Hot-swapping robot task goals in reactive formal synthesis

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Abstract—We consider the problem of synthesizing robot controllers to realize a task that unpredictably changes with time. Tasks are formally expressed in the GR(1) fragment of temporal logic, in which some of the variables are set by an adversary. The task changes by the addition or removal of goals, which occurs online (i.e., at run-time). We present an algorithm for mending control strategies to realize tasks after the addition of goals, while avoiding global re-synthesis of the strategy. Experiments are presented for a planar surveillance task in which new regions of interest are incrementally added. Run-times are empirically shown to be favorable compared to re-synthesizing from scratch. We also present an algorithm for mending control strategies for the removal of goals. While in this setting the original strategy is still feasible, our algorithm provides a more satisfying solution by “tightening loose ends.” Both algorithms are shown to yield so-called reach annotations, and thus the control strategies are easily amenable to other algorithms concerning incremental synthesis, e.g., as in previous work by the authors for navigation in uncertain environments.

I. INTRODUCTION

The classical view of formal synthesis is as a two-step process, in which one first specifies a task formally in linear temporal logic (LTL) and then constructs a finite-memory strategy to ensure that the specification is met, despite any external inputs [15] (also cf. the original statement in [5] concerning this two-part view). The resulting strategy usually takes the form of a finite-state machine (or automaton; precise definitions are given in Section II), which can be deployed with confidence of correctness provided the task does not change and all environmental assumptions remain valid. While this approach is often viable for digital communication protocols, as studied in the computer-aided verification literature, it clearly is not in robotics, where uncertainty and evolving task details are commonplace. This distinction in prerequisites for success between “pure” computer algorithms and deployed robotics systems is demonstrated well by comparing the optimal search algorithms A* and D* [17].

Early uses of correct-by-construction control synthesis in robotics thus required strong restrictions against possible sensing or actuation uncertainty [12], [11], [10]. As a pre-cursor to recent work concerning relaxations of these restrictions, the degradation of such “perfect-world” controllers in the presence of sensing uncertainty is explored in [9]. Examples of relaxations considered in recent work include weakened time synchronization requirements in distributed applications [4], online changes to the workspace cell decomposition [14], and mapping of initially unknown planar workspaces (assuming perfect localization) [16], [19]. In this paper we are concerned with exact methods, though we note that there is extensive work concerning Markov decision processes subject to (probabilistic) temporal logic specifications.

Besides uncertainties arising from hardware for sensing and actuation and due to missing details (e.g., maps) about the workspace of the robot, the task itself may be a source of uncertainty. In this paper, a task can be uncertain in the sense that it is not entirely fixed before deployment. Note that this is not merely a problem of resolution at which the task is described: we hope to automatically obtain correct-by-construction controllers and thus we are constrained to framing the task requirements in a way amenable to relevant formal synthesis algorithms. A basic part of most robot architectures is the supervisor, a finite-state machine that governs action selection at the level of tasks: “go here”, then “if A is present, then release probe f.” While there is always a granularity at which the task can be expected not to change during execution, we argue that this granularity may be too coarse to yield useful supervisors. For example, Sarid and collaborators have described an algorithm for realizing a task that is quantified over rooms of certain types (classroom or office) [16]. They consider a mapping application and thus the locations and types of rooms are a priori unknown. Their approach is distinct from the first algorithm in the present paper because strategies must be newly entirely created upon discovery of each new entity (room).

Relevant prior work includes Ding et al. [6], which describes a method for realizing a task expressed as an LTL formula while capturing transient rewards that are discovered online. While in the present paper we focus on online adjustments to the task formula itself, [6] presents a method for ensuring a task (or LTL “specification”) is satisfied while allowing for temporary excursions for reward collection.

In this paper, we are concerned with reactive tasks, which can also be viewed as two-player zero-sum games. Here, we mean “reactivity” in the sense used throughout the formal methods literature [15], rather than the sense commonly used in robotics (e.g., as in “reactive motion control”, like in [6]). I.e., synthesis results in strategies that guarantee correctness when facing any adversarial environment, subject to fairness assumptions. This is distinct from control synthesis that seeks to find a controller such that all executions under that controller meet a specification in the absence of an adversary, as in [6] and elsewhere.

The paper is organized as follows. In Section II we outline relevant background material and provide definitions crucial in the present work. This is followed by problem
statements concerning online goal additions and removals. Solutions to the problems are presented in separate parts. First, in Section III, we present and analyze an algorithm for mending strategies for the addition of new goals. Second, in Section IV, we describe what is, informally speaking, the inverse operation: removal of goals online. Finally, simulation experiments are presented in Section V, followed by a physical validation involving localization, mapping and surveillance in Section VI. An extended version of this paper including proofs is available as a technical report [13].

II. PRELIMINARIES AND PROBLEM FORMULATION

We briefly introduce linear temporal logic (LTL), labeled transition systems and the notion of formal synthesis, mostly to fix notation. For introductions to these topics, the reader is directed to [2] and [8].

Let \( \mathcal{X} \) be a set of environment variables, and \( \mathcal{Y} \) a set of robot (or system) variables. Assignments of values to these variables are called discrete states, or simply, states. The set of all discrete states is denoted by \( \Gamma \). We assume that each variable has a finite domain, i.e., in each state it can only be assigned one of finitely many values. If an arbitrary ordering is assigned to the variables \( \mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y} \), then \( \Gamma \) becomes the product of the variable domains, and states are ordered tuples. The restriction of \( \Gamma \) to a subset of variables is indicated by a subscript of that set, e.g., the set of environment states is \( \Gamma_{\mathcal{X}} \).

LTL builds on propositional (Boolean) logic to describe properties of infinite sequences. The crucial temporal operators for the present work are \( \square \) (“always”), \( \diamond \) (“eventually”), and \( \bigcirc \) (“next”). E.g., the Boolean formula (or state formula) \( x = 1 \) asserts that the variable \( x \) takes the value 1. Notice the lack of assertion about when it will happen. The LTL formula \( \square(x = 1) \) asserts that for all time \( x = 1 \). \( \diamond(x = 1) \) asserts that a state will eventually be reached where \( x = 1 \). \( \bigcirc(x = 1) \) is true if \( x = 1 \) at the next time step. Repeatedly reaching states where \( x = 1 \) is expressed by \( \square \bigcirc(x = 1) \).

In this paper, a task is an LTL formula over variables in \( \mathcal{X} \) and \( \mathcal{Y} \). A task is usually provided together with a dynamical systems model of a robot and a workspace that is labeled with some of the system variables.

We focus on task formulae from the fragment GR(1) [3]. These are of the form

\[
\theta_{\text{env}} \land \square \rho_{\text{env}} \land \left( \bigwedge_{j=0}^{m-1} \square \diamond \psi_j^{\text{env}} \right) \implies \theta_{\text{sys}} \land \square \rho_{\text{sys}} \land \left( \bigwedge_{i=0}^{n-1} \square \diamond \psi_i^{\text{sys}} \right)
\]

which is said to be of an assume-guarantee form. \( \theta_{\text{env}} \) and \( \theta_{\text{sys}} \) are initial conditions determining states from which solution trajectories can begin. On the left-side of the implication of (1), \( \rho_{\text{env}} \) is a formula written in terms of \( \mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y} \cup \bigcirc \mathcal{X} \), where \( \bigcirc \mathcal{X} \) indicates environment variables at the next time step. Intuitively, \( \rho_{\text{env}} \) constrains the environment can move given the current state, and as such, it is often called a transition rule. Taken together with the \( \square \) operator applied to it, \( \square \rho_{\text{env}} \) is a safety formula that the environment is assumed to satisfy. The right-side is analogously defined but must be guaranteed in the sense that we want to construct a controller realizing it. The system can move based on the current state and the anticipated environment move, since \( \rho_{\text{sys}} \) is written in terms of \( \mathcal{X} \cup \mathcal{Y} \cup \bigcirc \mathcal{X} \cup \bigcirc \mathcal{Y} \)

Having now shown the form in which tasks are formally expressed, note that throughout the paper, “goals” or “robot goals” refer to formulae \( \psi_i^{\text{sys}} \) appearing on the right-side of (1). In the present work, we do not consider specifications in which the only feasible solutions drive the environment to a dead-end. (Such cases are irrelevant for the present work since liveness conditions and goals are then immaterial.)

Let \( \varphi \) be a GR(1) formula. A strategy automaton for \( \varphi \) is a triple \( (V, \delta, L) \), where \( V \) is a finite set of nodes, \( L : V \rightarrow \Gamma \) is a state labeling, and \( \delta : V \times \Gamma \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow V \) is a partial function that determines successor nodes in \( A \) given inputs from the environment (i.e., states of \( \mathcal{X} \) variables). We abbreviate terminology by also referring to \( A \) as a “strategy” or “automaton”. Note that \( A \) may be regarded as a directed graph \( (V, E) \), where the edges \( E \) are obtained from \( \delta \) by enumerating over possible environment moves from each node, as provided by the LTL formula \( \varphi \). With this graph perspective of automaton \( A \), for any node \( v \in V \), the successor and predecessor sets of \( v \) are defined in the obvious way, and denoted \( \text{Succ}(v) \) and \( \text{Pre}(v) \), respectively. A path is a finite sequence \( (v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k) \) of elements from \( V \) such that \( (v_k, v_{k+1}) \in E \) for \( k \in \{1, \ldots, K-1\} \).

Denote the set of nonnegative integers by \( \mathbb{Z}_+ \). Given \( \varphi \) of the form (1), a state \( s \) is said to be an i-system goal if \( s \) satisfies \( \psi_i^{\text{sys}} \).

Definition 1 (modified from [14]): A reach annotation on a strategy automaton \( A = (V, \delta, L) \) for a GR(1) formula \( \varphi \) is a function \( RA : V \rightarrow \{0, \ldots, n-1\} \times \mathbb{Z}_+ \) that satisfies the following conditions. Write \( RA(v) = (RA_1(v), RA_2(v)) \). Given \( p < q \), the numbers between \( p \) and \( q \) are \( p+1, \ldots, q-1 \), and if \( q \leq p \), then the numbers between \( p \) and \( q \) are \( p+1, \ldots, n-1, 0, \ldots, q-1 \).

1. For each \( v \in V \), \( RA_2(v) = 0 \) if and only if \( L(v) \) is a \( RA_1(v) \)-system goal.
2. For each \( v \in V \) and \( u \in \text{Succ}(v) \), if \( RA_2(v) \neq 0 \), then \( RA_1(v) = RA_1(u) \) and \( RA_2(v) \geq RA_2(u) \).
3. For any path \( (v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_K) \) such that \( RA_2(v_1) = \cdots = RA_2(v_K) \) is \( \psi_j^{\text{env}} \) such that for all \( k \in \{1, \ldots, K\} \), \( L(v_k) \) does not satisfy \( \psi_j^{\text{env}} \).
4. For each \( v \in V \) and \( u \in \text{Succ}(v) \), if \( RA_2(v) = 0 \), then there exists a \( p \) such that for all \( r \) between \( RA_1(v) \) and \( p \), \( L(v) \) is a \( r \)-system goal, and \( RA_1(u) = p \).

Reach annotation was introduced in [14]. A summary of key results for the present work is that a reach annotation can be computed during synthesis in constant time (i.e., does not affect asymptotic complexity), it always exists when there is a strategy automaton, and providing one is sufficient to obtain correctness.

Note that the ordering of system goals is arbitrary but
fixed. In other words, if a function satisfies Definition 1 after permuting the goal modes, then we can immediately construct a reach annotation from it using the permutation. It can be shown that any function that is a reach annotation up to a permutation of the order of goal modes has the same properties as a reach annotation.

It is well-known that initial conditions in \( \varphi \) lead to a set of nodes in the strategy automaton that are not in a strongly-connected component. In other words, these nodes are transiently occupied in all plays, i.e., there is always a finite time horizon after which they can never be returned to, under any play. While one can always ensure that such a prefix of nodes is present, in practice strategy sizes can be reduced by incorporating this prefix so that it is not transient. Throughout this paper, we assume such a compression has not been performed. This assumed form of the given strategy automata is crucial for correctness results proven in Sections III-C and IV-C.

Let \( \zeta \) be a Boolean formula. The set of states satisfying it is denoted \( \text{Sat}(\zeta) \). Conversely, let \( S \) be a set of discrete states. The Boolean formula that is satisfied precisely on \( S \) is denoted \( \chi_S \). It should be clear that \( \text{Sat}(\chi_S) = S \) and \( \chi_{\text{Sat}(\zeta)} = \zeta \).

Let \( A \) and \( B \) be sets of states, and let \( \varphi \) be of the form (1). The \textit{reachability game} from \( A \) to \( B \), denoted Reach\(_\varphi(A,B)\), is the reactive LTL formula

\[
\chi_A \land \square \rho_{\text{env}} \land \left( \bigwedge_{j=0}^{m-1} \square \diamond \psi_{j}^{\text{env}} \right) \implies \square \rho_{\text{sys}} \land \diamond \chi_B.
\]

Intuitively it provides the same transition rules and liveness (environment) assumptions as \( \varphi \), amid the task of reaching some state in \( B \) from any initial state in \( A \). When realizable, it admits strategies of a similar form to strategy automata together with an abbreviated form of reach annotation [14].

In this paper we make use of an objective function on discrete states, which we take to measure distance (but see discussion in Section III-B). This could arise, for instance, from a discrete abstraction on the workspace and continuous robot dynamics [1], [18]. Since in the scope of the present work we do not need anything else from the underlying dynamical system, we do not present how such abstractions can be obtained and instead refer only to “discrete states” throughout the paper. Finding discrete abstractions in general settings is a topic of current research in the hybrid control systems community.

We are now ready to state the problems solved in this paper. Let \( \varphi \) be a GR(1) formula, as in (1), and let \( A = (V,\delta,L) \) be a strategy automaton that realizes \( \varphi \).

\textbf{Problem 1}: Given a Boolean formula \( \zeta \), defined over the same variables as \( \varphi \), find a strategy automaton realizing \( \varphi' \), the extension of \( \varphi \) that includes \( \square \diamond \zeta \), or determine that \( \varphi' \) is unrealizable.

\textbf{Problem 2}: Given an index \( i \in \{0,1,\ldots,n-1\} \), find a strategy automaton realizing \( \varphi' \), the formula obtained by deleting \( \square \diamond \psi_{i}^{\text{sys}} \) from \( \varphi \), or determine that \( \varphi' \) is unrealizable.

\section{Adding Goals}

Intuitively, Problem 1 concerns a task in which a goal, i.e., a desirable state that must be visited by the robot infinitely often, is to be added. Note that in practice if one goal can be added, we would expect it possible for more to be requested. Iterating the statement of Problem 1 provides the more general problem of incremental addition of a sequence of new goals \( \zeta_1,\zeta_2,\ldots \). Obviously traditional methods are still applicable here: upon receiving a request to add \( \zeta \), we can simply discard the entire original automaton \( A \) and synthesize for \( \varphi' \) from scratch. However, in some cases we can reduce the time and amount of computation required, as demonstrated empirically in Section V.

\subsection{Overview}

Before presenting the algorithm, we provide a conceptual overview of it. Let \( \varphi \) be a GR(1) formula with \( n \) goals (cf. (1)), and let \( A = (V,\delta,L) \) be a strategy automaton realizing it. Let \( \zeta \) be a Boolean formula over the same variables as \( \varphi \). Omitting initial conditions and transition rules, which are unchanged from \( \varphi \), the new task formula \( \varphi' \) in terms of environment liveness and robot goals is

\[
\bigwedge_{j=0}^{m-1} \square \diamond \psi_{j}^{\text{env}} \implies \left( \bigwedge_{i=0}^{n-1} \square \diamond \psi_{i}^{\text{sys}} \wedge \square \diamond \zeta \right).
\]

Recall from Section II that there is a reach annotation \( RA \) for \( A \), and that \( RA_1 \) gives the mode for each node. (Recall \( RA_1 \) denotes the first number in the pair \( RA(v) \) for automaton nodes \( v \in V \).) Roughly speaking, from any \( v \in V \), the strategy is seeking to reach a state that satisfies \( \psi_{RA_1(v)}^{\text{sys}} \), i.e., a state satisfying the goal with index \( RA_1(v) \). Being a correct realization, \( A \) ensures that such a state will be reached, provided the environment is fair, at which step the mode of the current automaton node is incremented modulo \( n \). Call the set of nodes where the desired goal is reached \( G_{RA_1(v)} \). We can thus broadly view the strategy automaton as moving among node subsets \( G_i \) in which task \( \varphi \) goals are reached.

The crux of our algorithm is to find which of the existing goals is nearest to the new goal \( \zeta \) and then to insert a substrategy that visits \( \zeta \)-states after \( G_i \), where \( \psi_{i}^{\text{sys}} \) is that nearest goal. The major steps of the algorithm are as follows.

1) Suppose that we are given a function on pairs of discrete states, which we later call Dist(). Compute this function over \( \zeta \)-states paired with \( \psi_{0}^{\text{sys}} \)-states, then paired with \( \psi_{1}^{\text{sys}} \)-states, etc.

2) For the original robot goals, \( \psi_{i}^{\text{sys}} \) and \( \psi_{i+1}^{\text{sys}} \) (index arithmetic is modulo \( n \)), find all nodes in the strategy automaton that are meant to reach it, i.e., satisfy that goal and are the consequence of pursuing that goal or any other within the range of goals met at that node. Call these sets \( G_i \) and \( G_{i+1} \), respectively.

3) Solve a reachability game from \( G_i \) to \( \zeta \)-states.

4) Let \( H \) be the set of \( \zeta \)-states actually reached in the previous step. Solve a reachability game from \( H \) to \( G_{i+1} \).
Algorithm 1. Details on several parts of it follow.

B. Algorithm

This illustration, our algorithm proceeds basically as follows.

1) The existing goal cells $G_{i}$ is cell $(1, 0)$ (index 0) and $(0, 1)$ (index 1) are equidistant from the new goal $(0, 0)$. Thus we arbitrarily select the first, i.e., $i^* = 0$.

2) Clearly $G_0 = \{v_3\}$ and $G_1 = \{v_1\}$.

3) The reachability game to go from $L(G_0) = \{(1, 0)\}$ to the set of $\zeta$-states (i.e., $\{(0, 0)\}$) is obviously solved by a two-node strategy that moves one cell up.

4) A two-node strategy solves the reachability game from $(0, 0)$ to $L(G_1) = \{(0, 1)\}$.

5) In the original automaton, the old node $v_4$ would have been visited after $G_0$. It is now deleted, and replaced by the strategies found in the previous two steps, applied in sequence.

5) Delete existing paths in $A$ from $G_i \rightarrow G_{i+1}$, and append strategies from the two previous reach games in sequence in their place.

A small illustration of our approach in a trivial, deterministic $3 \times 2$ gridworld is Figure 1. The setting in Figure 1 is deterministic because there is no adversarial environment; the robot simply moves among cells as on a 4-connected grid. The original task is to visit $(0, 1)$ and $(1, 0)$ repeatedly. An automaton $A$ realizing it is given on the left-side of Figure 1. The new goal $\zeta$ is cell $(0, 0)$, the reaching of which requires that we either modify $A$ or create an entirely new one. In this illustration, our algorithm proceeds basically as follows.

1) The existing goal cells $(1, 0)$ (index 0) and $(0, 1)$ (index 1) are equidistant from the new goal $(0, 0)$. Thus we arbitrarily select the first, i.e., $i^* = 0$.

2) Clearly $G_0 = \{v_3\}$ and $G_1 = \{v_1\}$.

3) The reachability game to go from $L(G_0) = \{(1, 0)\}$ to the set of $\zeta$-states (i.e., $\{(0, 0)\}$) is obviously solved by a two-node strategy that moves one cell up.

4) A two-node strategy solves the reachability game from $(0, 0)$ to $L(G_1) = \{(0, 1)\}$.

5) In the original automaton, the old node $v_4$ would have been visited after $G_0$. It is now deleted, and replaced by the strategies found in the previous two steps, applied in sequence.

B. Algorithm

Our method for online addition of goals is given in Algorithm 1. Details on several parts of it follow.

- Line 3: The “distance” function Dist may be more appropriately called an objective function since its purpose is to decide which of the original goals should provide a branching-off point to pursue $\zeta$-states in the sub-strategies. Thus it can be any heuristic, not necessarily one based on physical distance. When goals correspond to waypoints in a robot workspace, Euclidean distance is a natural heuristic. In our experiments described in Section V, we use a 1-norm to good effect. Note that our results do not depend on Dist having any particular properties. E.g., we could always select $i^* := 1$.

- Lines 4–16: Intuitively, $G_i$ is the set of nodes where the robot satisfies the task goal $\psi^{\text{goal}}_{i^*}$ and intended to do so. The complicated conditional statement compares changes in the mode, given by RA$_1$, with $i^*$ to find when this occurs. Recall the definition of reach annotation RA from Section II.

- Lines 21, 27: If one of the reachability games is infeasible, then abort. Note that in general it does not follow that the addition of goal $\zeta$ has rendered the task unrealizable. Consult analysis in Section III-C.

- Line 29: Delete original nodes whose use is now replaced by the sub-strategies found in previous steps. The transition function $\delta$ is also updated accordingly.

- Lines 29–32: The final steps are to assemble a new strategy automaton $A'$ and a reach annotation RA$'$ for it by mending the original with sub-strategies $A_{i^*} \rightarrow \zeta = (V_{i^*} \rightarrow \zeta, \delta_{i^*} \rightarrow \zeta, L_{i^*} \rightarrow \zeta)$ and $A_{\zeta \rightarrow i^* + 1}$ found by this step in the algorithm. The new labeling $L' : V' \rightarrow \Gamma$ is built directly from the components,

\[
L'(v) := \begin{cases} 
L(v) & \text{if } v \in V, \\
L_{i^* \rightarrow \zeta}(v) & \text{if } v \in V_{i^*} \rightarrow \zeta, \\
L_{\zeta \rightarrow i^* + 1}(v) & \text{otherwise},
\end{cases}
\]

for $v \in V'$, where it is important to notice that the component node sets are disjoint, i.e., $V'$ is a disjoint union of $V$, $V_{i^*} \rightarrow \zeta$, and $V_{\zeta \rightarrow i^* + 1}$. RA$'$ is defined in a similar manner,

\[
RA'(v) := \begin{cases} 
RA(v) & \text{if } v \in V, \\
RA_{i^* \rightarrow \zeta}(v) & \text{if } v \in V_{i^*} \rightarrow \zeta, \\
RA_{\zeta \rightarrow i^* + 1}(v) & \text{otherwise}.
\end{cases}
\]

We omit details concerning the creation of $\delta'$. It is straightforward but tedious (details for a similar process are in [14]).

C. Results

Here we summarize correctness of Algorithm 1. Proof of this and demonstration of its incompleteness given in [13].

Theorem 2: Let $A = (V, \delta, L)$ be a strategy automaton realizing a GR(1) formula $\varphi$, and which has a reach annotation RA. Let $\zeta$ be a Boolean formula over the same variables as $\varphi$, and let $\varphi'$ be the extension of $\varphi$ to include $\zeta$ as a goal. If Algorithm 1 returns a strategy automaton $A' = (V', \delta', L')$ and a map RA$'$, then they are correct with respect to $\varphi'$, i.e., $A'$ realizes $\varphi'$ and RA$'$ is a reach annotation for $A'$.

The new task formula $\varphi'$ is strictly harder than the original in the sense that any behavior by the robot that meets the new formula necessarily also meets the original, which is intuitively expected given the only change is the addition of a goal to be visited infinitely often. The following remark summarizes this observation.

Remark 3: Any play that is correct with respect to $\varphi'$ is correct with respect to $\varphi$.

The previous remark can also be alternatively expressed in terms of language containment, i.e., $L(\varphi') \subseteq L(\varphi)$. 
Algorithm 1 Append a new goal ζ
1: INPUT: automaton A = (V, δ, L), reach annotation RA, distance function Dist, Boolean formula ϕ.
2: OUTPUT: augmented automaton A’ and reach annotation RA’.
3: i∗ := argmin_v_i=0,1,...,n−1 Dist (ψ^sys_v, ζ).
4: G_i∗ := ∅
5: for all v ∈ V do
6: for all u ∈ Pre(v) do
7: if (RA1(u) < RA1(v)
8: ∧ RA1(u) ≤ i∗ ∧ RA1(v) > i∗)
9: ∨ (RA1(u) > RA1(v)
10: ∧ (RA1(u) = 0 ∧ RA1(v) > i∗)) then
11: G_i∗ := G_i∗ ∪ {u}
12: else
13: break //Skip to next iteration of outer for-loop
14: end if
15: end for
16: end for
17: Construct the set G_i∗+1 in an entirely similar manner to G_i∗, but now for the goal mode i∗ + 1.
18: if Reach_ϕ(G_i∗, Sat(ζ)) is realizable then
19: Synthesize strategy automaton A_i∗→ζ for the reachability game Reach_ϕ(G_i∗, Sat(ζ)).
20: else
21: abort
22: end if
23: Set G_ζ to all nodes in A_i∗→ζ that do not have outgoing edges.
24: if Reach_ϕ(G_ζ, G_i∗+1) is realizable then
25: Synthesize strategy automaton A_ζ→i∗+1 for the reachability game Reach_ϕ(G_ζ, G_i∗+1).
26: else
27: abort
28: end if
29: V := V \ RA_1−1(i∗ + 1)
30: V’ := V \ V_i∗→ζ ∪ V_ζ→i∗+1
31: Set L’ and δ’ consistent with appending A_i∗→ζ and A_ζ→i∗+1 to A.
32: Define RA’ on V’ so that it agrees with RA on V, RA_i∗→ζ on V_i∗→ζ, and RA_ζ→i∗+1 on V_ζ→i∗+1.

IV. REMOVING GOALS

Problem 2 is like an inverse of Problem 1. An initial task has been made simpler by removing one of the goals that was to be repeatedly visited. For example, this could mean that a region of interest in a surveillance task has been permanently discarded. While it indeed suffices to continue using A without modification (consult analysis in Section IV-C), this could be wasteful in long- or indefinitely-running robots, where even if the difference in the number of goals added and deleted remains bounded, the strategy automaton itself will grow without bound. Besides, we are practically motivated by keeping strategies succinct when possible. Algorithm 2 solves Problem 2 by pruning the given initial strategy automaton while recovering a reach annotation.

A. Overview

Before presenting the algorithm and proving properties about it, we provide a conceptual overview. Let ϕ be a GR(1) formula with n goals (cf. (1)), and let A = (V, δ, L) be a strategy automaton realizing it. Let i ∈ {0, 1, ... , n−1} be the index of the goal removed from the original task formula. Omitting initial conditions, transition rules, and the environment liveness assumptions, which are unchanged from ϕ, the new task formula ϕ’ in terms of robot goals is

□ □ ψ^sys_0 ∧ ... ∧ □ □ ψ^sys_i−1 ∧ □ □ ψ^sys_i+1 ∧ ... ∧ □ □ ψ^sys_{n−1}.

(5)

Recall from Section II and the discussion in Section III-A that the modes provided by the first part of the reach annotation RA1 indicate the robot goal RA1(v) currently being pursued from any automaton node v. This permits viewing the set of nodes as being partitioned according to mode. Thus, if we wish to remove the goal ψ^sys_i from the task, we can delete nodes with mode i and mode i + 1, and replace them with a substrategy that seeks ψ^sys_i-states from the loose ends.

B. Algorithm

Our method for online removal of goals is given in Algorithm 2. Details on several parts of it follow.

• Line 4: This reachability game always has a solution, i.e., is realizable. Consult the analysis in Section IV-C.
• Line 5–8: The patching process here closely follows that used in Section III-B, and thus we omit explicit instructions.

C. Results

Here we summarize correctness and completeness of Algorithm 2. Proofs are in [13].

As alluded to earlier, after removing a robot goal, the synthesis problem becomes easier in a sense made precise by the following remark. (Compare it with Remark 3.)
Remark 4: Any play that is correct with respect to $\varphi$ is correct with respect to $\varphi'$.

Lemma 5: The reachability game $\text{Reach}_{\varphi'}(G_{i-1}, G_{i+1})$, appearing on line 4 of Algorithm 2 is always realizable, i.e., there is at least one substrategy solving it under the transition rules of $\varphi'$.

Theorem 6: Let $A$ be a strategy automaton realizing $\varphi$ with reach annotation $Ra$. Let $i \in \{0, 1, \ldots, n - 1\}$ be the index of the goal $\psi_i^{\varphi'}$ to be deleted from $\varphi$, yielding the new task $\varphi'$. Then $A'$ returned by Algorithm 2 on these inputs realizes $\varphi'$, and $Ra'$ is a reach annotation.

Theorem 7: Algorithm 2 is complete, i.e., if $\varphi'$ is realizable, then Algorithm 2 will find a strategy automaton $A'$ realizing it.

Note that no guarantees are provided about the optimality of strategy automata obtained from Algorithm 2. However, it is easy to ensure that the pruned strategy $A'$ goes from goal with index $i - 1$ to that of index $i + 1$ in at most as many steps than if we did nothing (i.e., if we kept the original $A$).

V. Numerical Experiment

Implementations of methods described in this paper are provided in gr1c (http://scottman.net/2012/gr1c). A Python interface together with infrastructure for repeating the experiments described here will soon be distributed with TuLiP (http://tulip-control.org) [20].

A. Methods

Random 4-connected grids—called “gridworlds”—of size $32 \times 32$ were randomly generated to contain blocks at a density of 0.2. An initial system goal is randomly placed in gridworld, together with 1 or 2 moving obstacles, as illustrated in Figure 2. A nominal control strategy is then obtained. Then, 9 additional system goals are randomly placed in an empty cell. Upon addition of each new goal, Algorithm 1 and global re-synthesis are each applied. $\text{Dist}()$ is implemented as the 1-norm.

B. Results

For the case of one moving obstacle mean times (over 19 trials) of global re-synthesis and patching are shown in Figure 3. For the case of two moving obstacles mean times (over 17 trials) of global re-synthesis and patching are shown in Figure 4.

C. Discussion

In the case of incremental addition of goals, it is apparent from Figure 3 that the rate of increase in time required to append a substrategy using Algorithm 1 is slower than the rate of increase in global re-synthesis times. This difference suggests that the marginal cost of parsing and manipulating larger strategy automata, as in major steps of Algorithm 1 is much smaller than the marginal cost of constructing and solving an additional goal as part of global re-synthesis. In terms of asymptotic computational complexity, this empirical observation is not theoretically surprising because the two reachability games solved as part of Algorithm 1 (to reach new goal states and then return to the original strategy automaton) have lower alternation numbers than the full GR(1) synthesis problem [3], [7].
The impressive performance gain shown in Figure 3 is somewhat lessened in Figure 4. The only difference between the two settings is the number of moving obstacles. This may be due to the exponentially increasing (global) problem size with the addition of each environment variable, so that for small numbers of system goals, as in this experiment, improvements in speed achieved by our method are dominated by nondeterminism imposed by the adversarial game.

VI. PHYSICAL VALIDATION

Based on the same implementation used in the simulation experiments described in the previous section, we successfully deployed Algorithm 1 on a differential drive robot equipped with a Hokuyo laser range finder. In summary, we use ROS (www.ros.org) packages providing on-board odometric estimates (wheel encoders and accelerometer of the Kobuki mobile base) together with the ROS gmapping package to proceed in two steps. First, an occupancy grid of the surrounding area is built. After a fixed period of time, we take a snapshot of the map and overlay a coarse gridworld on it, marking cells as blocked if occupancy probability is above a threshold. The robot then begins surveillance by initializing with three random points of interest (system goals) and visits them infinitely often. New points of interest are randomly added every 30 seconds. A depiction of the setting is shown in Figure 5. The floor space has an area of 6.7 m × 7.3 m. The initial map-building duration was 7 minutes (420 seconds).

VII. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

In this paper we considered tasks expressed in the GR(1) fragment of LTL, and presented methods to tractably cope with changes to the task due to the addition or removal of robot goals provided incrementally, online. Future work will include long-running physical experiments, based on the preliminary validation described in the present paper. As remarked in Section III-B, none of the results depend on the function Dist. An important topic for future work is studying whether an appropriately chosen Dist can iteratively lead to an optimal solution.

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