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Preferences and Soft Constraints in PDDL3

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Abstract
In many read-world planning domains, generating good plan quality is a central issue. This is especially true for problems with many solutions, or with many goals that cannot be achieved altogether. We propose an extension to the PDDL language that aims at a better characterization of plan quality by allowing the user to express strong and soft state constraints about the structure of the desired plans, as well as strong and soft problem goals. In the plan quality evaluation, soft goals and constraints are evaluated according the their violation penalty weights, which are expressed by the user in the plan metric. The new language, PDDL3, allows us to distinguish alternative feasible plans (satisfying all strong constraints and goals), preferring plans that minimize the weighted violations for soft goals or constraints, possibly combined with other plan quality criteria. We describe the syntax and semantics of PDDL3.0 and we give several examples, including a domain from the very recent fifth International planning competition, which focused on soft trajectory constraints and goals.

1 Introduction
The notion of plan quality in automated planning is of great practical importance. In many real-world planning domains, we have to address problems with a large set of solutions, or with a set of goals that cannot all be achieved. In these problems, it is important to generate plans of good or optimal quality achieving as many goals as possible. When only a subset of goals can be achieved (because they conflict with each other, or because achieving all goals is computationally too expensive), the ability to distinguish the importance of different goals is critical.

PDDL is the standard planning language used in the International planning competitors (Ghallab et al. 1998; Fox & Long 2003; Edelkamp & Hoffmann 2004). The current version of PDDL, PDDL2.2, allows us to express some criteria for plan quality, such as the number of plan actions or parallel steps, and relatively complex plan metrics involving plan makespan and numerical quantities. These are powerful and expressive in domains that include metric fluents, but plan quality can still only be measured by plan size in the case of propositional planning. We believe that these criteria are insufficient, and we propose to extend PDDL with new constructs increasing its expressive power in specifying the plan quality metric.

The proposed extended language, PDDL3, allows us to express strong and soft constraints on plan trajectories (that is, constraints over possible actions in the plan and intermediate states reached by the plan), as well as strong and soft problem goals (that is, goals that must be achieved in any valid plan, and goals that we desire to achieve, but that do not have to be necessarily achieved).

Some informal examples of plan trajectory constraints and soft goals in a blocksworld domain are: a fragile block can never have something above it, or it can have at most one block on it; we would like that the blocks forming the same tower always have the same colour; in some state of the plan, all blocks should be on the table; we would like that in the goal state there is only one block on the table.

Some additional examples in a transportation domain are: we would like that every airplane is used (perhaps because it is better to distribute the workload among the available resources and limit heavy usage); whenever a ship is ready at a port to load the containers it has to transport, all such containers should be ready at that port; we would like that at the end of the plan all trucks are clean and at their source location; we would like no truck to visit any destination more than once.

Strong constraints and goals must be satisfied by any valid plan, while soft constraints and goals express desirable outcomes, some of which may be more preferred than others. Informally, in planning with soft constraints and goals, the best quality plan should satisfy “as much as possible” the soft constraints and goals according to the specified preference relation distinguishing alternative feasible plans (satisfying all strong constraints and goals).

While soft constraints have been extensively studied in the CSP literature (e.g., (Dubois, Fargier, & Prade 1996; Bistarelli, Montanari, & Rossi 1997; Rossi, Venable, & Yorke-Smith 2004)), only very recently has the planning community started to investigate them (Brafman & Chernyavsky 2005; Briel et al. 2004; Delgrande, Schaub, & Tompits 2005; Miguel, Jarvis, & Shen 2001; Smith 2004; Son & Pontelli 2004). A significant recent effort along this direction has been undertaken by the fifth International Planning Competition (IPC-5), which focuses on planning with soft goals and constraints using PDDL3.0 (Gerevini & Long 2005b), a first version of PDDL3 where we have imposed some simplifying restrictions to the language to make it more accessible for the competitors.

When we have soft constraints and goals, it can be useful to give different priorities to them, and this should be taken into account in the plan quality evaluation. While
there is more than one way to specify the importance of a soft constraint or goal, as a first attempt to tackle this issue, in PDDL3.0 we have chosen a simple quantitative approach: each soft constraint and goal is associated with a numerical weight representing the cost of its violation in a plan (and hence also its relative importance with respect the other specified soft constraints and goals). Weighted soft constraints and goals are part of the plan metric expression, and the best quality plans are those optimising such an expression (more details are given in the next sections).

Using this approach we can express that certain plans are more preferred than others. Some examples are: I prefer a plan where every airplane is used, rather than a plan using 100 units of fuel less, which could be expressed by weighting a failure to use all the planes by a number 100 times bigger than the weight associated with the fuel use in the plan metric; I prefer a plan where each city is visited at most once, rather than a plan with a shorter makespan, which could be expressed by using constraint violation costs penalising a failure to visit each city at most once very heavily; I prefer a plan where at the end each truck is at its start location, rather than a plan where every city is visited by at most one truck, which could be expressed by using goal costs penalising a goal failure of having every truck at its start location more heavily than a failure of having in the plan every city visited by at most one truck. Other formalised examples are given in following sections.

We also observe that the rich additional expressive power we propose to add for goal specifications allows the expression of constraints that are actually derivable necessary properties of optimal plans. By adding them as goal conditions, we have a way to express constraints that we know will lead to the planner finding optimal plans. Similarly, one can express constraints that prevent a planner from exploring parts of the plan space that are known to lead to inefficient performance.

In the next sections, we present the main new features of PDDL3.0, and we outline some possible desirable extensions for the next versions of PDDL3.

2 State Trajectory Constraints

2.1 Syntax and Intended Meaning

State trajectory constraints assert conditions that must be met by the entire sequence of states visited during the execution of a plan. They are expressed through temporal modal operators over first order formulae involving state predicates. We recognise that there would be value in also allowing propositions asserting the occurrence of action instances in a plan, rather than simply describing properties of the states visited during execution of the plan, but we choose to restrict ourselves to state predicates in this extension of the language.

The basic modal operators we propose to use in IPC-5 are: always, sometime, at-most-once, and at end (for goal state conditions). We add within which can be used to express deadlines. In addition, rather than allowing arbitrary nesting of modal operators, we introduce some specific operators that offer some limited nesting. We have sometime-before, sometime-after, always-within. Other modalities could be added, but we believe that these are sufficiently powerful for an initial level of the sublanguage modelling constraints.

It should be noted that, by combining these modalities with timed initial literals (defined in PDDL2.2 (Edelkamp & Hoffmann 2004)), we can express further goal constraints. In particular, one can specify the interval of time when a goal should hold, or the lower bound on the time when it should hold. Since these are interesting and useful constraints, we introduce two modal operators as “syntactic sugar” of the basic language: hold-during and hold-after.

Trajectory constraints are specified in the planning problem file in a new field. In addition, we allow constraints to be specified in the action domain file on the grounds that some constraints might be seen as safety conditions, or operating conditions, that are not physical limitations, but are nevertheless constraints that must always be respected in any valid plan for the domain (say legal constraints or operating procedures that must be respected).

Note that no temporal modal operator is allowed in pre-conditions of actions. That is, all action preconditions are with respect to a state (or time interval, in the case of overall action conditions).

The specific BNF grammar of PDDL3.0 is given in (Gerevini & Long 2005a). The following is a fragment of the grammar concerning the new modalities of PDDL3.0 for expressing constraints (con-GD):

\[
<\text{con-GD}> ::= \text{at end } <\text{GD}> | \text{always } <\text{GD}> | \text{at-most-one } <\text{GD}> | \text{sometime-before } <\text{GD}> <\text{GD}> | \text{within } <\text{num}> <\text{GD}> | \text{hold-during } <\text{num}> <\text{num}> <\text{GD}> | \text{hold-after } <\text{num}> <\text{GD}> | ...\]

where <GD> is a goal description (a first order logic formula), <num> is any numeric literal (in STRIPS domains it will be restricted to integer values). There is a minor complication in the interpretation of the bound for within and always-within when considering STRIPS plans (and similarly for hold-during and hold-after): the question is whether the bound refers to sequential steps (in other words, actions) or to parallel steps. For STRIPS plans, the numeric bounds will be counted in terms of plan happenings. For instance, (within 10 \( \phi \)) would mean that \( \phi \) must hold within 10 happenings. These would be happenings of one action or of multiple actions, depending on whether the plan is sequential or parallel.

2.2 Semantics

The semantics of goal descriptors in PDDL2.2 evaluates them only in the context of a single state (the state of application for action preconditions or conditional effects and the final state for top level goals). In order to give meaning to temporal modalities, which assert properties of trajectories rather than individual states, it is necessary to extend the semantics to support interpretation with respect to a finite trajectory (as it is generated by a plan). We propose a semantics for the modal operators that is the same basic interpretation as is used in TLPlan (Bacchus & Kabanza 2000)
for $\mathcal{LT}$ and other standard LTL treatments. Recall that a happening in a plan for a PDDL domain is the collection of all effects associated with the (start or end points of) actions that occur at the same time. This time is then the time of the happening and a happening can be “applied” to a state by simultaneously applying all effects in the happening (which is well defined because no pair of such effects may be mutex).

**Definition 1** Given a domain $D$, a plan $\pi$ and an initial state $I$, $\pi$ generates the trajectory

$$\langle (S_0,0), (S_1,t_1), \ldots, (S_n,t_n) \rangle$$

iff $S_0 = I$ and for each happening $h$ generated by $\pi$, with $h$ at time $t$, there is some $i$ such that $t_i = t$ and $S_i$ is the result of applying the happening $h$ to $S_{i-1}$, and for every $j \in \{1 \ldots n\}$ there is a happening in $\pi$ at $t_j$.

**Definition 2** Given a domain $D$, a plan $\pi$, an initial state $I$, and a goal $G$, $\pi$ is valid if the trajectory it generates, $\langle (S_0,0), (S_1,t_1), \ldots, (S_n,t_n) \rangle$, satisfies the goal: $\langle (S_0,0), (S_1,t_1), \ldots, (S_n,t_n) \rangle \models G$.

This definition contrasts with the original semantics of goal satisfaction, where the requirement was that $S_n \models G$. The contrast reflects precisely this requirement that goals should now be interpreted with respect to an entire trajectory. We do not allow action preconditions to use modal operators and therefore their interpretation continues to be relative to the single state in which the action is applied. The interpretation of simple formulae, $\phi$ (containing no modalities), in a single state $S$ continues to be as before and continues to be denoted $S \models \phi$. In the following definition we rely on context to make clear where we are using the interpretation of non-modal formulae in single states, and where we are interpreting modal formulae in trajectories.

**Definition 3** Let $\phi$ and $\psi$ be atomic formulae over the predicates of the planning problem plus equality (between objects or numeric terms) and inequalities between numeric terms, and let $t$ be any real constant value. The interpretation of the modal operators is as specified in Figure 1.

Note that this interpretation exploits the fact that modal operators are not nested. A more general semantics for nested modalities is a straightforward extension of this one. Note also that the last four expressions in Figure 1 are expressible in different ways if one allows nesting of modalities and use of the standard LTL modality until (more details on this in (Gerevini & Long 2005b)).

The constraint at most once is satisfied if its argument becomes true and then stays true across multiple states and then (possibly) becomes false and stays false. Thus, there is only at most one interval in the plan over which the argument proposition is true.

For general formulae (which may or may not contain modalities):

$$\langle (S_0,0), (S_1,t_1), \ldots, (S_n,t_n) \rangle \models (\text{and } \phi_1 \ldots \phi_n) \text{ iff, for every } i, \langle (S_0,0), (S_1,t_1), \ldots, (S_n,t_n) \rangle \models \phi_i$$

and similarly for other connectives.

Of the constraints hold-during and hold-after, (hold-during $t_1 \ t_2 \ \phi$) states that $\phi$ must be true during the interval $[t_1, t_2]$, while (hold-after $t \ \phi$) states that $\phi$ must be true after time $t$. The first can be expressed by using timed initial literals to specify that a dummy timed literal $d$ is true during the time window $[t_1, t_2]$ together with the goal (always (implies $d \ \phi$)).

A variant of hold-during where $\phi$ must hold exactly during the specified interval could be easily obtained in a similar way. The second can be expressed by using timed initial literals to specify that $d$ is true only from time $t$, together with the goal (sometime-after $d \ \phi$).

3 Soft Constraints and Preferences

A soft constraint is a condition on the trajectory generated by a plan that the user would prefer to see satisfied rather than not satisfied, but is prepared to accept might not be satisfied because of the cost of satisfying it, or because of conflicts with other constraints or goals. In case a user has multiple soft constraints, there is a need to determine which of the various constraints should take priority if there is a conflict between them or if it should prove costly to satisfy them. This could be expressed using a qualitative approach but, following careful deliberations, we have chosen to adopt a simple quantitative approach for this version of PDDL.

3.1 Syntax and Intended Meaning

The syntax for soft constraints falls into two parts. Firstly, there is the identification of the soft constraints, and secondly there is the description of how the satisfaction, or lack of it, of these constraints affects the quality of a plan.
Goal conditions, including action preconditions, can be labelled as preferences, meaning that they do not have to be true in order to achieve the corresponding goal or precondition. Thus, the semantics of these conditions is simple, as far as the correctness of plans is concerned: they are all trivially satisfied in any state. The role of these preferences is apparent when we consider the relative quality of different plans. In general, we consider plans better when they satisfy soft constraints and worse when they do not. A complication arises, however, when comparing two plans that satisfy different subsets of constraints (where neither set strictly contains the other). In this case, we rely on a specification of the violation costs associated with the preferences.

The syntax for labelling preferences is simple:

\[
\text{(preference [name] <GD>)}.
\]

The definition of a goal description can be extended to include preference expressions. However, in PDDL3.0, we reject as syntactically invalid any expression in which preferences appear nested inside any connectives, or modalities, other than conjunction and universal quantifiers. We also consider it a syntax violation if a preference appears in the condition of a conditional effect. Note that where a named preference appears inside a universal quantifier, it is considered to be equivalent to a conjunction (over all legal instantiations of the quantified variable) of preferences all with the same name.

Where a name is selected for a preference it can be used to refer to the preference in the construction of penalties for the violated constraint. The same name can be shared between preferences, in which case they share the same penalty.

Penalties for violation of preferences are calculated using the expression

\[
\text{(is-violated <name>)}
\]

where <name> is a name associated with one or more preferences. This expression takes on a value equal to the number of distinct preferences with the given name that are not satisfied in the plan. Note that in PDDL3.0 we do not attempt to distinguish degrees of satisfaction of a soft constraint — we are only concerned with whether or not the constraint is satisfied. Note, too, that the count includes each separate constraint with the same name. This means that:

\[
\text{(preference VisitParis}
\]

\[
\text{(forall (?x - tourist)}
\]

\[
\text{(sometime (at ?x Paris))})
\]

yields a violation count of 1 for (is-violated VisitParis), if at least one tourist fails to visit Paris during a plan, while

\[
\text{(forall (?x - tourist)}
\]

\[
\text{(preference VisitParis}
\]

\[
\text{(sometime (at ?x Paris))})
\]

yields a violation count equal to the number of people who failed to visit Paris during the plan. The intention behind this is that each preference is considered to be a distinct preference, satisfied or not independently of other preferences. The naming of preferences is a convenience to allow different penalties to be associated with violation of different constraints.

Plans are awarded a value through the plan metric, introduced in PDDL2.1 (Fox & Long 2003). The constraints can be used in weighted expressions in a metric. For example,

\[
\text{(metric minimize}
\]

\[
(+ (* 10 \text{fuel-used})
\]

\[
\text{(is-violated VisitParis)})
\]

would weight fuel use as ten times more significant than violations of the VisitParis constraint. Note that the violation of a preference in the preconditions of an action is counted multiple times, depending on the number of the action occurrences in the plan. For instance, suppose that p is a preference in the precondition of an action a, which occurs three times in plan π. If the plan metric evaluating π contains the term (* k (is-violated p)), then this is interpreted as if it were (* v (* k (is-violated p))), where v is the number of separate occurrences of a in π for which the preference is not satisfied.

### 3.2 Semantics

We say that

\[
\{\langle S_0,0\rangle, (S_1,t_1), ..., (S_n,t_n)\} \models \text{(preference } \Phi \text{)}
\]

is always true, so this allows preference statements to be combined in formulae expressing goals. The point in making the formula always true is that the preference is a soft constraint, so failure to satisfy it is not considered to falsify the goal formula. In the context of action preconditions, we say \( S_i \models \text{(preference } \Phi \text{)} \) is always true, too, for the same reasons.

We also say that a preference \( \text{(preference } \Phi \text{)} \) is satisfied iff \( \{\langle S_0,0\rangle, (S_1,t_1), ..., (S_n,t_n)\} \models \text{ and } \Phi \text{ and violated otherwise. This means that } (\Phi \text{ (preference } \Psi \text{)}) \text{ is the same as (preference (or } \Phi \text{ } \Psi \text{)), both in terms of the satisfaction of the formulae and also in terms of whether the preference is satisfied. The same idea is applied to action precondition preferences. Hence, a goal such as:

\[
\text{(and (at package1 london)}
\]

\[
\text{(preference (clean truck1))})
\]

would lead to the following interpretation:

\[
\{\langle S_0,0\rangle, (S_1,t_1), ..., (S_n,t_n)\} \models
\]

\[
\text{(and (at package1 london)}
\]

\[
\text{(preference (clean truck1))}
\]

iff

\[
\{\langle S_0,0\rangle, (S_1,t_1), ..., (S_n,t_n)\} \models
\]

\[
\text{(at package1 london)}
\]

and

\[
\{\langle S_0,0\rangle, (S_1,t_1), ..., (S_n,t_n)\} \models
\]

\[
\text{(preference (clean truck1))}
\]

iff \( S_n \models \text{(at package1 london)} \) iff \( (\text{at package1 london}) \in S_n \), since the preference is always interpreted as true. In addition, the preference would be satisfied iff:

\[
\{\langle S_0,0\rangle, (S_1,t_1), ..., (S_n,t_n)\} \models
\]

\[
\text{(at end (clean truck1))}
\]
If the preference is not satisfied, it is violated.

Now suppose that we have the following preferences and plan metric:

\[(\text{preference } p_1 \ (\text{always } (\text{clean truck1})))\]
\[(\text{preference } p_2 \ (\text{and } (\text{at end } (\text{at package2 paris}))))\]
\[(\text{(sometime } (\text{clean trackl}))))\]
\[(\text{preference } p_3 \ (...)\)
\[(\text{:(metric } (+ (* 10 \ (\text{is-violated } p_1)) (* 5 \ (\text{is-violated } p_2)) \ (\text{is-violated } p_3))).\]

Suppose we have two plans, \(\pi_1, \pi_2\), and \(\pi_1\) does not satisfy preferences \(p_1\) and \(p_3\) (but it satisfies preference \(p_2\)) and \(\pi_2\) does not satisfy preferences \(p_2\) and \(p_3\) (but it satisfies preference \(p_1\)), then the metric for \(\pi_1\) would yield a value (11) that is higher than that for \(\pi_2\) (6) and we would say that \(\pi_2\) is better than \(\pi_1\).

Formally, a preference precondition is satisfied if the state in which the corresponding action is applied satisfies the preference. Note that the restriction on where preferences may appear in preference formulae and goals, together with the fact that they are banned from conditional effects, means that this definition is sufficient: the context of their appearance will never make it ambiguous whether it is necessary to determine the status of a preference. Similarly, a goal preference is satisfied if the proposition it contains is satisfied in the final state. Finally, an invariant (overall) condition of a durative action is satisfied if the corresponding proposition is true throughout the duration of the action.

In some case, it can be hard to combine preferences with an appropriate weighting to achieve the intended balance between soft constraints and other factors that contribute to the value of a plan (such as plan make span, resource consumption and so on). For example, to ensure that a constraint takes priority over a plan cost associated with resource consumption (such as make span or fuel consumption) is particularly tricky: a constraint must be weighted with a value that is higher than any possible consumption cost and this might not be possible to determine. With non-linear functions it is possible to achieve a bounded behaviour for costs associated with resources. For example, if a constraint, \(C\), is to be considered always to have greater importance than the make span for the plan then a metric could be defined as follows:

\[(:\text{metric minimize } (+ \ (\text{is-violated } C) \ (- 1 \ (/ 1 \ (\text{total-time}))))).\]

This metric will always prefer a plan that satisfies \(C\), but will use make span to break ties.

Nevertheless, for the competition, where it is important to provide an unambiguous specification by which to rank plans, the use of plan metrics in this way is clearly very straightforward and convenient. We leave for later proposals the possibilities for extending the evaluation of plans in the face of soft constraints.

4 Some Examples

In this section, we give some examples from well known domains and also from one of the PDDL3 domains that have recently been developed by the organizers of IPC-5: the Travelling and Purchase Problem (TPP).

4.1 Blocks World and Rovers

The following state trajectory constraints could be stated either as strong constraints or soft constraints. "A fragile block can never have something above it":

\[(\text{always } (\forall b \ - \ \text{block}) \ (\implies (\text{fragile } b) \ (\text{clear } b))).\]

"A fragile block can have at most one block on it":

\[(\text{always } (\forall b_1 b_2 \ - \ \text{block}) \ (\implies (\text{fragile } b_1) (\text{on } b_1 b_2) (\text{clear } b_2))).\]

The following two examples use the IPC-3 Rovers domain involving numerical fluents. "We would like that the energy of every rover should always be above the threshold of 5 units":

\[(\text{always } (\forall r \ - \ \text{rover}) (\text{energy } r 5))).\]

"Whenever the energy of a rover is below 5, it should be at the recharging location within 10 time units":

\[(\text{always } (\forall r \ - \ \text{rover}) (\text{within-recharge } r 10 (\text{energy } r 5)))\]

4.2 TPP

TPP is a relatively recent planning domain that has been investigated in Operation Research (OR) for several years. TPP is a known generalization of the Travelling Salesman Problem, and is defined as follows. We have a set of different types of goods and a set of markets. Each market is provided with a limited amount of each type of goods at a known price. The TPP consists in selecting a subset of markets such that a given demand of each type of goods can be purchased, minimizing the routing cost and the purchasing cost. This problem arises in several applications, mainly in routing and scheduling contexts, and it is known to be NP-hard. In OR, computing optimal or near optimal solutions for TPP instances is an active research topic.

For IPC-5, several variants of this domain have been formalized in PDDL3.0. One of them is equivalent to the original TPP, while the others are simplified or extended formulations.

\[1\text{For IPC-5 several new domains involving preferences have been defined. A detailed description of them is outside the scope of this paper.}\]

\[2\text{A description of each of these variants is available from the website of IPC-5: http://ipc5.ing.unibs.it.}\]
Examples from the Propositional Version of TPP

Figure 2 shows the operators of the “Propositional” version of TPP (with preferences) developed for IPC-5. This is a simplified version of the original TPP, where the amounts of goods that we can buy are discrete and are modeled by a certain number of qualitative levels, that are specified in the problem initial state. Moreover, goods have no price. Note that each drive action has a soft precondition

\[
\text{(preference p-drive (forall (?g - goods) (ready-to-load ?g ?from level0)))}
\]

expressing the preference that “a truck can move from a market only if it leaves at that market no amount of purchased (ready-to-load) goods”.

In the following, we illustrate several preferences over goals and state trajectory constraints that are included in a IPC-5 test problem for the propositional version of TPP with preferences. The first three sets of goal preferences, together with their penalty weights (see below), encode the more global preference of “maximising the level of purchased goods that are stored in a depot”, for each type of goods specified in the initial state (in this problem, goods have four levels):

\[
\text{(forall (?g - goods) (preference G1 (exists (?l - level) (and (not (= ?l level0)) (not (= ?l level1)) (stored ?g ?l)))))}
\]

\[
\text{(forall (?g - goods) (preference G2 (exists (?l - level) (and (not (= ?l level0)) (not (= ?l level2)) (stored ?g ?l)))))}
\]

\[
\text{(forall (?g - goods) (preference G3 (exists (?l - level) (and (not (= ?l level0)) (not (= ?l level3)) (stored ?g ?l))))} \]

Moreover, we prefer that “everything we buy is then stored in a depot”, that is, that the level of the goods that we have bought (that are ready-to-load), and that have been left at a market or on a truck, is zero:

\[
\text{(forall (?g - goods) (preference G4 (and (forall (?m - market) (ready-to-load ?g ?m level0)) (forall (?t - truck) (loaded ?g ?t level0))))})
\]

The soft state trajectory constraints in TPP Propositional are the following ones. “Each market should be visited at most once by a truck”:

\[
\text{(forall (?m - market ?t - truck) (preference C1 (at-most-once (at ?t ?m))))}
\]

“Each type of goods should be loaded at most once in a truck” (we want to buy and load the whole amount of the goods before storing them in a depot).

\[
\text{(forall (?t - truck ?g - goods) (preference C2 (at-most-once (exists (?l - level) (and (loaded ?g ?t ?l) (not (= ?l level0))))))}}
\]

“There should be at most one truck at a market at the same time”:

\[
\text{(forall (?m - market ?t1 ?t2 - truck) (preference C3 (always (imply (and (at ?t1 ?m) (at ?t2 ?m)) (= ?t1 ?t2))))}}
\]

“Each truck should be used”:

\[
\text{(forall (?t - truck) (preference C4 (sometime (exists (?g - goods ?l - level) (and (loaded ?g ?t ?l) (not (= ?l level0))))))}}
\]

“A particular type of goods (goods5) should be stored at some level before another particular type of goods (goods4 or goods3) is stored at that same level” (in other words, the level of goods5 should always be greater than or equal to the level of goods3 and goods4):
The following is an example of plan metric for the previous preferences. Note that preference p-drive is a soft precondition of each drive action appearing in the plan:

```prolog
(:metric minimize
 (+ (* 1 (is-violated p-drive))
  (* 12 (is-violated G1)) (* 10 (is-violated G2))
  (* 8 (is-violated G3)) (* 4 (is-violated G4))
  (* 1 (is-violated C1)) (* 1 (is-violated C2))
  (* 2 (is-violated C3)) (* 3 (is-violated C4))
  (* 13 (is-violated C5)) (* 13 (is-violated C6))))
```

Assuming that in the initial state there are four possible levels for each type of goods, the decreasing penalty weights associated with goal preferences G1–G3 encode the desire that we maximise the level of stored goods (for each type of goods, there is no penalty if we have four levels of stored goods, and the higher is the level of the stored goods, the less is the penalty we get).

In the particular TPP problem which the plan metric above is associated with, in general the way we achieve the goals is less important than achieving them. Thus, the penalty for violating the preferences over trajectory constraints (C1–C4) and action preconditions (p-drive) are lower than the penalties for violating soft goals. Preferences C5 and C6 are exceptions and have the highest penalty weights. This is because in this specific problem it is very important to keep a balance between the pair of goods involved by these constraints (that is, the levels of goods3 and goods4 should never exceed the level of goods5).

Finally, note that constraints C5 and C6 may interfere with goal preferences G1–G3, because the maximum levels of available goods at the markets may be different for different types of goods (as specified in the problem initial state). For example, if the maximum level for goods5 is 2, then constraints C5 and C6 impose that goods3 and goods4 can never exceed this level (even if the an extra level of these goods could be purchased).

### Examples from the Metric-Time Version of TPP

The Metric-Time version of TPP is significantly more complex than the Propositional one, and it is similar to the original formulation of TPP, with some extensions. The hard numeric goals are that the amounts of the stored goods are not less than the corresponding amounts of requested goods, which are specified in the initial state.

Concerning the goal preferences and soft constraints for this domain version, most of them are similar to some of the preferences for the propositional version of TPP, except that here we use numerical fluents for expressing the amounts of goods. Examples of additional soft constraint are "whenever goods3 are loaded in a truck, goods3 should be in a depot within 2390 time units" (because, for instance, these goods get deteriorated by longer travels):

```prolog
(forever {?t - level}
 (preference C5 (sometime-before
 (and (stored goods4 {?l}) (not (= {?l 0}))
 (stored goods5 {?l}))))

(forever {?l - level}
 (preference C6 (sometime-before
 (and (stored goods3 {?l}) (not (= {?l 0}))
 (stored goods5 {?l}))))
```

### 5 Extensions and Generalization

There is considerable scope for developing the proposed extension. First, and most obviously, modal operators could be allowed to nest. This would allow a rich expressive power in the specification of modal temporal goals. Nesting would allow constraints to be applied to parts of trajectories, as is usual in modal temporal logics. In addition, we could introduce propositions representing that an action appears in a plan.

Other modal operators could be added. We have excluded them PDDL3.0 because we have found that many interesting and challenging goals can be captured without them, and we do not wish to add unnecessarily to the load on potential competitors. The modal operator until would be an obvious one to add. Without nesting, a related always-until and sometime-until would allow expression of goals such as “every time a truck arrives at the depot, it must stay there until loaded” or “when the truck arrives at the depot, it must stay there until cleaned and fully refuelled at least once in the plan”. The formal semantics of always-until and sometime-until can be easily derived from the one of until in LTL. By combining always-until and other modalities we can express complex constraints such as that “whenever the energy of a rover is below 5, it should be at the recharging location within 10 time units and remain there until recharged”:

```prolog
(and (always-until (charged ?r) (at ?r rechargingpoint))
 (always-within 10 (< (charge ?r) 5))
 (at ?r rechargingpoint)))
```

Another modality that would be a useful extension of the expressive power is a complement for within, such as persist, with the semantics that a proposition once made true must persist for at least some minimal period of time. Without nesting, a related always-persist and sometime-persist would allow expression of goals such as “I want to spend at least 2 days in each of the cities on my tour”, or “every time the taxi goes to the station it must wait for at least 10 without a passenger”. The formal semantics of always-persist and sometime-persist is given in Figure 3. A generalisation that would allow within and persist to be combined would be to allow the time specification to be associated with a comparison operator to indicate whether the bound is an upper or lower bound.
We have deliberately not introduced the operator next, which is common in modal temporal logics. This is because concurrent fragments of a plan might cause a state change that is not relevant to the part of the state in which the next condition is intended to apply. Furthermore, the fact that PDDL plans are embedded on a real time line means that the intention behind next is less obviously relevant. We realise that next has been particularly useful in expressing control rules for planners like TALPlanner (Kvarnström & Magnusson 2003) and TLPlan (Bacchus & Kabanza 2000), but our intention in developing this extension is to focus on providing a language that is useful for expressing constraints that govern plan quality, rather than for control knowledge. We believe that the use of always-within captures a much more useful concept for plan quality that is actually a far more realistic constraint in modelling planning problems.

Extensions to the use of soft constraints include the definition of more complex preferences, such as conditional preferences, and a possible qualitative method for expressing priorities over preferences. Moreover, the evaluation of the soft constraints could be extended by considering a degree of constraint violation, such as the amount of time when an always constraint is violated, the delay that falsifies a within constraint, or the number of times an always-after constraint is violated.

6 Conclusions
Planning has been tackling increasingly difficult problems with greater success over recent years. An objective for the community is to move the focus of research towards the solution of problems with increasing relevance to application. In many application areas, the quality of plans is central to their usefulness. It is essential to consider the quality in terms of constraints across the trajectories and in terms of preferences that are imposed by the users. To manage these problems, planning algorithms must have access to this information and we have proposed an extension to PDDL that will provide this. The role of PDDL in forming a common foundation for the extension of existing planning technology has been proven repeatedly over the past 8 years. Although the concepts of constraints, both hard and soft, are not new, even to planning, the adoption of a common language and the basis for benchmarks will play a central role in promoting research into these areas. The interest in the 5th IPC is already a clear demonstration of the way in which the research agenda can be moved forward through the vehicle of PDDL.

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