Determining Action Reversibility in STRIPS Using Epistemic Logic Programs*

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Abstract. In planning and reasoning about action and change, reversibility of actions is the problem of deciding whether the effects of an action can be reverted by applying other actions in order to return to the original state. While this problem has been studied for some time, recently there as been renewed interest in the context of the language PDDL. After reviewing the concepts, in this paper we propose a solution by leveraging an existing translation from PDDL to Answer Set Programming (ASP), which we then use to solve the problem via epistemic logic programs (ELPs). This work provides a sound and complete system for determining reversibility of PDDL actions (restricted to the STRIPS fragment), while also providing insight into the performance of state-of-the-art ELP solvers.

1 Introduction

Traditionally, the field of Automated Planning [14, 15] deals with the problem of generating a sequence of actions—a plan—that transforms an initial state of the environment to some goal state. Actions, in plain words, stand for modifiers of the environment. One interesting question is whether the effects of an action are reversible (by other actions), or in other words, whether the action effects can be undone. Notions of reversibility have previously been investigated; cf. e.g., works by Eiter et al. [10] or by Daum et al. [7].

Studying action reversibility is important for several reasons. Intuitively, actions whose effects cannot be reversed might lead to dead-end states from which the goal state is no longer reachable. Early detection of a dead-end state is beneficial in a plan generation process [16]. Reasoning in more complex structures such as Agent Planning Programs [8] which represent networks of planning tasks where a goal state of one task is an initial state of another is even more prone to dead-ends [4]. Concerning non-deterministic planning, for instance Fully Observable Non-Deterministic (FOND) Planning, where actions have non-deterministic effects, determining reversibility or irreversibility of each set of effects of the action can contribute to early dead-end detection, or to generalizing recovery from

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undesirable action effects which is important for efficient computation of strong (cyclic) plans [2]. Concerning online planning, we can observe that applying reversible actions is safe and hence we might not need to explicitly provide the information about safe states of the environment [6]. Another, although not very obvious, benefit of action reversibility is in plan optimization. If the effects of an action are later reversed by a sequence of other actions in a plan, these actions might be removed from the plan, potentially shortening it significantly. It has been shown that under such circumstances, pairs of inverse actions, which are a special case of action reversibility, can be removed from plans [5].

In [17] we introduced a general framework for action reversibility that offers a broad definition of the term, and generalizes many of the already proposed notions of reversibility, like "undoability" proposed in [7], or the concept of "reverse plans" as introduced in [10]. The concept of reversibility in [17] directly incorporates the set of states in which a given action should be reversible. We call these notions S-reversibility and φ -reversibility, where the set S contains states, and the formula φ describes a set of states in terms of propositional logic. These notions are then further refined to universal reversibility (referring to the set of all states) and to reversibility in some planning task Π (referring to the set of all reachable states w.r.t. the initial state specified in Π). These last two versions match the ones proposed in [7]. Furthermore, our notions can be further restricted to require that some action is reversible by a single "reverse plan" that is not dependent of the state for which the action is reversible. For single actions, this matches the concept of the same name proposed in [10].

The complexity analyses in [17] indicate that several of these tasks can be solved via Epistemic Logic Programs (ELPs). In this paper, we leverage the translations implemented in plasp [9] and produce encodings to effectively solve some reversibility tasks on PDDL domains, restricted, for now, to the STRIPS [11] fragment.

Structure. The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we introduce basic concepts; Section 3 then reviews definitions and properties of different versions of reversibility from [17]; in Section 4 we review the plasp format and present some ELP encodings for reversibility tasks before concluding in Section 5.

2 Background

STRIPS Planning. Let \mathcal{F} be a set of facts, that is, atomic statements about the world. Then, a subset $s \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ is called a state, which intuitively represents a set of facts considered to be true. An action is a tuple $a = \langle pre(a), add(a), del(a) \rangle$, where $pre(a) \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ is the set of preconditions of a, and $add(a) \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ and $del(a) \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ are the add and delete effects of a, respectively. W.l.o.g., we assume actions to be well-formed, that is, $add(a) \cap del(a) = \emptyset$ and $pre(a) \cap add(a) = \emptyset$. An action a is applicable in a state s iff $pre(a) \subseteq s$. The result of applying an action a in a state s, given that a is applicable in s, is the state $a[s] = (s \setminus del(a)) \cup add(a)$.

A sequence of actions $\pi = \langle a_1, \ldots, a_n \rangle$ is applicable in a state s_0 iff there is a sequence of states $\langle s_1, \ldots, s_n \rangle$ such that, for $0 < i \le n$, it holds that a_i is applicable in s_{i-1} and $a_i[s_{i-1}] = s_i$. Applying the action sequence π on s_0 is denoted $\pi[s_0]$, with $\pi[s_0] = s_n$. The length of action sequence π is denoted $|\pi|$.

A STRIPS planning task $\Pi = \langle \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{A}, s_0, G \rangle$ is a tuple consisting of a set of facts $\mathcal{F} = \{f_1, \ldots, f_n\}$, a set of (ground) actions $\mathcal{A} = \{a_1, \ldots, a_m\}$, an initial state $s_0 \subseteq \mathcal{F}$, and a goal specification (or, simply, goal) $G \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. A state $s \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ is a goal state (for Π) iff $G \subseteq s$. An action sequence π is called a plan iff $\pi[s_0] \supseteq G$. We further define several relevant notions w.r.t. a planning task Π . A state s is reachable from state s' iff there exists an applicable action sequence π such that $\pi[s'] = s$. A state $s \in 2^{\mathcal{F}}$ is simply called reachable iff it is reachable from the initial state s_0 . The set of all reachable states in Π is denoted by \mathcal{R}_{Π} . An action a is reachable iff there is some state $s \in \mathcal{R}_{\Pi}$ such that a is applicable in s.

Deciding whether a STRIPS planning task has a plan is known to be PSPACE-complete in general and it is NP-complete if the length of the plan is polynomially bounded [1].

Epistemic Logic Programs (ELPs) and Answer Set Programming (ASP). We assume the reader is familiar with ELPs and will only give a very brief overview of the core language. For more information, we refer to the original paper proposing ELPs [12] (therein named Epistemic Specifications), whose semantics we will use in the present paper.

Briefly, ELPs consist of sets of rules of the form

$$a_1 \vee \ldots \vee a_n \leftarrow \ell_1, \ldots, \ell_m$$
.

In these rules, all a_i are atoms of the form $p(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$, where p is a predicate name, and t_1, \ldots, t_n are terms, that is, either variables or constants. Each ℓ is either an objective or subjective literal, where objective literals are of the form a or $\neg a$ (for a an atom), and subjective literals are of the form $\mathbf{K} l$ or $\neg \mathbf{K} l$, where l is an objective literal. Note that often the operator \mathbf{M} is also used, which we will simply treat as a shorthand for $\neg \mathbf{K} \neg$.

The domain of constants in an ELP P is given implicitly by the set of all constants that appear in it. Generally, before evaluating an ELP program, variables are removed by a process called grounding, that is, for every rule, each variable is replaced by all possible combination of constants, and appropriate ground copies of the rule are added to the resulting program ground(P). In practice, several optimizations have been implemented in state-of-the-art systems that try to minimize the size of the grounding.

The result of a (ground) ELP program P is calculated as follows [12]. An interpretation I is a set of ground atoms appearing in P. A set of interpretations \mathcal{I} satisfies a subjective literal $\mathbf{K} l$ (denoted $\mathcal{I} \models \mathbf{K} l$) iff the objective literal l is satisfied in all interpretations in \mathcal{I} . The epistemic reduct $P^{\mathcal{I}}$ of P w.r.t. \mathcal{I} is obtained from P by replacing all subjective literals ℓ with either \top in case where $\mathcal{I} \models \ell$, or with \bot otherwise. $P^{\mathcal{I}}$, therefore, is an ASP program, that is, a program without subjective literals. The solutions to an ELP P are called world views.

A set of interpretations \mathcal{I} is a world view of P iff $\mathcal{I} = AS(P^{\mathcal{I}})$ [12], where $AS(P^{\mathcal{I}})$ denotes the set of stable models (or answer sets) of the logic program $P^{\mathcal{I}}$ according to the semantics of answer set programming [13]. Checking whether a world view exists for an ELP is known to be $\Sigma_{\mathcal{I}}^{P}$ -complete in general [18].

3 Reversibility of Actions

In this section, we describe the notion of reversibility of actions. In particular, we focus on the notion of uniform reversibility, but note that there are other notions of reversibility which are lied out and explained in detail by Morak et al. [17]. Intuitively, we call an action reversible if there is a way to undo all the effects that this action caused, and we call an action uniformly reversible if its effects can be undone by a single sequence of actions irrespective of the state where the action was applied.

While this intuition is fairly straightforward, when formally defining this concept, we also need to take several other factors into account—in particular, the set of possible states where an action is considered plays an important role [17].

Definition 1. Let \mathcal{F} be a set of facts, \mathcal{A} be a set of actions, $S \subseteq 2^{\mathcal{F}}$ be a set of states, and $a \in \mathcal{A}$ be an action. We call a uniformly S-reversible iff there exists a sequence of actions $\pi = \langle a_1, \ldots, a_n \rangle \in \mathcal{A}^n$ such that for each $s \in S$ wherein a is applicable it holds that π is applicable in a[s] and $\pi[a[s]] = s$.

The notion of uniform reversibility in the most general sense does not depend on a concrete STRIPS planning task, but only on a set of possible actions and states w.r.t. a set of facts. Note that the set of states S is an explicit part of the notion of uniform S-reversibility.

Based on this general notion, it is then possible to define several concrete sets of states S that are useful to consider when considering whether an action is reversible. For instance, S could be defined via a propositional formula over the facts in \mathcal{F} . Or we can consider a set of all possible states $(2^{\mathcal{F}})$ which gives us a notion of uniform reversibility that applies to all possible planning tasks that share the same set of facts and actions (i.e., the tasks that differ only in the initial state or goals). Or we can move our attention to a specific STRIPS instance and ask whether a certain action is uniformly reversible for all states reachable from the initial state.

Definition 2. Let \mathcal{F} , \mathcal{A} , S, and a be as in Definition 1. We call the action a

- 1. uniformly φ -reversible iff a is uniformly S-reversible in the set S of models of the propositional formula φ over \mathcal{F} ;
- 2. uniformly reversible in Π iff a is uniformly \mathcal{R}_{Π} -reversible for some STRIPS planning task Π ; and
- 3. universally uniformly reversible, or, simply, uniformly reversible, iff a is uniformly $2^{\mathcal{F}}$ -reversible.

Given the above definitions, we can already observe some interrelationships. In particular, universal uniform reversibility (that is, uniform reversibility in the set of all possible states) is obviously the strongest notion, implying all the other, weaker notions. It may be particularly important when one wants to establish uniform reversibility irrespective of the concrete STRIPS instance.

The notion of uniform reversibility naturally gives rise to the notion of the reverse plan. We say that some action a has an (S-)reverse plan π iff a is uniformly (S-)reversible using the sequence of actions π . It is interesting to note that this definition of the reverse plan based on uniform reversibility now coincides with the same notion as defined by [10]. Note, however, that in that paper the authors use a much more general planning language.

Even if the length of the reverse plan is polynomially bounded, the problem of deciding whether an action is uniformly $(\varphi$ -)reversible is intractable. In particular, deciding whether an action is universally uniformly reversible (resp. uniformly φ -reversible) by a polynomial length reverse plan is NP-complete (resp. in $\Sigma_{\varrho}^{\rm P}$) [17].

4 Methods

After reviewing the relevant features of *plasp* [9] in Section 4.1, we present our encodings for determining reversibility in Section 4.2.

4.1 The plasp Format

The system plasp [9] transforms PDDL domains and problems into facts. Together with suitable programs, plans can then be computed by ASP solvers—and hence also by ELP solvers, since ELPs are a superset of ASP programs. Given a STRIPS domain with facts \mathcal{F} and actions \mathcal{A} , the following relevant facts and rules will be created by plasp:

```
variable(variable("f")). for all f ∈ F
action(action("a")). for all a ∈ A
precondition(action("a"), variable("f"), value(variable("f"), true))
:- action(action("a")).
for each a ∈ A and f ∈ pre(a)
postcondition(action("a"), effect(unconditional), variable("f"), value(variable("f"), true)) :- action(action("a")).
for each a ∈ A and f ∈ add(a)
postcondition(action("a"), effect(unconditional), variable("f"), value(variable("f"), false)) :- action(action("a")).
for each a ∈ A and f ∈ del(a)
Example 1. The STRIPS domain with F = {f} and actions del-f = ⟨{f},∅,{f}⟩
```

and $add - f = \langle \emptyset, \{f\}, \emptyset \rangle$ is written in PDDL as follows:

```
(define (domain example1 )
(:requirements :strips)
(:predicates (f) )
(:action del-f
   :precondition (f)
   :effect (not (f)))
(:action add-f
   :effect (f)))
```

plasp translates this domain to the following set of rules (plus a few technical facts and rules):

4.2 Reversibility Encodings using ELPs

In this section, we present our ELP encodings for checking whether, in a given domain, there is an action that is uniformly reversible. As we have seen in Section 4.1, the *plasp* tool is able to rewrite STRIPS domains into ASP rules even when no concrete planning instance for that domain is given. We will present two encodings, one for (universal) uniform reversibility, and one that can be used for uniform φ -reversibility.

Note that universal uniform reversibility is computationally easier than φ -uniform reversibility (under standard complexity-theoretic assumptions). For a given action (and polynomial-length reverse plans), the former can be decided in NP, while the latter is harder [17, Theorem 18 and 20]. We will hence start with the encoding for the former problem, which follows a standard guess-and-check pattern.

Universal Uniform Reversibility. As a "database" the encoding takes the output of plasp's translate action [9]. The problem can be solved in NP due to the following Observation (*): in any (universal) reverse plan for some action a, it is sufficient to consider only the set of facts that appear in the precondition of a. If any action in a candidate reverse plan π for a (resp. a itself) contains any other fact than those in pre(a), then π cannot be a reverse plan for a (resp. a is

not uniformly reversible) [17, Theorem 18]. With this observation in mind, we can now describe the (core parts of) our encoding¹.

The encoding makes use of the following main predicates (in addition to several auxiliary predicates, as well as those imported from plasp):

- chosen/1 holds the action to be tested for reversibility.
- holds/3 encodes that some fact (or variable, as they are called in plasp parlance) is set to a certain value at a given time step.
- occurs/2 encodes the candidate reverse plan, saying which action occurs at which time step.

With the intuitive meaning of the predicates defined, firstly, we chose a single action from the available actions and set the initial state as the facts in the precondition of the chosen action. We also say, in line with the Observation (*) above, that only those variables in the precondition are relevant to check for a reverse plan.

```
chosen(A) :- action(action(A)), not &k{-chosen(A)}.
-chosen(A) :- action(action(A)), not &k{ chosen(A)}.
:- chosen(A), chosen(B), A!=B.
onechosen :- chosen(A).
:- not onechosen.

holds(V, Val, 0) :-
    chosen(A),
    precondition(action(A), variable(V), value(variable(V), Val)).
relevant(V) :- holds(V, _, 0).
```

These rules set the stage for the inherent planning problem to be solved to find a reverse plan. In fact, from the initial state defined above, we need to find a plan π that starts with action a (the chosen action), such that after executing π we end up in the initial state again. Such a plan is a (universal) reverse plan. This idea is encoded in the following:

```
time(0..horizon+1).

occurs(A, 1) := chosen(A).
occurs(A, T) := action(action(A)),time(T), T > 1, not &k{-occurs(A, T)}.
-occurs(A, T) := action(action(A)),time(T), T > 1, not &k{occurs(A, T)}.

:- occurs(A,T), occurs(B,T), A!=B.
oneoccurs(T) := occurs(A,T), time(T), T > 0.
:- time(T), T>0, not oneoccurs(T).

caused(V, Val, T) := occurs(A, T),
    postcondition(action(A), _, variable(V), value(variable(V), Val)),
    holds(V2, Val2, T - 1) :
    precondition(action(A), variable(V2), value(variable(V2), Val2)).
```

 $^{^1}$ The full encoding is available here: https://seafile.aau.at/d/373cd25718dc4377afec/.

```
modified(V, T) :- caused(V, _, T).
holds(V, Val, T) :- caused(V, Val, T).
holds(V, Val, T) :- holds(V, Val, T - 1), not modified(V, T), time(T).
```

The above rules guess a potential plan π as described above, and then execute the plan on the initial state (changing facts if this is caused by the application of a rule, and keeping the same facts if they were not modified). The notation in the rule body for caused is an abbreviation for requiring holds for each precondition. Finally, we simply need to check that the plan is (a) executable, and (b) leads from the initial state back to the initial state. This can be done with the following constraints:

```
:- occurs(A, T),
   precondition(action(A), variable(V), value(variable(V), Val)),
   not holds(V, Val, T - 1).

:- occurs(A, T),
   precondition(action(A), variable(V), _),
   not relevant(V).

:- occurs(A, T),
   postcondition(action(A), _, variable(V), _),
   not relevant(V).

noreversal :- holds(V, Val, 0), not holds(V, Val, H+1), horizon(H).
noreversal :- holds(V, Val, H+1), not holds(V, Val, 0), horizon(H).
:- not &k{ ~ noreversal}.
```

The first rule checks that rules in the candidate plan are actually applicable. The next two check that the rules do not contain any facts other than those that are relevant (cf. observation (*) above). Finally, the last three rules make sure that at the maximum time point (i.e. the one given by the externally defined constant "horizon") the initial state and the resulting state of plan π are the same. It is not difficult to verify that any world view of the above ELP (combined with the plasp translation of a STRIPS problem domain) will yield a plan π (encoded by the occurs predicate) that contains the sequence a, a_1, \ldots, a_n of actions, where a_1, \ldots, a_n is a (universal) reverse plan for the action a (each world view consists of precisely one answer set). Note that our encoding yields reverse plans of length exactly as long as set in the "horizon" constant. This completes our encoding for the problem of deciding universal uniform reversibility.

Other Forms of Uniform Reversibility. Using a similar guess-and-check idea as in the previous encoding, we can also check for uniform reversibility for a specified set of states (that is, uniform S-reversibility). Generally, the set S of relevant states is encoded in some compact form, and our encoding therefore, intentionally, does not assume anything about this representation, but leaves the precise checking of the set S open for implementations of a concrete use case. The predicates used in this more advanced encoding are similar to the ones used

in the previous for the universal case above, and hence we will not list them here again. However, in order to encode the for-all-states check (i.e. the check that the candidate reverse plan works in *all* states inside the set S), we now need our world views to contain multiple answer sets: one for each state in S.

The encoding starts off much like the previous one:

```
chosen(A) :- action(action(A)), not &k{-chosen(A)}.
-chosen(A) :- action(action(A)), not &k{ chosen(A)}.
:- chosen(A), chosen(B), A!=B.
onechosen :- chosen(A).
:- not onechosen.

holds(V, Val, 0) :-
chosen(A),
precondition(action(A), variable(V), value(variable(V), Val)).
```

Note that we no longer need to keep track of any set of "relevant" facts, since we now need to consider all the facts that appear inside the actions and in the set S of states. However, we need to open up several answer sets, one for each state. This is done by guessing a truth value for each fact at time step 0.

```
holds(V,Val,0) | -holds(V,Val,0) :-
   variable(variable(V)), contains(variable(V),value(variable(V),Val)).

oneholds(V,0) :- holds(V,Val,0).
:- variable(variable(V)), not oneholds(V,0).
:- holds(V,Val,0), holds(V,Val1,0), Val != Val1.
```

Next, we again guess and execute a plan, keeping track of whether the actions were able to be applied at each particular time step:

```
holds(V, Val, T) := caused(V, Val, T).
holds(V, Val, T) := holds(V, Val, T - 1), not modified(V, T), time(T).
```

Again, the rules above chose a candidate reverse plan π , starting with the action-to-be-checked a, as before. Furthermore, we check applicability: π should be applicable (i.e. at each time step, the relevant action must have been applied, encoded by the third block of rules above), and furthermore, only modified facts (i.e. those affected by an action) can change their truth values from time step to time step. Finally, we again need to make sure that the guessed plan actually returns us to the original state at time step 0.

```
noreversal :- holds(V, Val, 0), not holds(V, Val, H+1), horizon(H).
noreversal :- holds(V, Val, H+1), not holds(V, Val, 0), horizon(H).
:- not &k{ ~ noreversal}.
```

This concludes the main part of our encoding. In its current form, the encoding given above produces exactly the same results as the first encoding given in this section; that is, it checks for universal uniform reversibility. However, the second encoding can be easily modified in order to check uniform S-reversibility. Simply add a rule of the following form to it:

```
:- < check guessed state against set S >
```

This rule should fire precisely when the current guess (that is, the currently considered starting state) does not belong to the set S. This can of course be generalized easily. For example, if set S is given as a formula φ , then the rule should check whether the current guess conforms to formula φ (i.e., encodes a model of φ). Other compact representations of S can be similarly checked at this point. Hence, we have a flexible encoding for uniform S-reversibility that is easy to extend with various forms of representations of set S^2 . This concludes the description of our encodings.

4.3 Experiments

We have conducted preliminary experiments with artificially constructed domains. The domains are as follows:

```
(define (domain rev-i)
(:requirements :strips)
(:predicates (f0) ... (fi))

(:action del-all
   :precondition (and (f0) ... (fi) )
   :effect (and (not (f0)) ... (not (fi))))
(:action add-f0)
```

 $^{^2}$ The full encoding can be found at https://seafile.aau.at/d/373cd25718dc4377afec/.

```
:effect (f0))
...
(:action add-fi
:precondition (fi-1)
:effect (fi)))
```

The action del-all has a universal uniform reverse plan \langle add-f0, ..., add-fi \rangle . We have generated instances from i=1 to i=6 and from i=10 to i=200 with step 10. We have analyzed runtime and memory consumption of two problems: (a) finding the reverse plan of size i (by setting the constant horizon to i) and proving that no other reverse plan exists, and (b) showing that no reverse plan of length i-1 exists (by setting the constant horizon to i-1). We compare the two encodings described in Section 4.2, we refer to the first one as *simple encoding* and the second one as *general encoding*.

We have used plasp 3.1.1 (https://potassco.org/labs/plasp/) and eclingo 0.2.0 (https://github.com/potassco/eclingo) [?] on a computer with a 2.3 GHz AMD EPYC 7601 CPU with 32 cores and 500 GB RAM running CentOS 8. We have set a timeout of 10 minutes and a memory limit of 16GB (which was never exceeded).

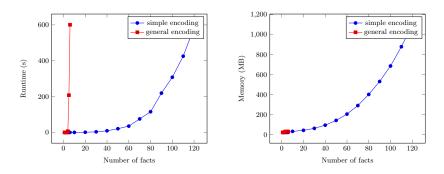


Fig. 1. Calculating the single reverse plan (plan length equals number of facts)

The results for problem (a) are plotted in Figure 1. The general encoding exceeded the time limit already at the problem with six facts, while the simple encoding could solve all problems with up to 120 facts within the time limit. The memory consumption increased with i for both encodings, proportional to the computation time.

The results for problem (b) are plotted in Figure 2. Interestingly, compared to (a), both the general and the simple encoding performed noticably faster. While the general encoding still hit the time limit for six facts, the simple encoding was able to solve all the instances up to our maximum of $\mathbf{i}=200$, but at the expense of increasing memory usage.

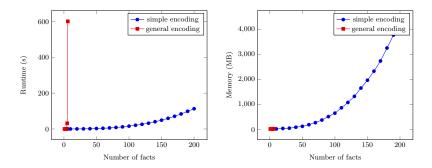


Fig. 2. Determining nonexistence of a reverse plan (plan length equals number of facts minus one)

In total, the general encoding scales worse, as expected, since the ELP solver needs to evaluate all answer sets inside each possible world view. However, for the simple encoding, especially the task of testing for non-reversibility performed surprisingly well. From all of our results, however, we can see that ELP solving still severly trails, in terms of performance, encodings for plain ASP [3].

5 Conclusions

In this paper, we have given a review of several notions of action reversibility in STRIPS planning, as originally presented in [17]. We then proceeded, on the basis of the PDDL-to-ASP translation tool plasp [9], to present two ELP encodings to solve the task of universal uniform reversibility of STRIPS actions, given a corresponding planning domain. When given to an ELP solving system, these encodings, combined with the ASP translation of STRIPS planning domains produced by plasp, then yield a set of world views, each one representing a (universal) reverse plan for each action in the domain, for which such a reverse plan could be found.

The two encodings use two different approaches. The first encoding makes use of a shortcut that allows it to focus only on those facts that appear in the precondition of the action to check for reversibility [17]. The second encoding makes use of the power of world views containing multiple answer sets, which allows for the expression of universal quantifiers via the \mathbf{K} operator. It directly encodes the original definition of uniform reversibility: for an action to be uniformly reversible, there must exists a plan, and this plan must revert that action in all possible starting states (where it is applicable). This second encoding is more flexible insofar as it also allows for the checking of non-universal uniform reversibility (e.g. to check for uniform φ -reversibility, where the starting states are given via some formula φ).

In order to compare the two encodings, we performed some benchmarks on artificially generated instances by checking whether there is an action that is universally uniformly reversible. For the ELP community, it will not come as a surprise that the general encoding was performing much more poorly than the simple encoding, since it needs to deal with a large set of answer sets in each world view. For such encodings to become practical, ELP solvers need to be further optimized. However, the simple encoding showed some promise, but needed an increasing amount of memory with increasing problem sizes, compared to a plain ASP encoding [3].

For future work, we intend to optimize our encodings further, and test them with other established ELP solvers. It would also be interesting to see how they perform when compared to a procedural implementation of the algorithms proposed for reversibility checking by Morak et al. [17]. We would also like to compare our approach to existing tools $RevPlan^3$ (implementing techniques of [10]) and undoability (implementing techniques of [7]).

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