

Robust Execution Strategies for Probabilistic Temporal Planning

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Introduction

Consider a scheduling scenario in a furniture factory where two robotic agents work together to apply finish to custom table pieces. Robot A is set up to paint, while Robot B must apply varnish. Both actions take an uncertain amount of time due to physical variation in the size and shape of the table components. Painting takes around six minutes to complete, while applying varnish take around two minutes. To maintain efficiency at the factory, the tasks must be completed within two minutes of each other before the furniture components must move on. This scheduling problem is illustrated in Figure 1. Successfully executing this task requires coordination between the robots—if both robots started at the same time, Robot B is likely to finish varnishing its component before Robot A finishes painting. The challenge that this abstract addresses is determining the *best* way to schedule events in the face of scheduling uncertainty.

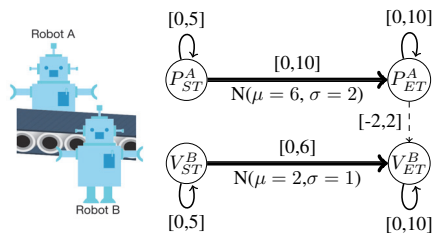


Figure 1: Nodes represent events such as the start of Robot A’s paint activity (P_{ST}^A) and edges describe how much time can pass between each event.

Background

The Simple Temporal Network (STN) provides a framework for representing systems of temporal constraints and captures how they restrict the times at which activities can occur (Dechter, Meiri, and Pearl 1991). Our furniture scheduling problem is displayed graphically as an STN in Figure 1. Each event (e.g., the start and end of Robot A’s paint

activity) is represented as a **timepoint variable** (P_{ST}^A and P_{ET}^A , where P denotes which activity, the superscript denotes which agent, and the subscript distinguishes between start and end time). Temporal constraints are represented as directed edges that are labeled with the range of time that is allowed to elapse between the source of the edge and the target (e.g., painting takes between 0 and 10 minutes). Dashed edges highlight constraints between agents, and thick lines convey that the duration is **contingent**, or controlled by an uncertain process. Finally, self-loops are labeled with when each event occurs relative to an overall start time.

Probabilistic STNs (PSTNs) augment STNs by using probability density functions to characterize activities with uncertain durations, e.g., in Figure 1 the uncertain durations of the paint and varnish activities are represented by normal distributions. **Robustness** is a measure of the likelihood that a PSTN will be executed successfully (i.e. without violating any constraints) (Brooks et al. 2015). Previous methods for dealing with temporal uncertainty have either accepted a predetermined, suboptimal level of risk (Fang, Yu, and Williams 2014) or have not fully taken advantage of knowledge about the nature of the uncertainty (Tsamardinos, Pollock, and Ramakrishnan 2003).

The Robust Execution Problem

Our goal is to find a dispatch strategy for a PSTN that maximizes robustness. We define the **Robust Execution Problem (REP)** for a given PSTN, S , as finding the dispatch strategy D that solves the following optimization:

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{maximize} && \text{Robustness}(S, D) \\ &\text{subject to} && \text{Constraints of } S \end{aligned}$$

The output of the *REP* is a plan for assigning times to timepoints that maximizes the likelihood of success (i.e., robustness) subject to all constraints. Solving the REP requires approximate approaches, as exactly computing robustness is generally intractable for instances of PSTNs (Brooks et al. 2015). Even if we limit our dispatch strategy to assign all timepoints before execution, previous work has shown that an equivalent problem (temporal decoupling) is generally NP-hard for non-linear objective functions (Planken, de Weerdt, and Witteveen 2010).

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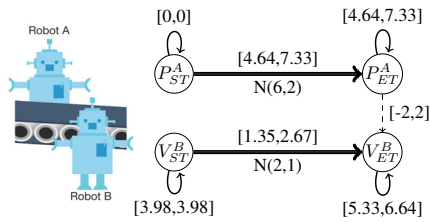


Figure 2: Figure 1 after applying our SREA algorithm.

Approaches for Solving the REP

Our **static robust execution algorithm** (SREA) for producing an approximate solution requires finding a strategy such that all scheduling decisions can be made before execution. We do this by finding bounds for each contingent edge that contain $(1 - \alpha)$ of the probability mass. We perform a binary search to find the minimum risk-level α that allows us to add these bounds as constraints while retaining a valid, executable schedule. We use an LP-formulation to both enforce all constraints and also to expand each of these bounds some $\delta > 0$, thus capturing even more probability mass.

The result of applying SREA to our example problem is shown in Figure 2. The best α level found by the algorithm was 0.506, corresponding to bounds of $[1.35, 2.67]$ on robot A’s uncertain edge, and $[4.66, 7.33]$ on robot B’s uncertain edge. The LP then expanded robot B’s uncertain edge very slightly to $[4.64, 7.33]$. The robustness of this modified schedule is 24.61%, as compared to 17.21% when the original schedule was executed with a naïve “early execution” method. However, since scheduling decisions are static, the opportunity to update decisions during execution is lost. Our **dynamic robust execution algorithm** (DREA) re-evaluates the LP whenever additional information about uncertain events is received. The result is a dispatch algorithm that exploits favorable outcomes (e.g., a robot that finishes early) by readjusting the remaining schedule to increase the guaranteed level of robustness. Applying DREA increases the robustness of our example to 68.04%.

Evaluation

To evaluate the efficacy of our approaches against each other and an early execution strategy, we generated random PSTNs with varying numbers of timepoints and constraint characteristics. Structurally, each PSTN was composed of several agents each with a “stick” subproblem (i.e., one with no concurrent operations) that were subsequently connected through interagent constraints with a check to avoid causal loops. The pdfs associated with uncertain edges were normally distributed, with varied means and standard deviations. The problems we generated have 20 timepoints divided among 2 to 4 agents, and have 20 to 35 constraints, of which up to 15 are uncertain. *Interagent constraint density* varies the proportion of constraints between agents’ sequences of actions and allows us to explore the impact of varying degrees of interagent coupling.

As shown in Figure 3, DREA resulted in the most successful execution strategies. As interagent constraint den-

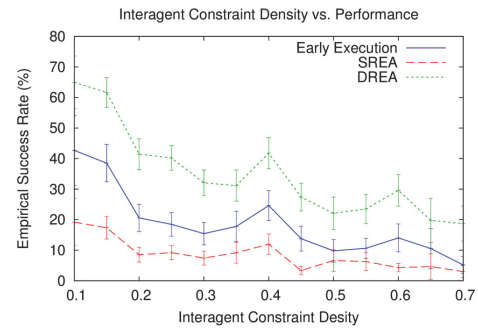


Figure 3: Simulated success rates of our execution strategies while varying interagent constraint density.

sity increased, the success rate of all approaches generally decreased. This is expected—more dependencies between agents means more opportunities for failure. It should be noted that for low degrees of interagent coupling SREA performs worse than other algorithms. This is because the static approach must restrict timepoint domains to limit risk, despite the presence of fewer constraints. At higher degrees of coupling, SREA becomes competitive with the early execution strategy, while DREA continues to outperform other approaches due to its ability to adjust to contingencies.

Discussion

This abstract introduces the Robust Execution Problem for finding maximally robust execution strategies to the general probabilistic temporal planning problem. While the REP is likely intractable in practice, we introduce approximate solution techniques—one that can be computed statically prior to the start of execution while providing robustness guarantees and one that dynamically adjusts to opportunities and setbacks during execution. We show empirically that dynamically optimizing for robustness improves the likelihood of execution success.

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