# IA Planning Lecture 1: Introduction to Planning

Halim Djerroud



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#### Session Outline

- Motivation and applications of Task Planning
- Basic notions: states, actions, goals
- Concrete examples: 8-puzzle, robot navigation on a grid
- Practical session: first state-search problems (BFS/DFS in Pvthon)



#### Introduction

Introduction

## Understanding the motivations and applications of task planning in AI.

#### Chapter objectives:

- Motivations for task planning in Al
- **Applications**



# Why task planning in Al?

- Automate sequential decision-making: Example: a domestic robot that chooses the order to tidy the house (pick up objects, vacuum, then empty the trash).
- Optimize resource utilization: Example: a drone that must deliver packages while consuming the least battery possible.
- Manage the complexity of real environments:
  - Multiple possible actions: a robot can take different paths to reach a room.
  - Interactions between agents: multiple robots must coordinate their movements to avoid interfering with each other.
  - Safety constraints: a robotic arm must avoid dangerous zones.
- Generic approach: The same planner can solve various problems: Plaving chess, Organizing a schedule, – Planning industrial robotics operations.



# Applications of planning in Al

#### Robotics

Introduction

- Autonomous navigation (e.g., mobile robots).
- Object manipulation (industrial robots, service robots).

#### Logistics

- Delivery organization (Amazon, DHL).
- Production chain optimization.

## Video games and simulation

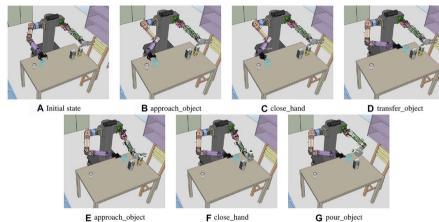
- Strategic AI in role-playing or real-time strategy games.
- Autonomous virtual agents.

## Scientific and space planning

- Space missions (Mars rover, DeepSpace, ...).
- Laboratory experiment planning.



# Example: planning in robotics





## Summary: motivations and applications

#### Key idea

Introduction

Planning in Al provides a formal framework to define, generate and evaluate action plans, enablina artificial agents to solve complex problems in various environments.

- Allows problem abstraction (domain independence).
- Applies to concrete sectors: robotics, logistics, games, sciences.
- First step before introducing formal concepts: states, actions, objectives.



# Chapter 2: Basic Concepts

Introduction

## Chapter 2: States, actions and objectives

## Chapter objectives:

- Define the fundamental concepts of planning.
- Understand the relationship between states, actions and objectives.
- Introduce the concept of state space.



## Definition: State

Introduction

A **state** = a *snapshot of the world*, which completely describes the situation at a given moment.

- Represented by a set of variables or facts.
- Example 1 (mobile robot on a grid):

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & R & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow R \text{ is at } (2,2)$$

• Example 2 (8-puzzle): Here □ represents the empty cell.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & \Box \end{bmatrix}$$



## Variables vs. Facts

#### Variables

Introduction

- Describe the world using attributes and values.
- Each state is defined by an assignment of values to the variables.
- Example (robot on a grid):
  - PosX = 2
  - PosY = 3
  - $\bullet$  HasBox = False

#### **Facts**

⇒ Variables describe a state through values, while facts describe it through propositions.

- Describe the world as true/false propositions.
- Each state = a set of true facts.
- Example (robot on a grid):
  - At(Robot, 2, 3) is true
  - At(Box, 1, 1) is true
  - Carrying(Robot, Box) is false



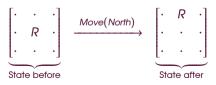
## **Definition: Action**

Introduction

An **action** = an operation that transforms a state  $s_i$  into a new state  $s_{i+1}$ .

- Defined by:
  - Preconditions: necessary conditions to apply it.
  - Effects: modifications produced on the state.
- Example (robot on a grid):

## Action Move(North)



Precondition: no obstacle to the north. Effect:  $R(x, y) \mapsto R(x, y + 1)$ .



# Definition: Objective

An **objective** = a state (or set of states) that we seek to reach.

- Represented by a set of conditions to satisfy.
- Example 1 (8-puzzle):

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & \Box \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \text{ objective reached}$$

• Example 2 (grid navigation):

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cdot & \cdot & G \\ \cdot & R & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow R \text{ must reach } G$$



# Known vs. Unknown Objectives

#### **Known objective**

Introduction

- The goal state (or conditions) is clearly specified.
- Example: in the 8-puzzle, the objective is to reach the ordered configuration.

## **Unknown / Implicit objective**

- The objective is not directly given; it must be discovered or constructed.
- Example: in the 8-queens problem, the objective is to place 8 queens such that no two attack each other.
- This is a constraint satisfaction problem.



Example: 8-Queens problem



#### Definition: Plan

Introduction

A **plan** = a sequence of actions that transforms the initial state  $s_0$  into a goal state  $s_0$ .

General form:

$$Plan = \langle a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \rangle$$

with 
$$s_0 \xrightarrow{a_1} s_1 \xrightarrow{a_2} \dots \xrightarrow{a_n} s_g$$
.

• Example (robot on a grid):

Here, the plan is: (Move(North), Move(East)).



## Definition: State Space

The **state space** = the set of all possible states, connected by the actions that allow transitioning from one to another.

- Each **node** represents a state.
- Each edge represents an action.
- ullet A **plan** corresponds to a path between the initial state  $s_0$  and a goal state  $s_g$ .

Example (robot on a  $2\times2$  grid):

Possible states: positions of R.

$$\begin{bmatrix} R & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\mathsf{Move}(\mathit{East})} \begin{bmatrix} \cdot & R \\ \cdot & \cdot \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cdot & \cdot \\ R & \cdot \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\mathsf{Move}(\mathsf{East})} \begin{bmatrix} \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & R \end{bmatrix}$$



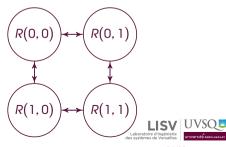
# State Space = Search Graph

The state space can be represented by a graph:

- The **nodes** = the possible states.
- The edges = the actions that connect the states.
- A plan = a path in this graph.

Example (robot on a  $2\times2$  grid):

$$\begin{bmatrix} R & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \cdot & R \\ \cdot & \cdot \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \cdot & \cdot \\ R & \cdot \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & R \end{bmatrix}$$



## Graphs and Exploration

#### A **graph** represents the state space:

- The **nodes** = the states. The **edges** = the possible actions.
- Finding a plan = searching for a path between the initial state and the goal state.

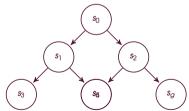
#### **BFS (Breadth-First Search)**

- Explores first all states at distance 1, then 2, etc.
- Finds the shortest path (in number of actions).

#### **DFS (Depth-First Search)**

- Explores a path in depth before backtracking.
- Can find a solution quickly, but not necessarily the shortest.

BFS and DFS are two strategies to explore this graph and find a plan.



# Chapter 3: Concrete Examples

Introduction

# Chapter 3: 8-puzzle and grid navigation

#### Objectives of this chapter:

- Illustrate the notions of states, actions, and goals with classical examples.
- Understand the construction of a state space.
- Provide the foundations for planning search algorithms.



## Example 1: the 8-puzzle

Introduction

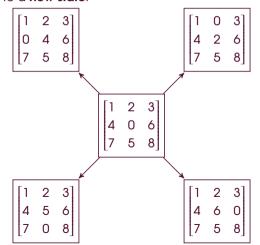
- State: configuration of the 8 tiles + empty cell.
- Actions: move an adjacent tile into the empty cell.
- Goal: reach the sorted configuration.

Initial state:

Goal state:

## State transitions

- One action = moving a tile into the empty cell.
- Each action leads to a **new state**.



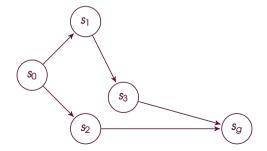


## State space of the 8-puzzle

Introduction

The set of all possible configurations forms a search graph.

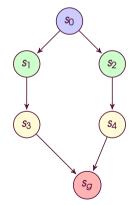
- Nodes = possible configurations (up to 181,440 reachable).
- Edges = tile moves.
- A plan = a path from the initial state to the goal.





# **Exploration with BFS**

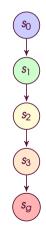
- Explores all states at distance 1, then distance 2, etc.
- Guarantees finding the shortest solution.





# **Exploration with DFS**

- Explores one path in depth before backtracking.
- May find a solution quickly, but not necessarily the shortest.





# Example 2: Grid navigation

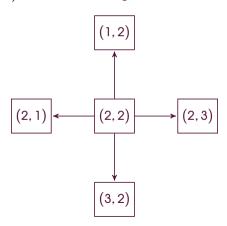
- **State**: robot position (x, y).
- Actions: up, down, left, right (if no obstacle).
- Goal: reach a target cell  $(x_g, y_g)$ .

$$S = \text{start}$$
,  $G = \text{goal}$ ,  $1 = \text{obstacle}$ ,  $0 = \text{free cell}$ 



## State transitions

- Each valid move leads to a **new state**.
- Example (robot at (2,2)): can move left, right, or down.

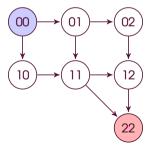


## State space for navigation

Introduction

#### The grid becomes a **graph**:

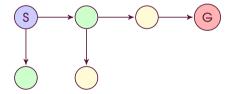
- Nodes = possible positions.
- Edges = allowed moves.
- Plan = path from start S to goal G.





## Exploration with BFS

- Explores the grid in "layers" around the start.
- Finds the shortest path (in number of steps).



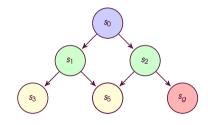
# Breadth-First Search (BFS) Algorithm

Introduction

end

```
Pseudo-code (BFS)
Input: Initial state s_0, Goal test
Output: Path from s_0 to s_a if found
Create an empty queue Q;
Enqueue (s_0) into Q;
Mark so as visited;
while Q not empty do
     Dequeue first path (s_0 \ldots s_i);
     Let n = last node of path;
     if n is goal then
           return path (s_0 \ldots s_i);
     end
     foreach successor n' of n do
           if n' not visited then
                 Mark n' visited:
                 Enqueue path (s_0 \ldots s_i, n');
           end
     end
```

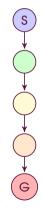
#### **Exploration order (lavers)**





# **Exploration with DFS**

- Explores one path in depth before backtracking.
- May find a solution quickly, but not necessarily optimal.

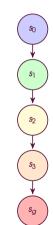


# Depth-First Search (DFS) Algorithm

Introduction

```
Pseudo-code (DFS)
Input: Initial state s_0, Goal test
Output: Path from s_0 to s_a if found
Create an empty stack S;
Push (s_0) onto S;
Mark s_0 as visited;
while S not empty do
     Pop last path (s_0 \ldots s_i);
     Let n = last node of path:
     if n is goal then
           return path (s_0 \ldots s_i);
     end
     foreach successor n' of n do
           if n' not visited then
                 Mark n' visited:
                 Push path (s_0 \ldots s_i, n');
           end
     end
end
```

#### Exploration order (depth-first)





## Chapter 4: A\* Search Algorithm

# Chapter 4: The A\* Search Algorithm

Optimal Pathfinding with Heuristic Guidance

#### **Learning Objectives:**

- Master the A\* algorithm and its evaluation function f(n) = g(n) + h(n)
- Understand admissible heuristics and their critical role in optimality
- Analyze A\* performance compared to BFS, DFS, UCS, and Greedy Best-First
- Apply A\* to real-world pathfinding problems



## What is A\* Search?

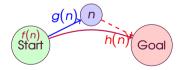
#### Key Insight

A\* combines the actual cost to reach a node with an estimated cost to the goal, making informed decisions about which paths to explore first.

#### The A\* Evaluation Function:

$$f(n) = g(n) + h(n)$$

- $\bullet$  g(n) = actual cost from start to node n
- h(n) = heuristic estimate from n to goal
- f(n) =estimated total cost of best path through n

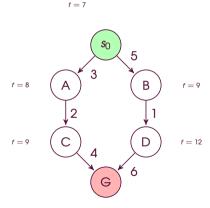


## A\* (A Star)

```
Input: Initial state s_0, Goal test, heuristic h
Output: Optimal path from s_0 to goal
Open \leftarrow \{s_0\} // priority queue by f
Closed \leftarrow \emptyset
                      // explored set
g(s_0) \leftarrow 0; f(s_0) \leftarrow h(s_0)
while Open ≠ Ø do
     n \leftarrow \text{PopMin}_{\ell}(\text{Open})
     if n is goal then
           return path to n
     end
     add n to Closed
     foreach successor n' of n do
           // Process successor (see right
               column)
     end
end
return failure
```

```
ProcessSuccessor(n, n') if n' \in Closed then
      continue
end
g_{\text{new}} \leftarrow g(n) + cost(n, n')
if n' \notin Open or g_{new} < g(n') then
      a(n') \leftarrow a_{new}
      f(n') \leftarrow g(n') + h(n')
      parent(n') \leftarrow n
      Insert/DecreaseKey n' in Open
end
                      Algorithm 1: *
```

# A\* Example (Step-by-Step)



## Search Order:

- Expand  $s_0$  (f = 7)
- 2 Expand A (f = 8)
- $\bigcirc$  Expand C (f = 9)
- **4** Goal found:  $s_0 \to A \to C \to G$

**Key:** A\* explores the most promising nodes first!



## Heuristic Functions: The Heart of A\*

#### Admissible Heuristics

A heuristic h(n) is **admissible** if it never overestimates the true cost:  $h(n) \le h^*(n)$  for all nwhere  $h^*(n)$  is the actual minimum cost from n to goal.

#### **Common Heuristics: 1. Grid Navigation**

Manhattan Distance (4-connected):

$$h(n) = |x_n - x_g| + |y_n - y_g|$$

**Euclidean Distance** (continuous):

$$h(n) = \sqrt{(x_n - x_g)^2 + (y_n - y_g)^2}$$

Chebyshev Distance (8-connected):

$$h(n) = \max(|x_n - x_g|, |y_n - y_g|)$$

#### **Heuristic Quality Impact:**



#### **Heuristic Dominance:**

If  $h_2(n) \ge h_1(n)$  for all n, then  $h_2$  **dominates**  $h_1$  and will expand fewer nodes.

# Properties and Guarantees of A\*

#### Theoretical Properties

- **Completeness**: Finds solution if one exists (finite branching factor)
- Optimality: Guarantees optimal solution when h is admissible
- Optimally Efficient: No other algorithm can expand fewer nodes with same heuristic

## **Complexity Analysis:**

- **Time**:  $O(b^d)$  worst case, where b = branching factor, d = depth
- **Space**:  $O(b^d)$  stores all generated nodes
- Performance depends on: heuristic accuracy, branching factor, solution depth

## Why A\* is Optimal:

- A\* always expands nodes in order of increasing f-value
- If h is admissible, f never overestimates true cost
- When goal is selected, no unexplored node can lead to better solution



# Algorithm Comparison: A\* vs Others

## Comprehensive Comparison

Algorithm	Complete	Optimal	Time	Space	Uses
BFS	Yes	Yes*	$O(b^d)$	$O(b^d)$	Unit costs only
DFS	No**	No	$O(b^m)$	O(bm)	Memory efficient
UCS (Dijkstra)	Yes	Yes	$O(b^{C^*/\epsilon})$	$O(b^{C^*/\epsilon})$	No heuristic
Greedy Best-First	No	No	$O(b^m)$	$O(b^m)$	Fast but risky
A*	Yes	Yes***	$O(b^d)$	$O(b^d)$	Best of both worlds

<sup>\*</sup> BFS optimal only for unit costs

#### When to Choose Each Algorithm:

- A\*: When you have a good admissible heuristic and need optimal solutions
- UCS: When no heuristic is available but optimality is required
- Greedy: When speed matters more than optimality
- DFS: When memory is extremely limited and optimality not required



<sup>\*\*</sup> DFS complete in finite spaces

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> A\* optimal when heuristic is admissible

# **Advanced Topics and Extensions**

#### A\* Variants:

Introduction

## Weighted A\*:

$$f(n) = g(n) + w \cdot h(n)$$

- w > 1: faster but suboptimal
- Trade optimality for speed

## IDA\* (Iterative Deepening A\*):

- Uses O(d) space instead of  $O(b^d)$
- Good for memory-constrained problems

#### Bidirectional A\*:

- Search from both start and aoal
- Can reduce search space significantly

#### **Heuristic Design Tips:**

- **Relaxation**: Remove constraints from original problem
- Pattern Databases: Precompute costs for subproblems
- **Landmark Heuristics**: Use intermediate waypoints
- **Combination**:  $h(n) = \max(h_1(n), h_2(n))$

#### Common Pitfalls

- Non-admissible heuristics ⇒ suboptimal solutions
- Poor heuristics ⇒ performance similar to Dijkstra
- Inconsistent heuristics ⇒ need to reopen nodes

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# Summary and Key Takeaways

#### What Makes A\* Special?

A\* achieves the **best of both worlds**: the optimality guarantees of Dijkstra's algorithm with the efficiency of heuristic-guided search.

#### **Core Concepts to Remember:**

- **Evaluation Function**: f(n) = g(n) + h(n) balances known cost and estimated remaining cost
- Admissible Heuristics: Essential for optimality never overestimate true cost
- Optimal Efficiency: No algorithm with same heuristic can expand fewer nodes
- **1 Trade-offs:** Excellent performance but requires  $O(b^d)$  memory

Perfect balance of optimality and efficiency



Next Steps: Practice implementing A\* with different heuristics and explore advanced variants