified variables in the rules, which are actually the different variables in the body of the rule from the variables in the head.
- genNew(V,N,New): if N is a number, then New is a list of N different strings with prefix V; else if N and V are lists, New is a list of new strings such that the *i<sup>th</sup>* element has a prefix if the *i<sup>th</sup>* element of V and is different from all the variables in N.

After having the program, we take a look at the experiment on the example of robot climbing stairs. Suppose the description of system provided by the controller is saved as file *baseClimb*, the program of the developer is named *developer*, the knowledge base for development and later extension of knowledge base (as *base1* above) is named *climbBase1* 

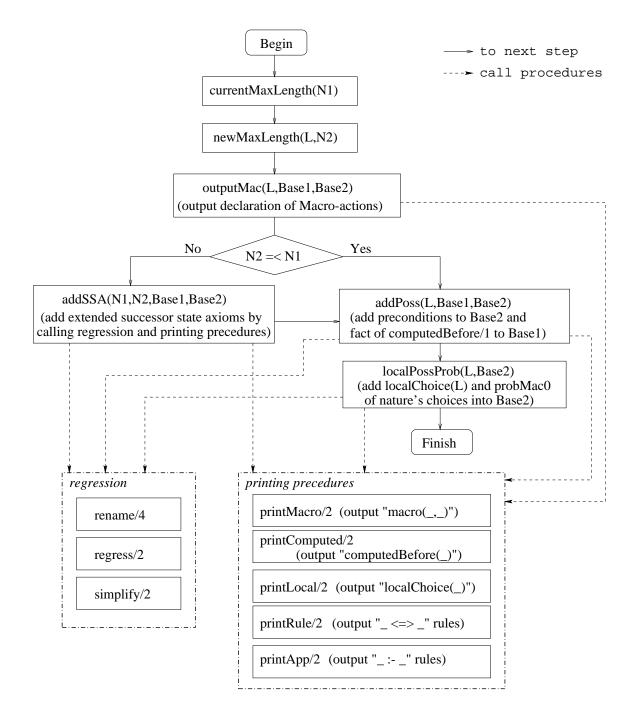


Figure 4.2: The Flow Chart of the Implementation of kbDeveloper(L,Base1,Base2)

and the other knowledge base for later application (as *base2* above) is named *climbBase2* (initially, these two files might be empty, or even don't exist). By executing programs as follows,

```
56
```

Example of Developing the Knowledge Base(Static Part) [eclipse 1]: [developer,baseClimb]. developer compiled traceable 65668 bytes in 0.00 seconds baseClimb compiled traceable 11400 bytes in 0.00 seconds

yes.

[eclipse 2]: kbDeveloper([[stepMain(H),liftUpperLeg(H):forwLowLeg:

stepDown(main):moveBarycenter(main):straightLeg],[stepSupp,

forwSupLeg:stepDown(supporting):moveBarycenter(supporting)]],

climbBase1,climbBase2).

/cs/ai/eclipse/lib/lists.pl compiled traceable 8200 bytes in 0.01 seconds
/cs/ai/eclipse/lib/sorts.pl compiled traceable 5420 bytes in 0.01 seconds
/cs/ai/eclipse/lib/strings.pl compiled traceable 6024 bytes in 0.01 seconds

H = H More? (;)

no (more) solution.

we developed the knowledge base (static part). Opening climbBase1 and climbBase2, we
observe that they include the exact clauses we expected. For example, we have
overNewStair(\_113, do([\_144, \_143], \_1881)) <=> \_143 = forwLowLegS
& \_113 = main v \_143 = forwSupLegS & \_113 = supporting v
(\_144 = forwLowLegS & \_113 = main v \_144 = forwSupLegS &
\_113 = supporting v overNewStair(\_113, \_1881) & -(\_144 =
stepDownS(\_113))) & -(\_143 = stepDownS(\_113)).

in *climbBase1* which is one of the extended successor state axioms we expected theoretically.

Simplification of the formulas is not easy to deal with during implementation. Because, for example, theoretically we can simplify any clause  $C_1 \vee C_2 \vee \cdots \vee C_n$  to be *true* whenever  $C_i = p$  and  $C_j = \neg p$  for some  $i, j \in \{1, 2, \cdots, n\}$  and atom p. During implementation, it will consume too much computing time if we want to do such a thorough simplification provided that the original formulas are not formal, which is not worthy. Therefore, on one hand, we try our best to simply the formula as much as possible; on the other hand, we do not want to consume too much time. Hence, we only did partial simplification, the detailed rules can be found in Appendix C(in regression part).

# Chapter 5

# The Reuse of the Macro-actions

After having the knowledge base(static part) for macro-actions, we are now interested in the applications: how we introduce macro-actions into high-level programs, how we keep dynamic part of the knowledge base and how we reuse the existing knowledge. Moreover, we will observe the benefit as well as limitation of using macro-actions.

### 5.1 An Interpreter over Macro-actions: macGolog

As with stGolog, one important use of specified probabilistic domain is in determining how probable some state of affairs will be after an agent performs a stGolog-like program – macGolog program. The macGolog programs are constructed from stochastic actions and macro-actions together with the Golog program constructors sequence, tests, while loops, conditionals and procedures.

### 5.1.1 Extending stGolog with Macro-actions

Similar to the stGolog interpreter, we want to specify an interpreter for sequence of combinations of stochastic actions and macro-actions without changing the function of the stGolog interpreter. Our new interpreter, macDo, expects a sequence  $\alpha_1; \alpha_2; \cdots; \alpha_n; nil$ , where every  $\alpha_i$  is a stochastic action or a macro-action with body  $\Delta_i$ , and nil is a dummy symbol indicating the end of the sequence. The reason that nil is needed is same as the one for stDo. We define this interpreter as follows:

$$macDo(nil, p, s, s') \stackrel{def}{=} s = s' \land p = 1.$$

Associate the sequence operator to the right:

$$macDo((\alpha; \beta); \gamma, p, s, s') \stackrel{def}{=} macDo(\alpha; (\beta; \gamma), p, s, s').$$

Whenever  $\alpha$  is a stochastic action, the definition of *macDo* is same as *stDo*:

$$macDo(\alpha; \beta, p, s, s') \stackrel{def}{=} \\ \neg(\exists a)[choice(\alpha, a) \land Poss(a, s)] \land s = s' \land p = 1 \lor \\ (\exists a).choice(\alpha, a) \land Poss(a, s) \land \\ (\exists p').macDo(\beta, p', do(a, s), s') \land p = prob_0(a, \alpha, s) * p'.$$
(5.1)

Notice that we use  $prob_0(a, \alpha, s)$  instead of  $prob(a, \alpha, s)$  in the stGolog interpreter, which gives us the same result, since the definition of  $prob(a, \alpha, s)$  is

$$prob(a, \alpha, s) = p \equiv Poss(a, s) \land p = prob_0(a, \alpha, s) \lor \neg Poss(a, s) \land p = 0,$$

hence, we have

$$Poss(a,s) \land p = prob(a,\alpha,s) \ast p' \equiv Poss(a,s) \land p = prob_0(a,\alpha,s) \ast p'.$$
(5.2)

Now consider that  $\alpha$  is a macro-action and we have had developed the static part's

information for it in the knowledge, then

$$macDo(\alpha; \beta, p, s, s') \stackrel{def}{=} \\ \neg(\exists a)[choice(\alpha[1], a) \land Poss(a, s)] \land s' = s \land p = 1 \lor \\ (\exists c).c \in maxPoss(\alpha, s) \land (\exists p_1).p_1 = probMac_0(c, \alpha, s) \land \\ [shorter(c, \alpha) \land p = p1 \land s' = do(c, s) \lor \\ \neg shorter(c, \alpha) \land macDo(\beta, p_2, do(c, s), s') \land p = p1 * p2].$$
(5.3)

where  $shorter(a, b) \equiv seqLength(a) < seqLength(b)$  for some deterministic sequential action a and some macro-action(either name or body) b. Moreover, up till now, although we gave the definition of  $maxPoss(\alpha, s)$ , we still did not discuss how to generate it and keep it as fact  $maxPossBase(L, \alpha, s)$  practically. The following describes how we develop and retrieve the dynamic part of the knowledge base  $maxPoss(\alpha, s)$  for macro-action  $\alpha$ in some situation s:

 $c \in maxPoss(\alpha, s) \stackrel{def}{=}$ 

if there exists fact  $maxPossBase(L, \alpha, s)$  in the knowledge base for some L,

then  $c \in L$  (i.e., element c can be retrieved from base maxPossBase);

else call the fact  $localChoice(\alpha, V)$  for some list V, compute list  $maxposs_0(V, s)$ ,

assert the fact  $maxPossBase(maxposs_0(V, s), \alpha, s)$  and  $c \in maxposs_0(V, s)$ , (5.4)

where V is a list of possible nature's choices of  $\alpha$  according to the definition of *localChoice*, and  $maxposs_0(V, s)$  is a list obtained as for any element a,

$$a \in maxposs_0(V, s) \quad iff$$
$$a \in V \land Poss(a, s) \land \neg(\exists c)[c \in V \land Poss(c, s) \land realPrefix(a, c)]$$
(5.5)

in which realPrefix(a, c) is true iff a is a prefix of c and  $a \neq c$ . It is easy to see that the definition of  $maxPoss(\alpha, s)$  has the same content as the original definition in Chapter 3.

Lemma 5.1 The following are satisfied according to our definition of macDo: (5-1) For any situation s,

$$macDo(\alpha; nil, p, s, s') \equiv stDo(\alpha; nil, p, s, s')$$

if  $\alpha$  is a sequence of stochastic actions; and,

(5-2) for any situation s, let  $\alpha$  be a sequence of stochastic actions,  $\beta$  be a macroaction with the body  $\Delta$  (including the special case that there is no actions before  $\beta$ , i.e., sequence  $\alpha$  doesn't exist), and  $\gamma$  be a sequence of combinations of stochastic actions and macro-actions followed by nil (including the special case that  $\gamma = nil$ ), we have

$$macDo(\alpha; \beta; \gamma, p, s, s') \equiv macDo(\alpha; \Delta; \gamma, p, s, s')$$

**Proof:** (1) To property (5-1), it is directly from the definition of macDo(5.1) and the result(5.2) when  $\alpha$  is stochastic action.

(2) The proof of property (5-2) for the general case that  $\alpha$  is a finite sequence of stochastic actions is similar to the case that  $\alpha$  is a stochastic action, therefore, we present the proof for  $\alpha$  is a stochastic action only.

If there is no primitive action a satisfying that  $choice(\alpha, a) \wedge Poss(a, s)$ , then

$$macDo(\alpha; \beta; \gamma, p, s, s') \equiv p = 1 \land s = s' \equiv macDo(\alpha; \Delta; \gamma, p, s, s');$$

otherwise, to prove

$$macDo(\alpha;\beta;\gamma,p,s,s') \equiv macDo(\alpha;\Delta;\gamma,p,s,s')$$

is equivalent to prove for every primitive action a satisfying that  $choice(\alpha, a) \land Poss(a, s)$ ,

$$macDo(\beta; \gamma, p', do(a, s), s') \equiv macDo(\Delta; \gamma, p', do(a, s), s').$$

There are three cases for any deterministic sequential action c:

(a) If 
$$\neg(\exists c)[choice(\beta[1], c) \land Poss(c, do(a, s))]$$
, then  
 $macDo(\beta; \gamma, p', do(a, s), s') \equiv s' = do(a, s) \land p' = 1 \equiv macDo(\Delta; \gamma, p', do(a, s), s').$ 

(b) If 
$$(\exists c).c \in maxPoss(\beta, do(a, s)) \land \neg shorter(c, \beta)$$
, then according to the def-  
inition of  $macPoss$ , we have  $Poss(c, do(a, s)) \land (\wedge_{i=1}^{m} choice(\Delta[i], c[i]))$  where  
 $(m = seqLength(\Delta))$  and therefore, for such  $c$ ,  
 $macDo(\beta; \gamma, p', do(a, s), s')$   
 $\equiv (\exists p_1).p_1 = probMac_0(c, \beta, do(a, s)) \land$   
 $macDo(\gamma, p2, do(c, do(a, s)), s') \land p' = p_1 * p_2$   
 $\equiv (\exists p_1).p_1 = prob_0(c[1], \beta[1], do(a, s)) * \cdots * prob_0(c[m], \beta[m],$   
 $do(c[1]; \cdots; c[m-1], do(a, s)) \land macDo(\gamma, p2, do(c, do(a, s)), s') \land p' = p_1 * p_2$   
 $\equiv macDo(\Delta; \gamma, p', do(a, s), s')$   
according to  $do(A_1; A_2; \cdots; A_n, s) = do(A_n, \cdots, do(A_1, s) \cdots)$  and the definition  
of  $macDo$ .

(c) If 
$$(\exists c).c \in maxPoss(\beta, do(a, s)) \land shorter(c, \beta)$$
, for such  $c$ , let  $t = seqLength(c)$ ,  
and we have  $Poss(c, do(a, s)) \land (\land_{i=1}^{t}choice(\Delta[i], c[i]))$  and  $\neg(\exists d)[choice(\Delta[t + 1], d) \land Poss(d, do(c, do(a, s)))]$ , therefore, for such  $c$ ,  
 $macDo(\beta; \gamma, p', do(a, s), s')$   
 $\equiv p' = probMac_{0}(c, \beta, do(a, s)) \land s' = do(c, do(a, s))$   
 $\equiv p' = prob_{0}(c[1], \beta[1], do(a, s)) \ast \cdots \ast prob_{0}(c[m], \beta[m],$   
 $do(c[1]; \cdots; c[m-1], do(a, s)) \land s' = do(c, do(a, s))$   
 $\equiv macDo(\Delta[1]; \cdots; \Delta[t]; \Delta[t+1]: nil, p', do(a, s), s')$   
 $\equiv macDo(\Delta; \gamma, p', do(a, s), s')$   
according to  $do(A_{1}; A_{2}; \cdots; A_{n}, s) = do(A_{n}, \cdots, do(A_{1}, s) \cdots)$  and the definition  
of  $macDo$ .

Hence, we proved property (5-2).

We therefore can get following properties:

**Theorem 5.2** For any situation s and any sequence  $\alpha_1; \alpha_2; \cdots; \alpha_n$  where every  $\alpha_i$  is either stochastic action or macro-action with body  $\Delta_i$ , we have

$$macDo(\alpha_1; \alpha_2; \cdots; \alpha_n; nil, p, s, s') \equiv stDo(\beta_1; \beta_2; \cdots; \beta_n; nil, p, s, s'),$$

where every  $\beta_i$  either is  $\alpha_i$  if  $\alpha_i$  is a stochastic action, or is  $\Delta_i$  if  $\alpha_i$  is a macro-action.

**Proof:** According to property (5-2), we have

$$macDo(\alpha_1; \alpha_2; \cdots; \alpha_n; nil, p, s, s') \equiv macDo(\beta_1; \beta_2; \cdots; \beta_n; nil, p, s, s'),$$

by replacing the macro-actions with their bodies from left to right and according to property (5-1), we have

$$macDo(\beta_1; \beta_2; \cdots; \beta_n; nil, p, s, s') \equiv stDo(\beta_1; \beta_2; \cdots; \beta_n; nil, p, s, s'),$$

therefore, our theorem is proved.

This property indicates that although we extend the interpreter with macro-actions, we didn't change the function of the stGolog interpreter. So what's the advantage for using knowledge base? It is for the purpose of saving computational time, which will be discussed later.

#### 5.1.2 Generating the Dynamic Part of the Knowledge Base

Our purpose of developing the dynamic part of the knowledge base is to keep necessary sets of maxPoss for macro-actions in some particular situations for the sake of reuse. Imagining the example of robot climbing stairs with macro-actions stepMain(h) and stepSupp, we are interested in the robot climbing (legal) stairs repeatedly from the local initial situations which are same as  $S_0$ , and suppose we keep the set of maximal possible choices  $maxPoss(stepMain(15), S_0)$  and the set maxPoss(stepSupp, do([liftTill(15), $forwLowLegS, stepDownS(main), moveBarycenterS(main), straightLeg], <math>S_0$ ). When the controller calls procedure(3.5) climbing(15) again, the robot can directly retrieve these information without re-computation. During the first time of calling procedure(3.5) climbing(15), we can use command assert/1 to help us achieve above description of keeping information of maxPoss/2 for macro-actions on object instance in certain situations as facts maxPossBase/3. Similarly, if we have macro-action(3.6) climbStair(h) instead of macro-actions stepMain(h) and stepSupp, we will save  $maxPoss(climbStair(15), S_0)$ .

But, only using assert/1 command keeps very narrow knowledge, i.e. only for macroactions on particular object instance and situation instances. Thinking of stairs of height 15 and 17, if we perform macro-action stepMain(15) and stepMain(17) respectively in the local initial situation  $S_0$ , we will get the same set of maxPoss regardless the difference of objects 15 and 17. Therefore, we are considering extend  $maxPossBase(L, \alpha(\vec{x}), S)$ for situation instance S and macro-action  $\alpha(\vec{x})$  with variable parameters  $\vec{x}$ , so that  $maxPossBase(L, \alpha(\vec{x}), S)$  represents a uniform fact for certain class of objects.

Without loss of generality, any system which can described in the situation calculus can have an equivalent description in the situation calculus satisfying the following condition: for every atomic sentence, definition of procedure or definition of macro-action, if it has augments that are same as the arguments of some primitive action function, then these augments have the same relative order both in the atomic sentence and in the action function. For example, suppose that in a system we have atomic sentence  $F(y_1, y_2, y_3, s)$  and action functions  $a(x_1, x_2)$  and b(x) and that according to the basic action theory we know that  $y_1$  (respectively,  $y_3, y_2$ ) represents the same object with augment  $x_1$  (respectively,  $x_2, x$ ), then the relative order of  $y_1$  and  $y_3$  (respectively, of  $y_2$ ) are same as the order of  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  (respectively, of x). Given any system  $\mathcal{D}$  satisfying above condition, we give the following definition of *ob-class* for  $\mathcal{D}$ .

**Definition 5.3** Given a system  $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D}_{S_0} \cup \mathcal{D}_{ap} \cup \mathcal{D}_{ss}$ , suppose that the set of objects in  $\mathcal{D}$  is L and the set of objects appearing in the  $\mathcal{D}_{ap} \cup \mathcal{D}_{ss}$  is  $L_1$ ,

(1) every object O in  $L_1$  is a 1-ary ob-class,

(2) for any objects  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  in set  $L \setminus L_1$  (can be the same object), we say that  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  are in the same 1-ary ob-class iff for every relational sentence  $F(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m)$  (including fluent and non-fluent) in  $\mathcal{D}_{S_0}$  where  $m \ge 1$ , we interpret any augment  $x_i$  ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ ) with  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  respectively, it is true that either both of  $O_1$  and  $_2$  do not belong to the domain of  $x_i$ , or the two interpreted sentences return the same truth value (i.e., both of the sentences  $F(x_1, x_2, \dots, O_1, \dots, x_m)$  and  $F(x_1, x_2, \dots, O_2, \dots, x_m)$  are either unsatisfiable, satisfiable, or tautological).

For any n-ary (n > 1) object vectors  $O_1 = (O_1^1, \dots, O_1^n)$ ,  $O_2 = (O_2^1, \dots, O_2^n) \in L^n$ , we say that  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  are in the same n-ary ob-class iff the following two conditions are satisfied:

- (I) for every  $i \ (1 \le i \le n)$ ,  $O_1^i$  and  $O_2^i$  are in the same 1-ary ob-class and
- (II) for every relational sentence  $F(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m)$  (including fluent and non-fluent) in  $\mathcal{D}_{S_0}$  where  $m \ge n$ , we interpret any n ordered augments  $x_{i_1}, x_{i_2}, \dots, x_{i_n}$   $(i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_n)$  in F with  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  respectively, it is true that either both of  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  do not belong to the domain of this sequence of augments, or the two interpreted sentences return the same truth value (i.e., both are either unsatisfiable, satisfiable, or tautological).

Suppose we defined an macro-action  $\alpha(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$  with body  $a_1(y_{(1,1)}, \dots, y_{(1,1_t)}); \dots;$   $a_m(y_{(m,1)}, \dots, y_{(m,m_t)})$  where every (i, j)  $(1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq i_t)$  is a natural number in [1..n] and  $(i, 1) < (i, 2) < \dots < (i, i_t)$  for every i, we say object vectors  $O_1 = (O_1^1, O_1^2, \dots, O_1^n), O_2 = (O_2^1, O_2^2, \dots, O_2^n) \in L^n$  are in the same ob-class for macro-action  $\alpha$  iff  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  are both in the domain of  $(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$ , and  $(O_1^{(i,1)}, O_1^{(i,2)}, \dots, O_1^{(i,i_t)})$ and  $(O_2^{(i,1)}, O_2^{(i,2)}, \dots, O_2^{(i,i_t)})$  are in the same  $i_t$ -ary ob-class for every i.

For instance, in the example of robot climbing stairs, we have

 $L = \{wrongPos, main, supporting\} \cup \{r | r \text{ is a non-negative real number}\},$ and  $L1 = \{wrongPos, main, supporting\},$ 

#### the set of 1-ary ob-classes is

{{wrongPos}, {main}, {supporting}, { $r|r \in \mathcal{R} \land 0 < r < 20$ }, { $r|r \in \mathcal{R} \land r \ge 20$ }, {0}}. And as an example, all the numbers greater than 0 and less than 20 are in the same ob-class for macro-action stepMain(h).

**Lemma 5.4** Given a system  $\mathcal{D}$  described in the situation calculus, suppose object vectors  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  are in the same n-ary ob-class, then for any  $S_0$ -regressable relational formula  $F(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  in  $\mathcal{L}'_{sc}$ , either both  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  are not in the domain of F's arguments, or both of them are in the domain and if we interpret the variables with  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  respectively, the formula returns the same truth value.

**Proof:** We can prove it by induction on the longest number m of primitive actions for the situations from  $S_0$  in F.

<u>Base Case:</u>  $m \leq 1$ , i.e.,  $S_0$  is the only situation in F(if any), then according to the definition of *n*-ary ob-class, it is true for all sentences in  $\mathcal{D}_{S_0}$ . Moreover, if F is of *Poss* atom,  $\mathcal{R}^*[F]$  is a formula composed of fluent or non-fluent atoms with first order connectives, therefore, it is easy to prove the proposition is true using induction on the length of  $\mathcal{R}^*[F]$ , again since  $F \equiv \mathcal{R}^*[F]$ , it is also true for F. Therefore, for general F, according to  $F \equiv \mathcal{R}^*[F]$  and the definition of the syntactic form of the formulas in  $\mathcal{L}'_{sc}$ , it is easy to see the proposition is true.

Induction Step: Suppose this proposition is true for all  $1 \leq j < m$ , now we are going to prove it for m, notice that  $\mathcal{R}^*[F(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)] = \psi_F(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  is a formula uniform in  $S_0$ , therefore according to the hypothesis and  $F \equiv \mathcal{R}^*[F]$  the proposition is true for m.

Hence, we proved the proposition for all  $m \in \mathcal{N}$ .

Therefore, according to above Lemma and the definition of ob-class, we can get the following theorem:

**Theorem 5.5** Given a system  $\mathcal{D}$  described in the situation calculus, suppose we have

a macro-action  $\alpha(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$  and situation instance S beginning from  $S_0$ , i.e.  $S = do([A_1, \dots, A_n], S_0)$ , then for any object vectors  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  which are in the same ob-class for  $\alpha$ , we have

$$maxPoss(\alpha(O_1), S) = maxPoss(\alpha(O_2), S).$$

Therefore, we can extend the maxPossBase of macro-actions in any situation instance from particular objects to ob-classes by renaming the objects in the macro-action with new variables, so that reduce the scales of the dynamic part of the knowledge base. We hereby demand that it is the controller's responsibility to provide objects in the same ob-class for macro-actions. If we need to work on objects in different ob-classes, we need to erase the former dynamic part of the knowledge base. We certainly can somehow retract the rules, but right now, to make our lifer easier, we only need to quit the running system and reload it again, since we use assert/1 command to keep the information of maxPoss. The practical implementation of the interpreter can be seen the next subsection.

### 5.1.3 The macGolog Interpreter

Other descriptions of macDo are same as stDo on other Golog constructors, therefore the full macGolog interpreter is as follows:

#### An macGolog (Macro-action Golog) Interpreter

```
macDo(nil,1,S,S):- !.
macDo(A : B,P,S1,S2) :- stochastic(A), !, % A is a stochastic action
(not (choice(A,C), poss(C,S1)), !, % Program can't continue.
S2 = S1, P = 1 ; % Create a leaf.
```

```
% once is an Eclipse Prolog built-in. once(G) succeeds the first time
 \% G succeeds, and never tries again under backtracking. We use it here
 % to prevent macDo from generating the same leaf situation more than
 % once, when poss has multiple solutions.
    choice(A,C), once(poss(C,S1)), prob0(C,A,S1,P1),
    macDo(B,P2,do([C],S1),S2), P is P1 * P2 ).
macDo(A : B,P,S1,S2) :- macro(A,A1:A2), !, % A is a macro-action
    (not (choice(A1,C), poss(C,S1)), !, % Program can't continue.
     S2 = S1, P = 1;
                                            % Create a leaf.
     maxposs(C,A,S1), probMacO(C,A,S1,P1),
     (shorter(C,A1:A2),
     P is P1, S2=do(C,S1);
                                          % Program can't continue.
      not shorter(C,A1:A2),
      macDo(B,P2,do(C,S1),S2), P is P1 * P2)).
macDo((A : B) : C,P,S1,S2) :- macDo(A : (B : C),P,S1,S2).
macDo(?(T) : A,P,S1,S2) :- holds(T,S1), !, macDo(A,P,S1,S2) ;
                           S2 = S1, P = 1. % Program can't continue.
                                           % Create a leaf.
macDo(if(T,A,B) : C,P,S1,S2) :- holds(T,S1), !, macDo(A : C,P,S1,S2) ;
                                macDo(B : C, P, S1, S2).
macDo(A : B,P,S1,S2) :- proc(A,C), macDo(C : B,P,S1,S2).
macDo(while(T,A) : B,P,S1,S2) :- holds(T,S1), !,
                                 macDo(A : while(T,A) : B,P,S1,S2) ;
                                 macDo(B,P,S1,S2).
\% shorter(C,A): list C is shorter than macro-action A
```

shorter([\_],\_:\_):- !.

shorter([\_|T], \_:A2):- shorter(T,A2).

% maxposs(C,A,S): C is an element of maxPoss(A,S)

```
maxposs(C,A,S):-
```

```
maxPossBase(List,A,S),!, % If we've computed local optimal results
member(C,List); % before, retrieve it from database
not maxPossBase(List,A,S),!, % otherwise, computed "maxposs" according
localChoice(A,V), % to the definition, and save the solution
maxposs0(List,V,S), % by asserting new rule "maxPossBase" to
generalize(A,List,A1,List1), % generate the knowledge base(dynamic part).
asserta(maxPossBase(List1,A1,S)), !,
member(C,List).
```

```
% removeSub(C,T,T1):remove every prefix of C in T.
removeSub(_,[],[]):- !.
removeSub(C,[A|T],[A|T1]):- not append(A,_,C), !, removeSub(C,T,T1).
removeSub(C,[A|T],T1):- append(A,_,C), !, removeSub(C,T,T1).
```

```
% generalize(A,List,A1,List1): replace objects in A and List with variables
% to get A and List, hence generalize the usage of knowledge to ob-class
generalize(A,List,A1,List1):-
```

A =.. [\_|P], generalize0(P,A,List,A1,List1).

```
generalize0([],A,List,A,List):- !.
generalize0([H|T],A,List,A1,List1):-
```

```
generalize1(H,_,A,List,A0,List0),
generalize0(T,A0,List0,A1,List1).
```

```
generalize1(H,G,A,List,A0,List0):-
```

```
sub(H,G,A,A0), sub_list(H,G,List,List0).
```

```
poss([A],S):- poss(A,S), !.
stochastic(A) :- choice(A,N), !.
```

```
maxPossBase([],nil,_). % special database to avoid no def. of "maxPossBase"
macro(nil,nil). % special database to avoid no def. of macro
```

```
% sub(Name,New,Term1,Term2): Term2 is Term1 with Name replaced by New.
sub(X1,X2,T1,T2) :- var(T1), T2 = T1.
sub(X1,X2,T1,T2) :- not var(T1), T1 = X1, T2 = X2.
sub(X1,X2,T1,T2) :- not T1 = X1, T1 =..[F|L1], sub_list(X1,X2,L1,L2),
T2 =..[F|L2].
```

sub\_list(X1,X2,[],[]).

sub\_list(X1,X2,[T1|L1],[T2|L2]) :- sub(X1,X2,T1,T2), sub\_list(X1,X2,L1,L2).

% The holds predicate implements the revised Lloyd-Topor % transformations on test conditions. holds(P & Q,S) :- holds(P,S), holds(Q,S). holds(P v Q,S) :- holds(P,S); holds(Q,S). holds(P => Q,S) :- holds(-P v Q,S). holds(P <=> Q,S) :- holds((P => Q) & (Q => P),S). holds(-(-P),S) :- holds(P,S). holds(-(P & Q),S) :- holds(-P v -Q,S). holds(-(P v Q),S) :- holds(-P & -Q,S).

```
holds(-(P => Q),S) :- holds(-(-P v Q),S).
holds(-(P <=> Q),S) :- holds(-((P => Q) & (Q => P)),S).
holds(-all(V,P),S) :- holds(some(V,-P),S).
holds(-some(V,P),S) :- not holds(some(V,P),S). /* negation */
holds(-P,S) :- isAtom(P), not holds(P,S). /* by failure */
holds(all(V,P),S) :- holds(-some(V,-P),S).
holds(some(V,P),S) :- holds(-some(V,-P),S).
holds(some(V,P),S) :- sub(V,_,P,P1), holds(P1,S).
holds(A,S) :- restoreSitArg(A,S,F), F ;
not restoreSitArg(A,S,F), isAtom(A), A.
isAtom(A) :- not (A = -W ; A = (W1 & W2) ; A = (W1 => W2) ;
```

 $A = (W1 \iff W2) ; A = (W1 \lor W2) ; A = some(X,W) ; A = all(X,W)).$ 

According to Theorem 5.2, Theorem 5.5, the announcement that the controller won't operate on different ob-class objects under the same dynamic knowledge base, and that we have the same description of macDo for the constructors tests, while loops, conditionals and procedures as of stDo, by using induction proof, we can easily get

**Theorem 5.6** For any situation s and any macGolog program  $\alpha$ ,

$$macDo(\alpha; nil, p, s, s') \equiv stDo(\beta; nil, p, s, s')$$

for some number p and situation s', where  $\beta$  is a stGolog program obtained by replacing every macro-action in  $\alpha$  with its body.

This is exactly what we mean not changing the function of the stGolog interpreter. We also can define the probabilities that some situation-suppressed sentence  $\psi$  will be true after executing a macGolog program  $\gamma$ :

$$probF(\psi,\gamma) \stackrel{def}{=} \sum_{\{(p,\sigma)|\mathcal{D}\models macDo(\gamma;nil,p,S_0,\sigma)\land\psi[\sigma]\}} p.$$
(5.6)

Here,  $\mathcal{D}$  stands for the background basic action theory. Notice that this definition is same as the definition given in the stGolog. The implementation is straightforward and we name the following file as *macProbF*.

### **Probabilities for macGolog Programs**

### 5.2 The Experiments and Discussion

### 5.2.1 The Experiment of the correctness

We continue to consider the example of robot climbing stairs, and suppose we have computed the knowledge base (static part) as *climbBase2* given in Chapter 4.3, the macGolog interpreter is saved as file *macGolog*, the complete specification of robot climbing stairs in Prolog clauses is saved as file *climb* (cf. Appendix D and notice its different forms from file *baseClimb* in previous chapter). We now compute some probabilities after loading all these files. Since we would like the extended axioms to have higher priorities, we will load *climbBase2* before *climb*.

#### Computing Probabilities for macGolog Programs

[eclipse 1]: [macGolog,climbBase2,climb,macProbF].

#### Chapter 5. The Reuse of the Macro-Actions

macGolg compiled optimized 17132 bytes in 0.00 seconds climbBase2 compiled optimized 99508 bytes in 0.03 seconds climb compiled optimized 11496 bytes in 0.00 seconds macProbF compiled optimized 804 bytes in 0.00 seconds

yes.

[eclipse 2]: macDo(?(legalStair(15)):stepMain(15):stepSupp:nil,P,s0,S). /cs/ai/eclipse/lib/lists.pl compiled optimized 7628 bytes in 0.00 seconds

- P = 0.130434781
- S = do([malfunc(15)], s0) More? (;)

P = 0.303685099

P = 0.0759212747

P = 0.0421784893

S = do([forwSupLegS, stepDownF(supporting)], do([liftTill(15), forwLowLegS, stepDownS(main), moveBarycenterS(main), straightLeg], s0)) More? (;)

P = 0.105446219

S = do([forwSupLegF], do([liftTill(15), forwLowLegS, stepDownS(main), moveBarycenterS(main), straightLeg], s0)) More? (;) P = 0.131807774

S = do([liftTill(15), forwLowLegS, stepDownS(main), moveBarycenterF(main)], s0) More? (;)

P = 0.0732265413

S = do([liftTill(15), forwLowLegS, stepDownF(main)], s0) More? (;)

P = 0.137299761

S = do([liftTill(15), forwLowLegF], s0) More? (;)

no (more) solution.

```
[eclipse 3]: probF(true,stepMain(15):stepSupp,P).
```

P = 0.999999881 More? (;)

no (more) solution.

```
[eclipse 4]: macDo(stepMain(17):forwSupLeg:nil,P,s0,S).
```

P = 0.145299152

S = do([malfunc(17)], s0) More? (;)

P = 0.406027

S = do([forwSupLegS], do([liftTill(17), forwLowLegS, stepDownS(main), moveBarycenterS(main), straightLeg], s0)) More? (;)

P = 0.101506747

S = do([forwSupLegF], do([liftTill(17), forwLowLegS, stepDownS(main), moveBarycenterS(main), straightLeg], s0)) More? (;)

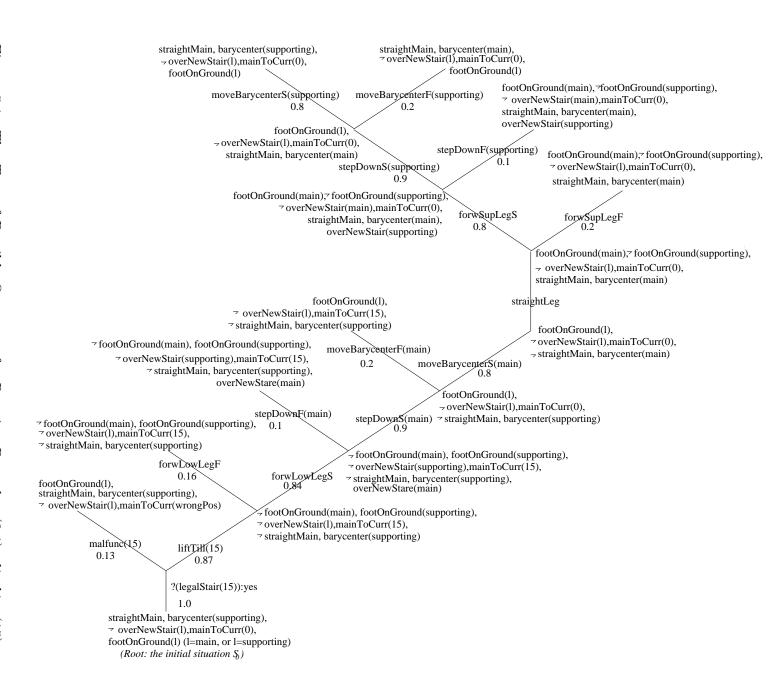
```
P = 0.126883432
S = do([liftTill(17), forwLowLegS, stepDownS(main),
    moveBarycenterF(main)], s0) More? (;)
P = 0.0704907924
S = do([liftTill(17), forwLowLegS, stepDownF(main)], s0) More? (;)
P = 0.149792925
S = do([liftTill(17), forwLowLegF], s0) More? (;)
no (more) solution.
[eclipse 5]: probF(overNewStair(main),stepMain(17):forwSupLeg,P).
P = 0.0704907924 More? (;)
```

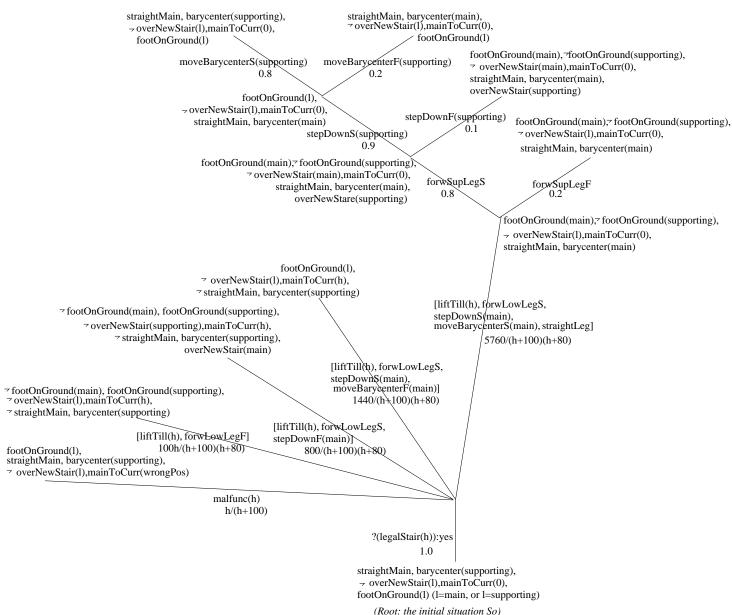
no (more) solution.

We also ran these examples under stGolog interpreter by replacing the macro-actions with their bodies and viewing them as stGolog programs. We get the same probabilities in the same situations. As to the example, we can see that our macGolog interpreter works well and has the same function as the stGolog interpreter. But what is the benefit of using the macGolog interpreter over macro-actions? As we discussed before, we are focusing on the class of problems that we expect the agent to perform the same (or even part of the same) strategies or programs repeatedly when it is in the same local environment as we discussed in Chapter 3.1. For instance, in above robot climbing stairs example, if we perform the *climbing*(h) procedure repeatedly for legal stairs of height hprovided that the controller can reset the robot's status to be same as initial situation (we call it local initial situation) when malfunction occurs after performing the climbing(h) procedure or that there is no malfunction occurs, i.e., the robot performs the climbing(h) procedure successfully, it will "forget" what it performed, (might somehow count the stairs first, which is not necessary), and reset its own situation to be the local initial situation. If we use the stGolog interpreter to compute the probabilities of the outcomes every time the agent calls the climbing(h) procedure in the local initial situation, then one branch of the following computational tree (e.g. Figure 5.1) is always gone through step by step, which is time-consuming.

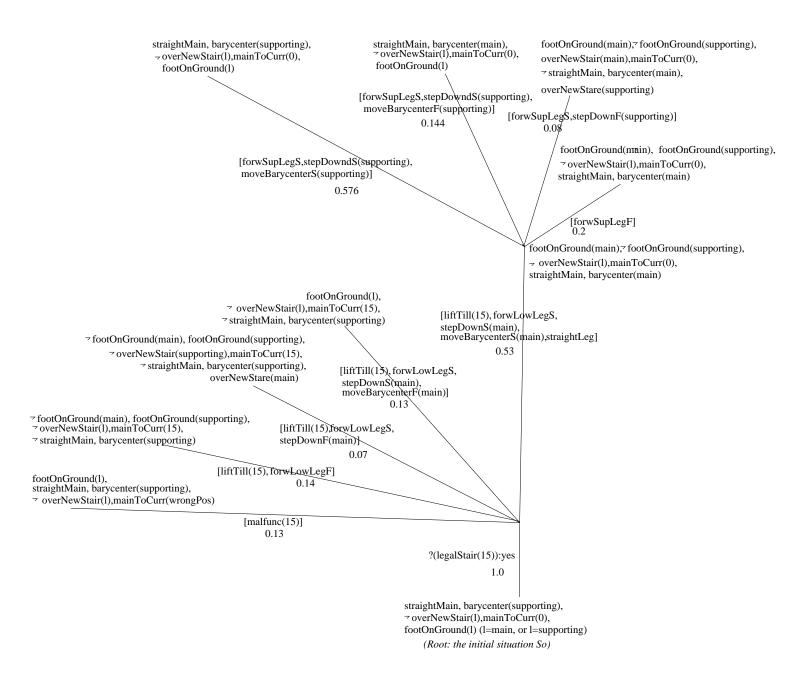
If we introduce macro-actions stepMain(h) and stepSupp as (3.3) and (3.4) in Chapter 3, then procedure climbing(h) can be represented as (3.5). By using macGolog interpreter to get the probabilities of the deterministic performance every time the agent calls the climbing(h) for legal stairs of height h in the local initial situation, except the first time in which we need to compute all the probabilities step by step and the computational tree looks like Figure 5.1. Other times when we recall the procedure in the local situation, the computational tree of probabilistic outcomes looks like Figure 5.2, even can be as shorter as the following tree (c.f Figure 5.3) if the stair of height H(instant number) has been climbed before.

If we consider to define macro-action as climbStair(h)(3.6) in chapter 3, the recall of procedure(3.7) climbing(h) for any stairs of legal height would have even shorter outcome tree (only with 2 steps). Therefore, regardless the scales of the knowledge base, the computational time of reusing macro-actions is smaller than not using macro-actions.





 $\frac{7}{8}$ 



#### 5.2.2**Experiments of Comparison**

But, in practice, the scales of the knowledge base will affect the computational time. To make detailed observation and discussion, we did different tests for different cases of whether or not using macro-actions, and how to define macro-actions over the various environments of whether the stairs' heights change frequently. To make our life easier, in the experiments we did not describe the behaviors of the step-in by the controller or the reset actions by the robot, but only abstracted them to be simply resetting the situation to  $S_0$  after calling the climbing procedure every time, because currently we only want to concentrate on checking if the reuse of macro-actions really saves time in a long run.

We denote procedure(3.5) climbing(h) defined with two macro-actions as Exp.1, denote procedure (3.7) climbing(h) defined with one macro-action as Exp.2 supposing that we've developed the static parts of the knowledge bases for *Exp.1* and *Exp.2* respectively, and denote procedure(3.1) climbing(h) running under the stGolog interpreter as Exp.3. By the way, comparing with the time of reusing macro-actions, the time of developing static part is fixed and much smaller. For instance, in the example of Robot Climbing Stairs it only takes CPU time 0.01 seconds to obtain *climbBase1* and *climbBase2* for macro-actions (3.3) and (3.4), suppose we will reuse these two macro-actions for n times, we have  $\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{0.01}{n} = 0$ . Therefore, we will ignore it and concentrate on the experiments of applications of using and reusing macro-actions. Notice that the definition probF could gather all the possible outcomes for a program, therefore, we used it to do the tests. For the purpose of simulating the frequency of the change of the stairs' heights, we gave following five tests:

#### Five Tests in Prolog

% test1: All N stairs are of the same height.

test1(N,T):- cputime(T1), test0(N), cputime(T2), T is T2-T1.

% test3: There are at most 50 different heights for the N stairs. test3(N,T):- cputime(T1), test03(N), cputime(T2), T is T2-T1. test03(0):-!.

test03(N):- N>0, !, mod(N,50, H), H1 is 5+H/4,

probF(true, climbing(H1), \_), N1 is N-1, test03(N1).

```
% test4: There are at most 800 different heights for the N stairs.
test4(N,T):- cputime(T1), test04(N), cputime(T2), T is T2-T1.
test04(0):-!.
test04(N):- N>0, !, mod(N,800, H), H1 is 1+H/50,
```

probF(true, climbing(H1), \_), N1 is N-1, test04(N1).

Clearly, from test suit *test1* to test suit *test5* the change of the stairs' heights becomes

more and more frequently. We run procedure Exp.1 (Exp.2 and Exp.3 respectively) on each of the five test suits for values of N from 100 to 2000 with a step-size of 100 and repeat it five times for every value of N to get the CPU time T for each trial. The CPU times presented in the following Table 5.1 (respectively, Table 5.2 and Table 5.3) are the average over the five distinct trials (to reduce the measurement error) with unit *second*:

| N    | test1 | test2 | test3 | test4 | test5  |
|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------|
| 100  | 0.050 | 0.066 | 0.116 | 0.184 | 0.188  |
| 200  | 0.106 | 0.112 | 0.168 | 0.416 | 0.402  |
| 300  | 0.148 | 0.162 | 0.216 | 0.688 | 0.678  |
| 400  | 0.198 | 0.200 | 0.276 | 1.024 | 0.992  |
| 500  | 0.238 | 0.258 | 0.318 | 1.376 | 1.372  |
| 600  | 0.270 | 0.296 | 0.380 | 1.866 | 1.810  |
| 700  | 0.326 | 0.340 | 0.436 | 2.354 | 2.286  |
| 800  | 0.378 | 0.382 | 0.464 | 2.910 | 2.802  |
| 900  | 0.430 | 0.424 | 0.516 | 3.098 | 3.404  |
| 1000 | 0.466 | 0.470 | 0.572 | 3.374 | 4.028  |
| 1100 | 0.514 | 0.514 | 0.620 | 3.586 | 4.704  |
| 1200 | 0.578 | 0.560 | 0.674 | 3.806 | 5.496  |
| 1300 | 0.582 | 0.614 | 0.718 | 3.898 | 6.274  |
| 1400 | 0.626 | 0.648 | 0.778 | 4.078 | 7.164  |
| 1500 | 0.682 | 0.716 | 0.838 | 4.198 | 8.144  |
| 1600 | 0.728 | 0.736 | 0.904 | 4.312 | 9.006  |
| 1700 | 0.742 | 0.774 | 0.942 | 4.532 | 10.174 |
| 1800 | 0.800 | 0.848 | 0.968 | 4.640 | 11.104 |
| 1900 | 0.856 | 0.876 | 1.050 | 4.740 | 12.272 |
| 2000 | 0.912 | 0.918 | 1.092 | 4.882 | 13.508 |

Table 5.1: Experiment Results of Computational Time for Exp.1

| Ν    | test1 | test2 | test3 | test4 | test5 |
|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 100  | 0.078 | 0.078 | 0.084 | 0.080 | 0.078 |
| 200  | 0.138 | 0.136 | 0.142 | 0.146 | 0.146 |
| 300  | 0.200 | 0.210 | 0.204 | 0.210 | 0.208 |
| 400  | 0.270 | 0.270 | 0.272 | 0.282 | 0.274 |
| 500  | 0.330 | 0.344 | 0.340 | 0.340 | 0.338 |
| 600  | 0.390 | 0.400 | 0.402 | 0.406 | 0.398 |
| 700  | 0.458 | 0.464 | 0.470 | 0.470 | 0.466 |
| 800  | 0.520 | 0.528 | 0.538 | 0.530 | 0.536 |
| 900  | 0.588 | 0.588 | 0.600 | 0.600 | 0.594 |
| 1000 | 0.654 | 0.656 | 0.658 | 0.660 | 0.664 |
| 1100 | 0.726 | 0.720 | 0.726 | 0.722 | 0.722 |
| 1200 | 0.774 | 0.792 | 0.788 | 0.794 | 0.790 |
| 1300 | 0.846 | 0.848 | 0.856 | 0.862 | 0.854 |
| 1400 | 0.908 | 0.910 | 0.932 | 0.922 | 0.924 |
| 1500 | 0.968 | 0.967 | 0.984 | 0.984 | 0.980 |
| 1600 | 1.034 | 1.038 | 1.058 | 1.058 | 1.048 |
| 1700 | 1.098 | 1.102 | 1.116 | 1.114 | 1.108 |
| 1800 | 1.164 | 1.182 | 1.170 | 1.182 | 1.180 |
| 1900 | 1.232 | 1.228 | 1.266 | 1.254 | 1.250 |
| 2000 | 1.304 | 1.292 | 1.340 | 1.318 | 1.300 |

Table 5.2: Experiment Results of Computational Time for  ${\it Exp.2}$ 

| N    | test1 | test2 | test3 | test4 | test5 |
|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 100  | 0.105 | 0.092 | 0.090 | 0.094 | 0.094 |
| 200  | 0.202 | 0.176 | 0.182 | 0.178 | 0.182 |
| 300  | 0.280 | 0.266 | 0.268 | 0.266 | 0.268 |
| 400  | 0.378 | 0.342 | 0.356 | 0.350 | 0.360 |
| 500  | 0.468 | 0.440 | 0.438 | 0.434 | 0.450 |
| 600  | 0.550 | 0.520 | 0.530 | 0.520 | 0.532 |
| 700  | 0.638 | 0.618 | 0.616 | 0.612 | 0.624 |
| 800  | 0.754 | 0.694 | 0.700 | 0.688 | 0.698 |
| 900  | 0.820 | 0.790 | 0.770 | 0.780 | 0.798 |
| 1000 | 0.926 | 0.902 | 0.868 | 0.874 | 0.876 |
| 1100 | 1.048 | 0.986 | 0.962 | 0.968 | 0.968 |
| 1200 | 1.078 | 1.068 | 1.046 | 1.044 | 1.038 |
| 1300 | 1.164 | 1.130 | 1.144 | 1.124 | 1.154 |
| 1400 | 1.344 | 1.222 | 1.192 | 1.224 | 1.244 |
| 1500 | 1.406 | 1.316 | 1.292 | 1.332 | 1.330 |
| 1600 | 1.484 | 1.402 | 1.384 | 1.376 | 1.398 |
| 1700 | 1.526 | 1.550 | 1.476 | 1.486 | 1.498 |
| 1800 | 1.606 | 1.610 | 1.562 | 1.618 | 1.592 |
| 1900 | 1.742 | 1.684 | 1.642 | 1.650 | 1.646 |
| 2000 | 1.798 | 1.726 | 1.760 | 1.714 | 1.758 |

Table 5.3: Experiment Results of Computational Time for Exp.3

First of all, we look at the three tables separately. In Table 5.1, the computational time grows pretty stable for *test1*, *test2* and *test3* from N = 100 to N = 2000, but for *test4* and *test5*, the computational time grows very fast. The reason is that the stairs' heights change very often and the agent itself can only recognize exactly the same situation for

macro-actions, therefore, for the similar situations like

$$do([liftTill(h), forwLowLegS, stepDownS(main), moveBarycenterS(main), straightLeg], s_0)$$
(5.7)

when h changes, the agent has to develop and store the new maxPossBase for macroaction stepSupp in the situation instance. Hence, the more the different values of h have, the bigger the dynamic part of the knowledge base is, and the larger the time is to be consumed on finding all the possibilities of outcomes. In Table 5.2, we observed that the increasing of the computational time is very stable and almost the same for the five tests, that is to say, the change of the stair height doesn't affect the computational time. Analyzing the macro-action for procedure(3.7) climbing(h), we found that since for all the legal stairs' heights, they are in the same ob-class for macro-action climbStair(h), therefore, in the dynamic part of its knowledge base, the agent only need to keep one fact of maxPossBase for macro-action climbStair(h) in the situation  $S_0$  and this part won't change with the changing of height h. In Table 5.3, since there is no knowledge base at all for the stGolog, the changing of the stairs' heights certainly won't affect the computational time at all.

Secondly, we compare the three tables vertically. It is easy to see that the results in Exp.2 is always better than in Exp.3 for every test, and Exp.1 has much better results than both Exp.2 and Exp.3 for test1, test2 and test3 when N becomes larger. The reason is that for the first three tests, we don't change the stairs' heights very often and moreover the relative frequency of the change of the stairs' heights to the number of the stairs N becomes even smaller when N becomes larger. But for test4 and test5, Exp.2 and Exp.3 have much better results than Exp.1. The reason is very clear – the growth of the size of the dynamic part of the knowledge base consumes the time tremendously. Therefore, when the stair's height h changes very often, either Exp.2 or Exp.3 would be a better choice.

At last, comparing the three tables horizontally, especially for test1, test2 and test3, it is easy to see Exp.1 is a better choice. Analyzing the reason why Exp.2 is not as competitive as Exp.1 for the former three tests, we find that the maximal length of the macro-actions in Exp.1 is much shorter than that of the macro-actions in Exp.2. According to the development of the static part of a knowledge base, Exp.1 contains much less extended successor state axioms, therefore has smaller static part. Hence, when the dynamic part of the knowledge base is relatively stable, we would prefer to define short macro-actions.

### 5.2.3 Summary: the Benefits and the Limitations

After above discussion, we can clearly see the computational benefit of using macroactions. Moreover, we somehow make the agent have some "memories", therefore can keep its "experience". The limitations of using macro-actions, especially under our current implementation, the duty of the controllers becomes heavier. It is the controller's responsibility to choose proper macro-actions and to make sure to change the dynamic part of the knowledge base when objects of different ob-classes for certain macro-actions occur. Finally, up till now, the agent can not be aware of similar local situations like (5.7) for different h's, to which the reuse of the macro-actions might also can be extended in our imagination. This limitations might open a door for part of our future work.

### Chapter 6

### **Conclusions and Future Work**

To make the autonomous agents perform more and more intelligently is always a goal for the AI researchers. In this paper, under the background of uncertainty systems, we introduced a concept of macro-action based on the existing complex Golog sequential action constructor, extended the basic action theories with macro-actions, defined an extended regression operator to help us to develop the knowledge base for the macro-actions in advance and later use the saved knowledges in application. Therefore, we somehow partially simulate the behaviors that the agents can learn knowledge in advance, keep the experience and later retrieve the existing experience when they meet the same situation. For implementation of developing the static part of a knowledge base, a program named *developer* was established. We also gave an interpreter named *macGolog* which was modified from the stGolog interpreter on the purpose of using and reusing the macro-actions with their knowledge base for a system. We discussed the advantages and limitations of introducing macro-actions into uncertainty systems, and concluded that the reuse of macro-actions can bring us computational benefit under the condition that the agent is in an environment that it needs to perform similar works in same local situations.

We certainly must mention the fountainhead of the idea of introducing macro-actions. This idea is adopted from using and reusing local policies [8] in solving the hybrid Markov Decision Processes(hybrid MDPs)[8, 13, 21, 32] in the decision-making theory. Although we did not have chance to go that far to try to solve hybrid MDPs in high-level programming language yet, the researchers have begun their work on solving the MDPs and first-order MDPs in the situation calculus [4, 3].

There are many aspects remain open and are interesting to pursue in the near future.

- 1. There are several things can be improved during our implementation of using and reusing of macro-actions. First of all, we only assume that the agent can somehow switch to the local initial situations, and in the experiments we achieved this only by reseting the situations according to the controller's commands. To make the modeled systems more practical and more expressive, we may consider describing the exogenous interrupt actions by the controllers, or we may can set sensors for the autonomous agents so that they can switch the situations themselves once they sense some particular signals. Second, since we only focus on local situations, the agent will "forget" its former choices and performance of deterministic actions when the situation is reset. In later work, we may consider to somehow keep the former histories, therefore, we can also have global information and histories of reusing macro-actions if the agent or the controllers would prefer to.
- 2. As we discussed in previous chapter, the agent can only recognize the exact situations for reusing macro-action on the objects in same ob-class. And we observed that the situations like (5.7) for different h are very similar (actually can be viewed as local initial situations for macro-action stepSupp). In the future, we would like to do research on how to make the robot aware of these kinds of similar situations, so that we can reduce the size of the dynamic part of the knowledge base. Moreover, the solving of this question may even lead to the solutions of keeping the global histories of re-performing macGolog programs.
- 3. We also mentioned that our idea is adopted from the using of local policies in solving

hybrid MDPs. On the other hand, we are interested in studying the common and different characters of macro-actions in the this paper and the local policies in the MDPs, and consider the possibilities of solving hybrid MDPs by using the high-level programming languages like the situation calculus.

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## Appendix A

The following represents the stGolog interpreter given in [28] Chapter 12.

```
An stGolog Interpreter
:- set_flag(print_depth,100).
:- nodbgcomp.
:- dynamic(proc/2).
                              % Compiler directives. Be sure
:- set_flag(all_dynamic, on). % that you load this file first!
:- op(800, xfy, [&]). % Conjunction
:- op(850, xfy, [v]). % Disjunction
:- op(870, xfy, [=>]). % Implication
:- op(880,xfy, [<=>]). % Equivalence
:- op(950, xfy, [:]). % Action sequence
stDo(nil,1,S,S).
stDo(A : B,P,S1,S2) :- stochastic(A),
   (not (choice(A,C), poss(C,S1)), !, % Program can't continue.
   S2 = S1, P = 1;
                                       % Create a leaf.
 % once is an Eclipse Prolog built-in. once(G) succeeds the first time
 \% G succeeds, and never tries again under backtracking. We use it here
 \% to prevent stDo from generating the same leaf situation more than
```

% once, when poss has multiple solutions. choice(A,C), once(poss(C,S1)), prob(C,A,S1,P1), stDo(B,P2,do(C,S1),S2), P is P1 \* P2 ). stDo((A : B) : C,P,S1,S2) :- stDo(A : (B : C),P,S1,S2). stDo(?(T) : A,P,S1,S2) :- holds(T,S1), !, stDo(A,P,S1,S2) ; S2 = S1, P = 1. % Program can't continue. % Create a leaf. stDo(if(T,A,B) : C,P,S1,S2) :- holds(T,S1), !, stDo(A : C,P,S1,S2) ; stDo(B : C,P,S1,S2). stDo(A : B,P,S1,S2) :- proc(A,C), stDo(C : B,P,S1,S2). stDo(while(T,A) : B,P,S1,S2) :- holds(T,S1), !, stDo(A : while(T,A) : B,P,S1,S2) ; stDo(B,P,S1,S2).

prob(C,A,S,P) :- choice(A,C), poss(C,S), !, prob0(C,A,S,P); P = 0.0.

stochastic(A) :- choice(A,N), !.

sub(X1,X2,T1,T2) :- var(T1), T2 = T1. sub(X1,X2,T1,T2) :- not var(T1), T1 = X1, T2 = X2. sub(X1,X2,T1,T2) :- not T1 = X1, T1 =..[F|L1], sub\_list(X1,X2,L1,L2), T2 =..[F|L2].

sub\_list(X1,X2,[],[]).

sub\_list(X1,X2,[T1|L1],[T2|L2]) :- sub(X1,X2,T1,T2), sub\_list(X1,X2,L1,L2).

/\* The holds predicate implements the revised Lloyd-Topor transformations on test conditions. \*/

holds(P & Q,S) :- holds(P,S), holds(Q,S).

holds(P v Q,S) := holds(P,S); holds(Q,S). holds(P => Q,S) := holds(-P v Q,S). holds(P <=> Q,S) := holds((P => Q) & (Q => P),S). holds(-(-P),S) := holds(P,S). holds(-(P & Q),S) := holds(-P v -Q,S). holds(-(P v Q),S) := holds(-P & -Q,S). holds(-(P => Q),S) := holds(-(-P v Q),S). holds(-(P <=> Q),S) := holds(-((P => Q) & (Q => P)),S). holds(-all(V,P),S) := holds(some(V,-P),S). holds(-some(V,P),S) := not holds(some(V,P),S). /\* Negation \*/ holds(-P,S) := isAtom(P), not holds(P,S). /\* by failure \*/ holds(all(V,P),S) := holds(-some(V,-P),S). holds(some(V,P),S) := sub(V,\_,P,P1), holds(P1,S).

/\* The following clause treats the holds predicate for non fluents, including
Prolog system predicates. For this to work properly, the Golog programmer
must provide, for all fluents, a clause giving the result of restoring
situation arguments to situation-suppressed terms, for example:
 restoreSitArg(ontable(X),S,ontable(X,S)). \*/

holds(A,S) :- restoreSitArg(A,S,F), F ;

not restoreSitArg(A,S,F), isAtom(A), A.

isAtom(A) :- not (A = -W ; A = (W1 & W2) ; A = (W1 => W2) ; A = (W1 <=> W2) ; A = (W1 v W2) ; A = some(X,W) ; A = all(X,W)).

restoreSitArg(poss(A),S,poss(A,S)).

### Appendix B

Since the concept of *uniform* ([28] Definition 4.4.1) appears in the literature frequently, to make it easy for the readers, we present the definition in this appendix, and also give sample proof that the regression of *s*-regressable formula is uniform in *s*.

**Definition** Uniform Formulas ([28] Definition 4.4.1)

Let  $\sigma$  be a term of sort situation. Inductively define the concept of a term of  $\mathcal{L}_{sc}$  that is uniform in  $\sigma$  as follows:

- 1. Any term that does not mention a term of sort situation is uniform in  $\sigma$ .
- 2. If g is an n-ary non-fluent function symbol, and  $t_1, \dots, t_n$  are terms that are uniform in  $\sigma$  and whose sorts are appropriate for g, then  $g(t_1, \dots, t_n)$  is uniform in  $\sigma$ .
- 3. If f is an (n + 1)-ary functional fluent symbol, and  $t_1, \dots, t_n$  are terms that are uniform in  $\sigma$  and whose sorts are appropriate for f, then  $f(t_1, \dots, t_n, \sigma)$  is uniform in  $\sigma$ .

The formulas of  $\mathcal{L}_{sc}$  that are uniform in  $\sigma$  are inductively defined by:

- 1. Any formula that does not mention a term of sort situation is uniform in  $\sigma$ .
- 2. When F is an (n + 1)-ary relational fluent symbol, and  $t_1, \dots, t_n$  are terms that are uniform in  $\sigma$  and whose sorts are appropriate for F, then  $F(t_1, \dots, t_n, \sigma)$  is uniform in  $\sigma$ .
- 3. If  $U_1$  and  $U_2$  are formulas uniform in  $\sigma$ , so are  $\neg U_1$ ,  $U_1 \wedge U_2$  and  $(\exists v)U_1$  provided that v is a variable not of sort situation.

**Property 1.** Suppose s is either  $S_0$  or a variable of sort situation and the regression operator  $\mathcal{R}$  is defined as Definition 3.6 in Chapter 3, for any s-regressable formula W in  $\mathcal{L}_{sc}$ , we have  $\mathcal{R}[W]$  is a formula uniform in s.

**Proof:** It can be proved by induction on the maximal length n of all the logs  $[a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m]$  satisfying  $do([a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m], s)$  in formula W (since n is the maximal length, we have  $m \leq n$ ).

<u>Base Case:</u> n = 0, i.e. s is the only term of sort situation (if any) in W, then according to the definition of  $\mathcal{R}$ ,  $\mathcal{R}[W] = W$  which is definitely uniform in s.

Induction Steps: Let k be some arbitrary natural number, and suppose the proposition is true for all n such that  $0 \le n \le k$ , now we are going to prove it is true for n = k + 1.

According to the recursive definition of  $\mathcal{R}$  when W is not atomic, it is sufficient to prove the proposition for atoms that include logs of length n = k + 1, since for all other atoms that include logs no longer than k, their regression results are uniform in saccording to the hypothesis. Atoms that include logs of length n = k + 1 appear to have three cases:

- (a) the atom is a relational fluent  $F(\vec{x}, do([a_1, a_2, \cdots, a_{k+1}], s));$
- (b) the atom is a functional fluent  $g(\vec{x}, do([a_1, a_2, \cdots, a_{k+1}], s));$  or
- (c) the atom is of form  $Poss(\vec{x}, do([a_1, \cdots, a_{k+1}], s))$ . For case (a), suppose F's successor state axiom in  $\mathcal{D}_{ss}$  be

$$F(\vec{t}, do(a, s_1)) \equiv \Phi_F(\vec{t}, a, s_1) .$$

Without loss of generality, assume that all quantifiers (if any) of  $\Phi_F(\vec{t}, a, s_1)$  have had their quantified variables renamed to be distinct from the free variables (if any) of  $F(\vec{x}, do([a_1, a_2, \cdots, a_{k+1}], s))$ . Then

$$\mathcal{R}[F(\vec{x}, do([a_1, a_2, \cdots, a_{k+1}], s))]$$
  
=  $\mathcal{R}[\Phi_F(\vec{x}, a_{k+1}, do([a_1, a_2, \cdots, a_k], s))]$   
=  $\Phi'_F(\vec{x}, s)$  for some  $\Phi'_F$ ,

where  $\Phi'_F(\vec{x}, s)$  is uniform in *s* according to the hypothesis. for the other two cases, the proof is similar according to the definition of  $\mathcal{R}$ .

Therefore, we proved for any s-regressable formula W in  $\mathcal{L}_{sc}$ ,  $\mathcal{R}[W]$  is uniform in s.

Similarly, we can prove following property for the extended operator  $\mathcal{R}^*$  by using induction proof.

**Property 2.** Suppose s is either  $S_0$  or a variable of sort situation, the regression operator  $\mathcal{R}^*$  is defined as Definition 4.2 in Chapter 4, for any s-regressable formula W in  $\mathcal{L}'_{sc}$ , we have  $\mathcal{R}^*[W]$  is a formula uniform in s.

# Appendix C

The following represents the implementation of the developer of the knowledge base(static part) in Prolog.

### The Developer in Prolog

% We assume that only variable S is used for representing current situation % in this program, and S is not used for other attribution

- :- set\_flag(print\_depth,100).
- :- set\_flag(all\_dynamic, on).
- :- op(900,xfy,[==>]). % Simplification Rules.
- :- op(800, xfy, [&]). % Conjunction
- :- op(850, xfy, [v]). % Disjunction
- :- op(870, xfy, [=>]). % Implication
- :- op(880,xfy, [<=>]). % Equivalence
- :- op(950, xfy, [:]). % Action sequence

#### 

%% The Following part includes the main program of developer

```
kbDeveloper(L,File1,File2):-
```

currentMaxLength(N1), % get current maximal length of macro-actions newMaxLength(L, N2), % get the maximal length of new macro-actions outputMac(L, File1, File2), (N1 < N2, 1 < N1, !, addSSA(N1,N2,File1,File2); % add new extended successor state axioms N1 < N2, N1 =< 1, !, addSSA(1,N2,File1,File2); N1 >= N2, !), addPoss(L,File1,File2), % add new extended preconditions localPossProb(L,File2). % add new localChoice and probMac\_0

```
newMaxLength(L, N):- setof(M, A^B^(member([A,B],L),seqLength(B,M)), MS),
maxElement(MS,N).
```

% addSSA(N1,N2,File1,File2): compute the new extended successor state % axioms for actions from length N1+1 to N2, and record the results % into File1 and File2.

addSSA2(T,Actions,T1).

% addPoss(L,File1, File2): add extend precondition axioms for new sequences of % deterministic actions; moreover, record the list of deterministic sequences, % whose extended precondition axioms has been recorded into File2, into File1 % so that we can avoid duplication later while calling developer again.

```
addPoss(L,File1,File2):- addPoss0(L,Result1, Result2),
```

removeFalse(Result1,Result3), printApp(Result3,File2),

(not Result2 = [], !, printComputed(Result2,File1); Result2 = [], !).
removeFalse([],[]):- ! .

removeFalse([[\_,false]|T],T1):- removeFalse(T,T1).

```
removeFalse([[A,B]|T],[[A,B]|T1]):- not B = false, !, removeFalse(T,T1).
```

extPoss(B,R1,R2):- setof(Act,

```
N^(choiceMac(B,Act),seqLength(B,N),length(Act,N)), List),
extPoss0(List,R1,R2).
```

extPoss1(A,[H|T],R1,R2):- A=[], !, append(A,[H],A1),

extPoss1(A1,T,R1,R2).

extPoss1(A,[H|T],R1,R2):- not A=[], append(A,[H],A1),

| <pre>computedBefore(List),</pre> | % If poss(A1,S) has computed before  |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| <pre>member(A1,List), !,</pre>   | % this time of calling developer,    |
| <pre>regression(A1,A,H,_),</pre> | % don't record the regression result |
| <pre>extPoss1(A1,T,R1,R2).</pre> | % into File2.                        |

extPoss1(A,[H|T],R1,R2):- not A=[], append(A,[H],A1),

| poss(A1,_) <=> _ , !,            | % If poss(A1,S) has computed this time for  |
|----------------------------------|---|
| <pre>extPoss1(A1,T,R1,R2).</pre> | % other macro-actions, don't compute again. |

```
extPoss1(A, [H|T], [D|L1], [A1|M1]):- not A=[], append(A, [H], A1),
not (computedBefore(List), member(A1,List);
poss(A1,_) <=> _ ), !, % Otherwise,
regression(A1,A,H,D), extPoss1(A1,T,L1,M1). % compute and record.
```

% localPossProb(L,File2): gather the deterministic choices of macro-action % which is possible at situation S, compute regression results for macProb0, % and output to database File2.

```
localPossProb(L,File2):- localPossProb0(L,Result1,Result2),
```

printLocal(Result1,File2), printApp(Result2,File2).

localPossProb0([],[],[]):- !.

localPossProb0([[N,B]|T], [[N,AS1]|L1],R):- localPossProb0(T,L1,R1),

```
setof(A, S^(choiceMac(B,A),once((length(A,1); not poss(A,S) <=> false))),
AS),
```

reverse(AS,AS1), % make list arranged from longest to shortest macProbActionO(AS,N,R2), append(R2,R1,R).

```
macProbAction0([],_,[]):- !.
```

```
macProbActionO([A|T],N,[R|T1]):- regression(probMacO(A,N,S,Pr), R),
macProbActionO(T,N,T1).
```

% recursive definition of choiceMac, to check whether a sequence of % deterministic actions is a nature's choice of certain macro-action.

```
choiceMac(A1:A2,[C1|C2]):- choice(A1,C1), choiceMac(A2,C2).
choiceMac(A:_,[C]):- choice(A,C).
choiceMac(A,[C]):- choice(A,C).
```

```
% compute the length of macro-action,
seqLength(A,1) :- not A =.. [:|_], !.
seqLength(_:B,N) :- seqLength(B,N1), N is N1+1.
```

```
% special database to avoid no definitions of "macro" and "computedBefore"
% at initial situation.
macro(nil, nil).
computedBefore([]).
```

regression(F,A,[F1,R]):- restoreSitArg(F,do(A,S),F1),

```
lastElement(A,M1), formerActions(M0,[M1],A),
restoreSitArg(F,do([M1],do(M0,S)),F2),
regress1(F2,R), asserta((F1 <=> R)). % for extended successor state
regression(F,[F,R]):- regress2(F,R). % for probabilities probMac_0
regression(A1,A,H,[poss(A1,S),D1]):- % for extended preconditions
regress1(poss(H,do(A,S)), C1),
(length(A,1), !, member(M,A), poss(M,S) <=> R1;
not length(A,1), !, member(M,A), poss(M,S) <=> R1;
not length(A,1), !, poss(A,S) <=> R1),
(R1 = true, !, D1 = true;
R1 = false, !, D1 = false;
not (R1 = true; R1 = false), !,simplify(R1 & C1, D1)),
asserta((poss(A1,S) <=> D1)).
```

lastElement([E],E):- !.
lastElement([\_|B],E):-lastElement(B,E).

formerActions(A,B,C):- append(A,B,C).

```
regress2(probMacO([C],A,S,Pr),R):- length([C],1), !, getAction(A,1,A1),
    regress1(probO(C,A1,S,Pr),R), asserta(probMacO([C],A,S,Pr) <=> R).
regress2(probMacO(C,A,S,Pr),R):- length(C,N), N>1, !,
    lastElement(C,C1), formerActions(C2,[C1],C),
    getAction(A,N,AN), probMacO(C2,A,S,Pr1) <=> R1,
    regress1(probO(C1,AN,do(C2,S),Pr2), R2),
    simplify(R1 & R2 & (Pr is Pr1 * Pr2),R),
    asserta(probMacO(C,A,S,Pr) <=> R).
```

% get the Nth primitive action E in a sequence of actions A

```
getAction(A,N,E):- macro(A,B), !, getStochastic(B,N,E).
getAction(A:B,N,E):- getStochastic(A:B,N,E).
```

```
% regress1(A,R): for term A, if A atom, and of form f(...,do(...,S)),
% we will find out the rule whose head matches A,
% and we will rename the quantified variable in the rule,
% then get the equivalent formula for A and
% do regression on the equivalent formula to get R.
```

regress1(A,R):-

```
matching(A,Head), Head <=> Body, quant(Head, Body,LV12),
term_variables(A, LA), sameVar(LV12, LA, LV2),
(LV2=[], !, A <=> Body1;
not LV2=[], !, term_variables([A,Body],LV1),
genNew(LV2,LV1,New), % generate new variables
rename(LV2,New,Body,BodyR),
retract(Head <=> Body), asserta(Head <=> BodyR), A <=> Body1),
simplify(Body1,Body2), regress(Body2,R).
```

sameVar(\_, [], []):- !.
sameVar(A,[M|T],[M|T1]):- not newVar(M,A), !, sameVar(A,T,T1).
sameVar(A,[M|T],T1):- newVar(M,A), !, sameVar(A,T,T1).

```
regress(P & Q, R) :- regress(P,R1),
```

(R1 = false, R = false, !; regress(Q,R2), simplify(R1 & R2,R)).
regress(P v Q, R) :- regress(P,R1),

```
(R1 = true, R = true, !; regress(Q,R2), simplify(R1 v R2,R)).
regress(-P,R) :- regress(P,R1), simplify(-R1,R).
regress(A,R):- isAtom(A), not onlyS(A), A <=> _, !, regress1(A,R).
```

regress(A,R):-isAtom(A), (not  $A \iff _; onlyS(A)$ ), !, R = A.

```
isAtom(A) :- not (A = -W; A = (W1 & W2); A = (W1 => W2);
A = (W1 <=> W2); A = (W1 v W2); A = some(X,W); A = all(X,W)).
```

```
% onlyS(A): last augment of term A is current situation S.
onlyS(A):- functor(A,_,N), N>0, !, arg(N,A,Sit),
    get_var_info(Sit,name, R), R = 'S'.
```

% find the head of the rule which matches A

matching(A,Head):- functor(A,F,M),

findall(B, W^( B <=> W, functor(B,F,M), matchingO(A,B)), BS),
member(Head, BS).

matchingO(A,D):- A =.. [F|[B1|\_]],

(not F = prob0, not F = poss, !, numActions(A,N),numActions(D,N); (F = prob0;F = poss), !, D =..[F|[B2|\_]], functor(B1,F1,M1), functor(B2,F1,M1)).

 $numActions(A,N):-A = .. [|B], reverse(B,[M|_]), M = .. [do,T,_], length(T,N).$ 

diff(V2,V1,LV).

% diff(A,B,C): C = A-B

diff(L,[],L):- !.

diff(A,[A1|T],L):- newVar(A1,A), !, diff(A,T,L).

diff(A,[A1|T],L):- not newVar(A1,A), !,

removeElement(A1,A,B), diff(B,T,L).

```
removeElement(_,[],[]):- !.
```

```
removeElement(A1,[A|B],T):- get_var_info(A1, name, R1),
```

get\_var\_info(A, name, R1), removeElement(A1,B,T).

removeElement(A1,[A|B],[A|T]):- get\_var\_info(A1, name, R1),

not get\_var\_info(A, name, R1), removeElement(A1,B,T).

% rename(Names,News,Term1,Term2): Term2 is Term1 with Names

% replaced by corresponding News.

rename([],[],A, A):- !.
rename([X|T1],[Y|T2],A,B):- sub0(X,Y,A,B1), rename(T1,T2,B1,B).

```
sub_list(_,_,[],[]).
sub_list(X1,X2,[T1|L1],[T2|L2]) :- sub0(X1,X2,T1,T2), sub_list(X1,X2,L1,L2).
```

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% Simplification Rules.

true & P ==> P. P & true ==> P. false & \_ ==> false. \_ & false ==> false. true v \_ ==> true. \_ v true ==> true. false v P ==> P. P v false ==> P. -true ==> false. -false ==> true.  $X v - Y \implies$  true :- not var(X), not var(Y),  $X \implies Y$ . - X v Y ==> true :- not var(X), not var(Y), X == Y.  $X \& - Y \implies$  false :- not var(X), not var(Y),  $X \implies Y$ . - X & Y ==> false :- not var(X), not var(Y), X == Y.  $X \& Y \implies X := N$  to var(X), not var(Y),  $X \implies Y$ .  $X \vee Y \implies X := N \times (X)$ , not var(Y),  $X \implies Y$ . X = Y ==> true :- not var(X), not var(Y), matchWith(X,Y).  $X = Y \implies$  false :- not var(X), not var(Y), not X=Y. matchWith(X,Y):- var(X), not var(Y),!, fail. matchWith(X,Y):- not var(X), var(Y), Y = X, !.matchWith(X,Y):= var(X), var(Y), Y = X, !.

matchWith(X,Y):- not var(X), not var(Y), !,

X =.. [F|L1], Y=.. [F|L2], match\_list(L1,L2).

match\_list([],[]).

```
match_list([A1|B1],[A2|B2]):- matchWith(A1,A2),match_list(B1,B2).
```

genVarFile(V,N):-

```
(number(N), !, gensym(V,N,T);
not number(N), !, gensym0(V,N,T)),
flaten(T,T1),open(variables,write, Stream),
printf(Stream, "newVar(%w).", [T1]), close(Stream).
```

% gensym(V,N,T): generate list of strings with prefix V

% followed by n, n=1,2,...,N

gensym(\_,0,[]):- !.

gensym(V,N,R):- N>O, N1 is N-1, gensym(V,N1,T),

concat\_atom([V,N],A), append(T,[A],R).

```
% gensymO(A,B,T): every element in T is a string with exact one prefix
% in A, and all elements in T are different from variables in B.
gensymO([],_,[]):- !.
```

```
gensymO([A|T1], B, [A1|T2]):- get_var_info(A, name, R),
```

initializeVarCount, genEle(R,B,A1), gensym0(T1, B, T2).

```
genEle(A,B,A1):- getval(varCount,N), concat_atom([A,N],T),
```

(not haveSameName(T,B), !, A1=T;

haveSameName(T,B), !, incrementVarCount, genEle(A,B,A1)).

```
initializeVarCount:- setval(varCount,0).
incrementVarCount:- incval(varCount).
```

```
haveSameName(A,[B|_]):- get_var_info(B,name,A), !.
haveSameName(A,[B|T]):- not get_var_info(B,name,A), haveSameName(A,T).
```

```
% make ['A','B'] look like 'A,B'
flaten([],A):- A='',!.
```

```
flaten([A|B],T):-
    length([A|B], N), N=1,!, flaten(B,T1),concat_atom([A,T1],T).
flaten([A|B],T):-
    length([A|B], N), N>1,!, flaten(B,T1),concat_atom([A,',',T1],T).
```

```
getVarFile(L):- getFromFile(L1), getVar(L1,L).
```

```
getFromFile(L):- open(variables, read, Stream),
```

readvar(Stream,\_,L), close(Stream).

```
% getVar(L1,L): L1 is a list of elements of form [A|B],
% where A is name of variable B, L is lists of B's
getVar([],[]):- !.
getVar([[_|B]|T1],[B|T]):- var(B), getVar(T1,T).
```

```
assertMacro([]).
```

assertMacro([[Name,Body]|T]):- not macro(Name,Body), !,

assert(macro(Name,Body)), assertMacro(T).

printMacro(L,File):- open(File, append, Stream),

```
printMacroO(Stream,L), close(Stream).
```

```
printMacro0(Stream,[]):- nl(Stream), !.
printMacro0(Stream,[[Name,Body]|T]):-
    nl(Stream), printf(Stream, "macro(%w,%w).", [Name,Body]),
    nl(Stream), printMacro0(Stream, T).
```

```
% printRule(T,Tempbase): output new rules to file Tempbase which
% is a file save the extended successor state axiom in form of
% H <=> W, and this Tempbase helps the program "developer" to g
% enerate new results for new macro-action.
printRule(T,Tempbase):- open(Tempbase, append, Stream),
```

printallO(Stream, T), close(Stream).

printall0(\_,[]):- !.

printall0(Stream,[[Head, Body]|T]):-

```
nl(Stream), writeclause(Stream, (Head <=> Body)),
nl(Stream), printall0(Stream,T).
```

% printApp(L,Appbase): output new rules to file Appbase which % is a file save the extended axioms in clause form, and this % Appbase is used in application for data reuse.

printall1(Stream,[]):- nl(Stream), !.

```
printall1(Stream,[[Head, Body]|Tail]):-
    nl(Stream), term_string(Head,Head1),
    printf(Stream, "%w :- ", [Head1]),
    printSentence(Stream,Body), printf(Stream, ".",[]),
    nl(Stream), printall1(Stream,Tail).
```

printSentence(Stream, -W):- isAtom(W), !, term\_string(W,W1),

printf(Stream, "%s", ["not "]), printf(Stream, " %w ",[W1]).

```
printSentence(Stream, -W):- not isAtom(W), !,
```

printf(Stream, "%s", ["not ("]), printSentence(Stream, W),

printf(Stream, "%s", [") "]).

printSentence(Stream, W1 & W2):- not isLiteral(W1), not isLiteral(W2), !,
 printf(Stream, "%s", [" ("]), printSentence(Stream,W1),
 printf(Stream, "%s", ["), ("]), printSentence(Stream,W2),

printf(Stream, "%s", [") "]).

printSentence(Stream, W2), printf(Stream, "%s", [") "]).

- printSentence(Stream, W1 & W2):- not isLiteral(W1), isLiteral(W2), !, printf(Stream, "%s", [" ("]), printSentence(Stream,W1), printf(Stream, "%s", ["), "]), printSentence(Stream,W2).
- printSentence(Stream, W1 & W2):- isLiteral(W1), isLiteral(W2), !, printSentence(Stream,W1), printf(Stream, "%s", [", "]), printSentence(Stream,W2).
- printSentence(Stream, W1 v W2):- not isLiteral(W1), not isLiteral(W2), !,
   printf(Stream, "%s", [" ("]), printSentence(Stream,W1),
   printf(Stream, "%s", ["); ("]), printSentence(Stream,W2),
   printf(Stream, "%s", [") "]).
- printSentence(Stream, W1 v W2):- isLiteral(W1), not isLiteral(W2), !, printSentence(Stream,W1), printf(Stream, "%s", ["; ("]), printSentence(Stream,W2), printf(Stream, "%s", [") "]).
- printSentence(Stream, W1 v W2):- not isLiteral(W1), isLiteral(W2), !, printf(Stream, "%s", [" ("]), printSentence(Stream,W1), printf(Stream, "%s", ["); "]), printSentence(Stream,W2).
- printSentence(Stream, W1 v W2):- isLiteral(W1), isLiteral(W2), !, printf(Stream, "%s", [" "]), printSentence(Stream,W1), printf(Stream, "%s", ["; "]), printSentence(Stream,W2).

isLiteral(W):- isAtom(W), !.
isLiteral(-W):- isAtom(W), !.

# Appendix D

The following represents the complete interpretation of the example of robot climbing stairs in Prolog for the macGolog interpreter. The only difference from the original one in the stGolog is that we modify do(A, S) to be do([A], S).

#### Robot Climbing Stairs in Prolog for the macGolog

% Declare nature's choices choice(liftUpperLeg(H),C):- C = liftTill(H); C = malfunc(H). choice(forwLowLeg, C):- C = forwLowLegS; C = forwLowLegF. choice(stepDown(L), C):- C = stepDownS(L); C = stepDownF(L). choice(moveBarycenter(L), C):- C = moveBarycenterS(L); C = moveBarycenterF(L). choice(straightLeg, C):- C = straightLeg. choice(forwSupLeg, C):- C = forwSupLegS; C = forwSupLegF.

```
% Action precondition and successor state axioms
poss(liftTill(H),S) :- barycenter(supporting,S).
poss(malfunc(H),S) :- barycenter(supporting,S).
poss(forwLowLegS,S) :- not mainToCurr(wrongPos,S), not footOnGround(main,S).
poss(forwLowLegF,S) :- not mainToCurr(wrongPos,S), not footOnGround(main,S).
poss(stepDownS(L),S) :- not footOnGround(L,S), overNewStair(L,S).
poss(stepDownF(L),S) :- not footOnGround(L,S), overNewStair(L,S).
```

```
poss(moveBarycenterS(L),S) :- footOnGround(L,S).
poss(moveBarycenterF(L),S) :- footOnGround(L,S).
poss(straightLeg,S) :- not straightMain(S), footOnGround(main,S),
                       barycenter(main,S).
poss(forwSupLegS,S):- barycenter(main,S), straightMain(S).
poss(forwSupLegF,S):- barycenter(main,S), straightMain(S).
straightMain(do([A],S)):- A = straightLeg;
                          straightMain(S), not A = liftTill(H).
barycenter(L,do([A],S)):- A = moveBarycenterS(L);
     barycenter(L,S), not (A = moveBarycenterS(L1), not L=L1).
footOnGround(L,do([A],S)):- A = stepDownS(L);
     footOnGround(L,S), (L = main, not A = liftTill(H);
     L = supporting, not A = straightLeg).
overNewStair(L,do([A],S)):- A = forwSupLegS, L = supporting;
     A = forwLowLegS, L = main; overNewStair(L,S), not A = stepDownS(L).
mainToCurr(H,do([A],S)):- A = liftTill(H);
     A = malfunc(H1), H = wrongPos; A = stepDownS(main), H = 0;
     mainToCurr(wrongPos,S), H = wrongPos; mainToCurr(H,S),
     not H = wrongPos, not A= malfunc(H1), not A = stepDownS(main),
    not (A = liftTill(H1), not H = H1).
% Probabilities
prob0(liftTill(H),liftUpperLeg(H),S,Pr):- Pr is 100/(H+100).
prob0(malfunc(H),liftUpperLeg(H),S,Pr):- Pr is H/(H+100).
prob0(forwLowLegS,forwLowLeg,S,Pr):- mainToCurr(H,S), Pr is 80/(H+80).
prob0(forwLowLegF,forwLowLeg,S,Pr):- mainToCurr(H,S), Pr is H/(H+80).
prob0(stepDownS(L),stepDown(L),S,Pr):- Pr = 0.9.
prob0(stepDownF(L),stepDown(L),S,Pr):- Pr = 0.1.
```

prob0(moveBarycenterS(L),moveBarycenter(L),S,Pr):- Pr = 0.8.

prob0(moveBarycenterF(L),moveBarycenter(L),S,Pr):- Pr = 0.2. prob0(straightLeg,straightLeg,S,Pr):- Pr = 1.0. prob0(forwSupLegS,forwSupLeg,S,Pr):- Pr = 0.8. prob0(forwSupLegF,forwSupLeg,S,Pr):- Pr = 0.2.

```
restoreSitArg(straightMain,S,straightMain(S)).
restoreSitArg(barycenter(L),S,barycenter(L,S)).
```

restoreSitArg(footOnGround(L),S,footOnGround(L,S)).

```
restoreSitArg(overNewStair(L),S,overNewStair(L,S)).
```

restoreSitArg(mainToCurr(H),S,mainToCurr(H,S)).

```
primitive_action(liftTill(_)).
```

```
primitive_action(malfunc(_)).
```

```
primitive_action(forwLowLegS).
```

```
primitive_action(forwLowLegF).
```

```
primitive_action(stepDownS(_)).
```

```
primitive_action(stepDownF(_)).
```

```
primitive_action(moveBarycenterS(_)).
```

```
primitive_action(moveBarycenterF(_)).
```

```
primitive_action(straightLeg).
```

```
primitive_action(forwSupLegS).
```

```
primitive_action(forwSupLegF).
```

```
% Initial Database
straightMain(s0). mainToCurr(0,s0).
barycenter(supporting,s0).
footOnGround(L,s0):- L = main; L=supporting.
overNewStair(L,s0):- fail.
legalStair(H):- number(H), 0<H, H<20.</pre>
```