

# Automatic Implementation Generation for Pervasive Applications

by

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Submitted to the Department of Electrical Engineering and Computer  
Science

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Engineering in Electrical Engineering and Computer Science

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## Abstract

Pervasive computing promises to put computers in almost every corner of our life. Unfortunately, it also promises to make programmers' jobs harder since they cannot know what components are available in the run-time environment and as such, cannot statically plan out their programs. To help this situation, we propose goal-oriented programming, which may be more amenable to programming pervasive applications.

Goal-oriented programming adds a level of indirection between Goals, high-level intentions such as "make me available for chat," and Techniques, the code that implements the intentions. Each Technique is a combination of code and prerequisite subgoals, so that a Technique can be itself goal-oriented.

By decomposing an application this way, it is possible to automatically build parts of it based on the runtime environment. When an application would like a Goal satisfied, the implementation Planner first finds Techniques that can satisfy the Goal, and then recurses to satisfy the Techniques' subgoals. After a sufficient number of Techniques are found, the Planner evaluates the Techniques in some user-defined way, and chooses a set to execute.

This work focuses on programming framework that isolates the planning aspect of goal-oriented programming from the Goals and Techniques themselves. We provide a reference Planner and evaluate its how well the Planner performs in simulation.

Thesis Supervisor: Steve Ward

Title: Professor



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# Chapter 1

## Introduction

Pervasive computing promises to put computers in almost every corner of our life. Conventional computers will interact with new computers in appliances, cars, buildings, and other electronic jewelry. In such a world, users will expect their devices to be aware of their environment and maintain services in the face of radical changes in the computational environment.

For example, suppose Alyssa would like to communicate with Ben. In a pervasive computing environment, all Alyssa should do is request a conference with Ben and the environment should take care of the rest. If both parties both have phones, perhaps a phone call is the best way to conference, while if they have access to video equipment, the two should be connected by video. In other words, the conference software should make use of the best components available in the environment. Furthermore, suppose that after establishing the conference, Alyssa needs to walk out of her office, but would like to continue talking with Ben. When Alyssa leaves, the conference should switch over to using her cellular phone, since it is the best way for her to stay connected and be mobile.

An application that supports such a rich variety of conferences is hard to program. In a traditional computing environment, it is nearly impossible: Alyssa and Ben would need to agree beforehand what kind of conference they want, fire up their conferencing software, and restart the conference when some parameters of the conference (such as location) change. Pervasive environments typically offer a variety of

frameworks to make this task easier, ranging from discovery tools to pluggable components. However, even with such frameworks, the programmer cannot know what components are available in the environment and as a consequence, cannot statically plan programs.

Luckily, the programmer still has control over and can statically plan two levels of a pervasive application. The first is the high-level intents the application has. The second level is the many individual recipes that implement intentions. What is needed, therefore, is a framework for dynamically choosing, instantiating, and connecting code modules to maintain some higher-level intent.

## 1.1 Goal-oriented Programming

This thesis proposes Goal-oriented programming as a way of constructing pervasive applications. Goal-oriented programming makes explicit the separation between intent and implementation. The hope is that by exploiting the underspecified nature of many intents, the system can automatically choose among different ways of implementing each intent.

In a Goal-oriented program, the application asks a Planner to satisfy a high-level intent—embodied as a Goal. The Planner then matches the Goal against a repository of Techniques satisfying the Goal. If there are many Techniques satisfying the Goal, the Planner must choose one among them. Next, the Planner executes the Techniques it has chosen. Finally, as the environment changes, the Planner revisits its set of chosen Techniques and may choose a new set to satisfy the Goal in the changed environment.

Goal-oriented programming offers two key advantages over existing programming methodologies:

1. A Goal may be satisfied in a myriad of ways, each of which is best suited at different times. Since the Planner evaluates and monitors each of the Techniques satisfying a Goal, the Planner may progressively refine its implementation as the environment changes.

2. New capabilities may be built into old applications by simply adding new Techniques. The Planner will incorporate the new Techniques in the course of satisfying future Goals.

These advantages greatly ease the job of writing an adaptive pervasive application.

## 1.2 The O2S System

Goal-oriented programming is motivated, in part, by our experience maintaining application services in O2S[13], a typical pervasive computing environment. O2S gives programmers three primitive types—Resources, Events, and Connectors—on top of which the programmer can layer any pervasive application. Resources are generic network objects that provide access to services through synchronous requests. Events are asynchronous messages and notifications generated by Resources. Finally, Connectors are low-overhead network sockets that can be used to stream data between two Resources. In addition to the primitive types, O2S also provides a framework to discover and acquire additional resources, as well as monitor the health of the existing resources.

Hence, O2S provides an environment where pervasive applications can be composed by discovering resources, connecting them together, and handling events as necessary. However, much of this work is mundane and, moreover, error-prone as the programmer must be careful to handle all execution modes. To make matters worse, the logic of handling failures and adapting to changing environments is often scattered in many parts of the program, making it hard to maintain. Finally, even given perfect adaptability, making rich use of the computing environment is difficult since knowledge of new capabilities needs to be built into the application before they can be used.

Goal-oriented programming provides a way to mechanize much of this work as well as a way of concentrating adaptation logic in the Planner.

## 1.3 Thesis Outline

The next two chapters present an overview of Goal-oriented programming and related work. Subsequently, Chapter 4 outlines the constraints and goals we tried to meet when creating our design. Chapters 5 and 6 detail our final design and implementation. Chapter 7 evaluates our implementation. Finally, Chapter 8 outlines future work and concludes.



# Chapter 2

## Overview of Goal-oriented Programming

Goal-oriented programming centers around three main concepts: Goals, Techniques, and the Planner.

### 2.1 Goals

A Goal is a parameterized specification of a class of high-level applications intents or desires. A Goal instantiated with a particular set of parameters is formalized as a Goal Instance. Goals specify both the type and meaning of their parameters as well as the type of value returned by a particular Goal Instance.

A Goal is analagous to a function specification. Likewise, a Goal Instance is much like a function call. However, there are a few differences between function calls and Goal Instances:

1. The usual job of a function call perform a calculation or mutatae state. A Goal Instance, on the other hand, maintains an intent. In the process of maintaining the intent, the Goal Instance may perform many of the same actions that a function call may. However, unlike the “call and return” semantics of a function call, a Goal Instance persists until an application no longer needs the intent

maintained. In other words, a function call executes once, while a Goal Instance runs continually and adapts as the environment changes.

2. A function call maps to exactly one body, while a Goal Instance has many ways of being satisfied. It is the responsibility of the Planner to match appropriate Techniques to the Goal Instance and make sure that these Techniques still satisfy the Goal as the environment changes.

## 2.2 Techniques

A Technique is a parameterized template for satisfying a Goal. A Technique itself may be goal-oriented by declaring prerequisite subgoals that the Planner must satisfy. Goal Instances are satisfied by Technique Instances, which are Technique objects with their parameters bound to the parameters of the Goal Instance that the Technique Instance is to satisfy. Each Technique declares which class of Goals it can satisfy. However, at runtime each Technique Instance works with the Planner to decide how well, if at all, it can satisfy its particular Goal Instance. This is necessary since the Planner must make an informed decision among the many Technique Instances that satisfy any particular Goal Instance.

Since Techniques are recipes for satisfying Goals, a Technique contains arbitrary code that allows it to interact with the Planner, its own subgoals, and the world at large. Conceptually, a Technique's code is use to:

1. Help the Planner determine how well a Technique Instance satisfies its Goal Instance,
2. Form the implementation that actually satisfies the Goal Instance, and
3. Adapt the Technique Instance to a changing environment.

## 2.3 Planner

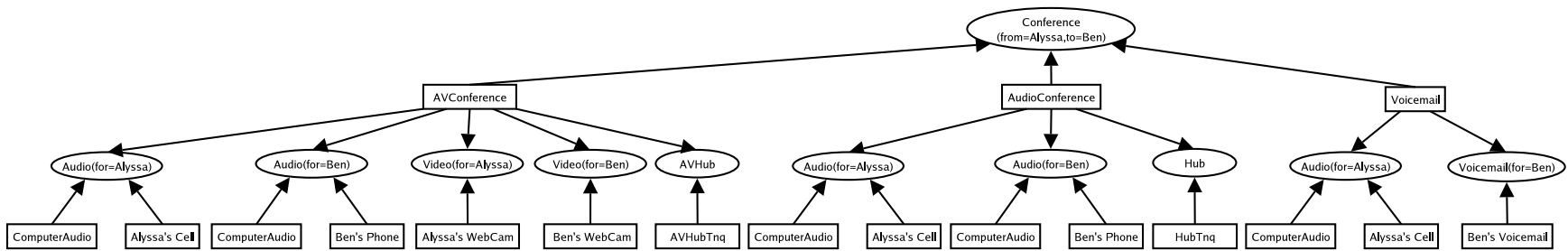
The Planner is responsible for building implementations that satisfy Goal Instances. In order to do this, the Planner maintains a *Plan Tree* that encodes all of the possible ways of satisfying the top-level Goal Instance. The Plan Tree takes the form of an AND/OR tree since each Goal Instance can be satisfied by any one Technique Instance, but each Technique Instance needs all of its subgoals satisfied. There are many ways the top-level Goal Instance may be satisfied: a particular walk through the Plan Tree encodes a single way of satisfying the Goal instance. We call the Technique Instances in this walk a *Plan*.

Given this setup, from a high-level, the job of the Planner is to satisfy Goal Instances by:

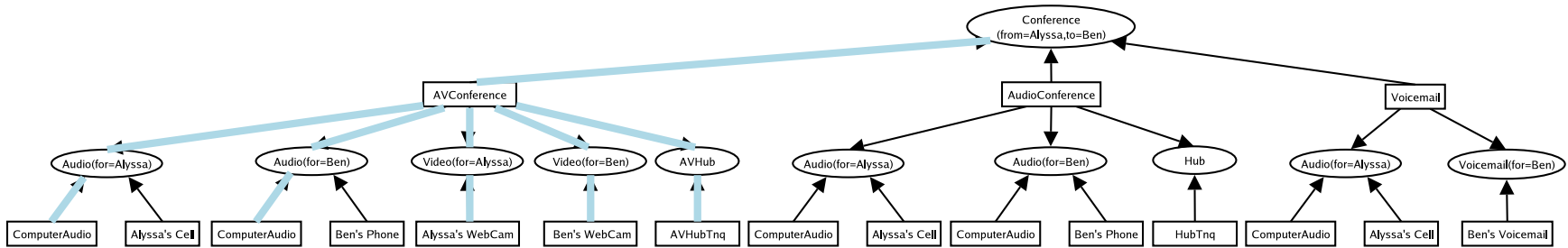
1. Recursively constructing a Plan Tree,
2. Evaluating each of the Plans in the Plan Tree,
3. Choosing one Plan and executing it, and
4. Monitoring the chosen Plan and choosing a new one as changes warrant.

## 2.4 An Example: Goal-oriented Conferencing

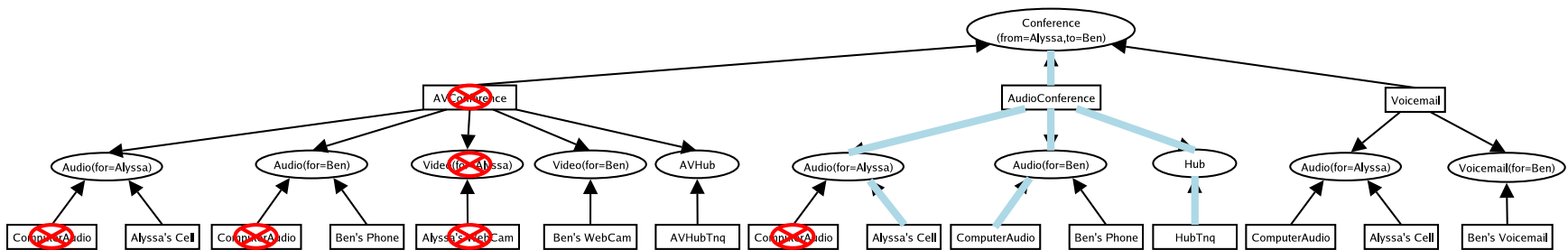
In order to solidify the concepts of the Goal-oriented paradigm, consider the Conferencing task of the introduction. Figure 2-1 illustrates the example. In the goal-oriented system, the entire Conferencing task is represented by the Goal Instance `Conference(from=Alyssa, to=Ben)`. When Alyssa requests satisfaction of this Goal, her Planner will try to find Techniques that satisfy the Goal Instance. In this case, it finds `AVConference`, `AudioConference`, and `Voicemail` and instantiates these Techniques with the parameters `{from=Alyssa, to=Ben}` to form three Technique Instances. In Figure 2-1(a), these form the second level of the plan tree. Each of these Technique Instances specifies subgoals based on its parameters. The `AudioConference` Technique Instance, for example, requires `Audio` for Alyssa, `Audio`



(a) The fully constructed plan tree before any selection has been made.



(b) The first Conferencing Plan, connecting Alyssa to Ben using Video.



(c) The second Conferencing Plan, initiated after Alyssa leaves her office. Note that several Techniques have failed, and as a consequence new ones were chosen.

Figure 2-1: Stages of a Goal-oriented Teleconference

for Ben, and a **Hub**. The **Audio** subgoals provide duplex audio, while the **Hub** connects the audio streams together. The Planner continues recursively constructing the Plan Tree until it bottoms out at Technique Instances with no sub-goals.

Once the tree has been built, the Planner will decide which Plan in the Plan Tree best satisfies the **Conference** Goal Instance. Assume that initially, Alyssa and Ben both have duplex audio and video connections on their computers and they are both in their offices. The Planner realizes that it can use these resources so it executes the Plan of Figure 2-1(b).

The Planner continually monitors its executed Plan. Suppose Alyssa leaves her office. After leaving, she no longer has video capabilities and her audio capabilities are limited to her phone. This causes her **ComputerAudio** and **WebCam** Techniques Instances to fail. As a consequence, the **AVConference**'s subgoal of **Video(for=Alyssa)** is no longer implementable, so the **AVConference** Technique Instance itself fails. The Planner recognizes this and chooses the next best implementable option: fail-over to the **AudioConference** Technique Instance using Alyssa's phone for her audio connection and Ben's computer for his. Figure 2-1(c) shows failures and the new Plan.

Finally, when either Alyssa or Ben decides to cancel the conference, the Planner shuts down all active Techniques Instances and garbage-collects the Plan Tree.



# Chapter 3

## Related Work

Related work falls into roughly five categories: *make*, multiple dispatch, AI Planning, heuristic search, and other pervasive computing systems.

### 3.1 *make*

Many people immediately think of *make* [11] when they first hear about Goal-oriented programming. This is because *make* seems to implement goal satisfaction: the command `make file.o` will result in the object `file.o` being created if there is some rule that can make `file.o` and if all of that rule's preconditions are met. Roughly, a Goal would correspond to the actual `make` command, Techniques to the `Makefile` rules, and Technique subgoals to rule preconditions. Some have even called this goal-oriented programming and have proposed *make*-like distributed systems [17].

However, our model differs significantly. First, we allow true separation of intent and implementation. A Goal Instance may be satisfied by zero or more Technique Instances whereas a `Makefile` rule has exactly one body. Moreover, since each Goal may be satisfied by any one Technique, our dependence graph is an AND-OR tree rather than *make*'s less flexible AND tree. Second, *make*'s rules are not parameterized, so any variation in rules can only be achieved by creating many similar, but distinct rules. Finally, and most importantly, *make* is not adaptive. When *make* runs, it either completes successfully or fails if any dependency fails. Goal-oriented programming,

on the other hand, tries to maintain its goal in spite of failures of dependencies.

## 3.2 Multiple Dispatch

Satisfaction of a Goal Instance is close in spirit to a generic function call in a multiple dispatch language [3, 2, 6]. Multiple dispatch languages are a generalization of common object oriented languages. Instead of letting the first argument (the object) of a procedure determine the what function body will process the call, all of the arguments are treated equally. Hence, a function dispatch must go through a phase of arbitration where the runtime types of the arguments to the function are evaluated and a function chosen. The Plan evaluation phase is analogous to this arbitration phase but with one large difference: in a Goal-oriented system, each Technique Instance evaluates the arguments to determine its own ability to satisfy the Goal Instance, and, as such, contributes to the arbitration process.

## 3.3 Planning in the AI Community

Planning and goal resolution are two long standing problems in the Artificial Intelligence community. Indeed, there are several downloadable planner implementations as well as many concrete applications, such as in NASA's space program [18].

Most planning solutions are based on the STRIPS model [10]. The STRIPS model was developed to plan the ordering and choice of actions of a robot as it accomplishes some task. STRIPS operates on world models—sets of known facts about the environment—and satisfies a goal by applying operators to a series of world models in an attempt to find a final world model where the goal is satisfied. Each operator acts on a starting world model and produces a new world model incorporating the operator's changes. If a STRIPS planner can find an ordering of operators that take the initial world model to the final one, then the goal is achieved.

Interestingly, in their 1971 paper on STRIPS, Fikes and Nilsson wrote "...we would like STRIPS to be able to generate computer programs," [10] anticipating that STRIPS-



style planning could be used to tie together primitive software operators to make a larger software system. However, even given this forshadowing, it was many years before planning was applied to software construction. In the early 1990s, a group at the University of Washington created a STRIPS-based software robot[8, 9], or softbot for short. The softbot knew how to interact with UNIX to solve a variety of tasks, such as keeping L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X and postscript files in sync or locating a person by searching through network databases.

Goal-oriented programming aims to solve what we believe is a different problem. STRIPS and AI planners try to find an ordering of actions that can create the environment it needs to achieve a goal. Goal-oriented programming, on the other hand, simply searches the environment for its dependencies. Whereas an AI planner may try to build complete solutions to a problem, Goal-oriented programming can only aggregate smaller solutions. While this seems simpler, we are unsure if it is provably so.

### 3.4 Heuristic Search

Many AI applications, such as theorem proving, employ a variety of algorithms and heuristics to speed up search in a large problem space. This research is directly applicable to Goal-oriented programming since the Planner must search through the set of all Plans in the Plan Tree to find the Plan it eventually executes.

Prolog [16] is a language designed to address such applications. Prolog matches its current goal to the set of rules it has. Then it expands the body of the rule to create more goals that need to be solved. A goal can be achieved if the search bottoms out a some set of base rules. Prolog will backtrack if a goal cannot be achieved. This nearly matches our goal resolution methodology and influenced our current implementation.

More recently, AI researchers have turned to SAT solvers for quick search solutions. For example, STRIPS planning problems have been compiled to boolean satisfiability problems [18]. After compilation, the Planning problems are fed to SAT solvers like BlackBox [12]. The SAT community has produced such incredibly fast solvers that

many “compile-to-SAT” planners are significantly faster than hand-tuned planners. Goal-oriented programming might similarly benefit from having a SAT engine as its backing algorithm.

### 3.5 Recent Systems Developments

Finally, the systems community has been actively exploring application programming in pervasive and Internet environments. For example, service composition projects try to build frameworks for tying together several distributed systems to perform some greater service. HP’s eFlow [4] attacks the problem of re-composing a running service or even an entire class of running services. Specifically, eFlow creates a programming interface that is easy to reason about. The Planner of a Goal-oriented system must be similarly able to reason about change and be able to export some implementation-modification API that Technique writers can easily understand and implement. However, unlike eFlow, which requires all service changes to be created by a programmer, the Planner must be able to make such changes automatically using information from Technique Instances.

A few projects even integrate aspects of AI planning into their composition engines. One example, DReggie [5] uses a Prolog-based planning engine to discover services in a changing mobile environment. The Prolog engine helps DReggie find service providers that match ranged constraints as well as others that come close to matching the constraints. Such an engine may be helpful during the construction phase of Goal planning. Unfortunately, DReggie does not tackle the problem of actually composing the discovered services.

Additionally, there are many pervasive computing projects that have goals similar to this project. For example, the Aura Project [1] at Carnegie-Mellon also separates user intents from implementations of intents in order to create a framework for adaptive applications. However, it only matches pre-defined implementations to user intents. The Goal-oriented system of this thesis goes one step further and allows the implementations—Techniques—declare subgoals.

# Chapter 4

## Design Challenges

In the design of a Goal-oriented system, there are two linked design spaces. The first is the API that Techniques must implement in order to be used by the system. The second is the environment that the Planner creates for Techniques. Both play off each other and center around a trade-off of giving Techniques maximum flexibility while simultaneously enabling reasonable implementations of the Planner. This trade-off must be deliberate since a Goal-oriented system will only truly thrive if Techniques can be used with many generations of Planners.

To guide our design, we kept to a few key design principles:

**Ease of Programmer Reasoning** Programming in a pervasive environment is already difficult since the programmer must keep track of asynchronous events and changing network conditions while ensuring that application logic is correct. Since we do not want to make this situation worse, a Goal-oriented system must make it as easy as possible for the programmer to correctly write application logic as well as providing the simplest interfaces possible to handle events and other requests.

**Separating policy from mechanism** Techniques provide templates for Goals, and as a consequence, as many policy decisions as possible should be made in these templates. The Planner's should strive to provide mechanism only to connect Techniques. Occasionally, however, the Planner will need to make decisions

about the Technique Instances. For example, the Planner needs to choose which Technique Instance will be chosen to satisfy a Goal Instance. Since such a decision, and others like it, fundamentally alter the way a Goal Instance is satisfied, the Planner should provide a way to customize the policy or leave it completely to the Techniques.

**Isolation of Planning mechanism from application logic and Techniques** This ensures that development of the Planner, applications, and Techniques can progress independently. In particular, this design principle means that we do not assume any particular Planner implementation or evaluation algorithm. Given information about all of the Techniques, a Planner is free to implement any path of the tree. This way, we can plug-in AI planners or theorem-provers in our system.

**Simplicity** Overall, we would like our system to be as simple as possible so that there are fewer parts to understand, fewer guarantees that need to be met, and fewer restrictions on optimization. For example, when deciding what policy decisions the Planner must force on Techniques, we need to consider how much simpler or more complex it forces Techniques to be.

The rest of this section describes some of the challenges associated with the Technique and Planner architectures. First, we delve more deeply into the Goal-Oriented Conference example in order to better understand the challenges involved in Planner and Technique interaction. Then for the remainder of the chapter, we identify and explore the challenges in each phase more deeply.

## 4.1 A Typical Planner/Technique Interaction

All of the components in a goal-oriented system must support the three phases of goal resolution: construction, evaluation, and execution. Figure 4-1 shows the interactions that the `AVConference` Technique Instance and the Planner have over the course of the example scenario.

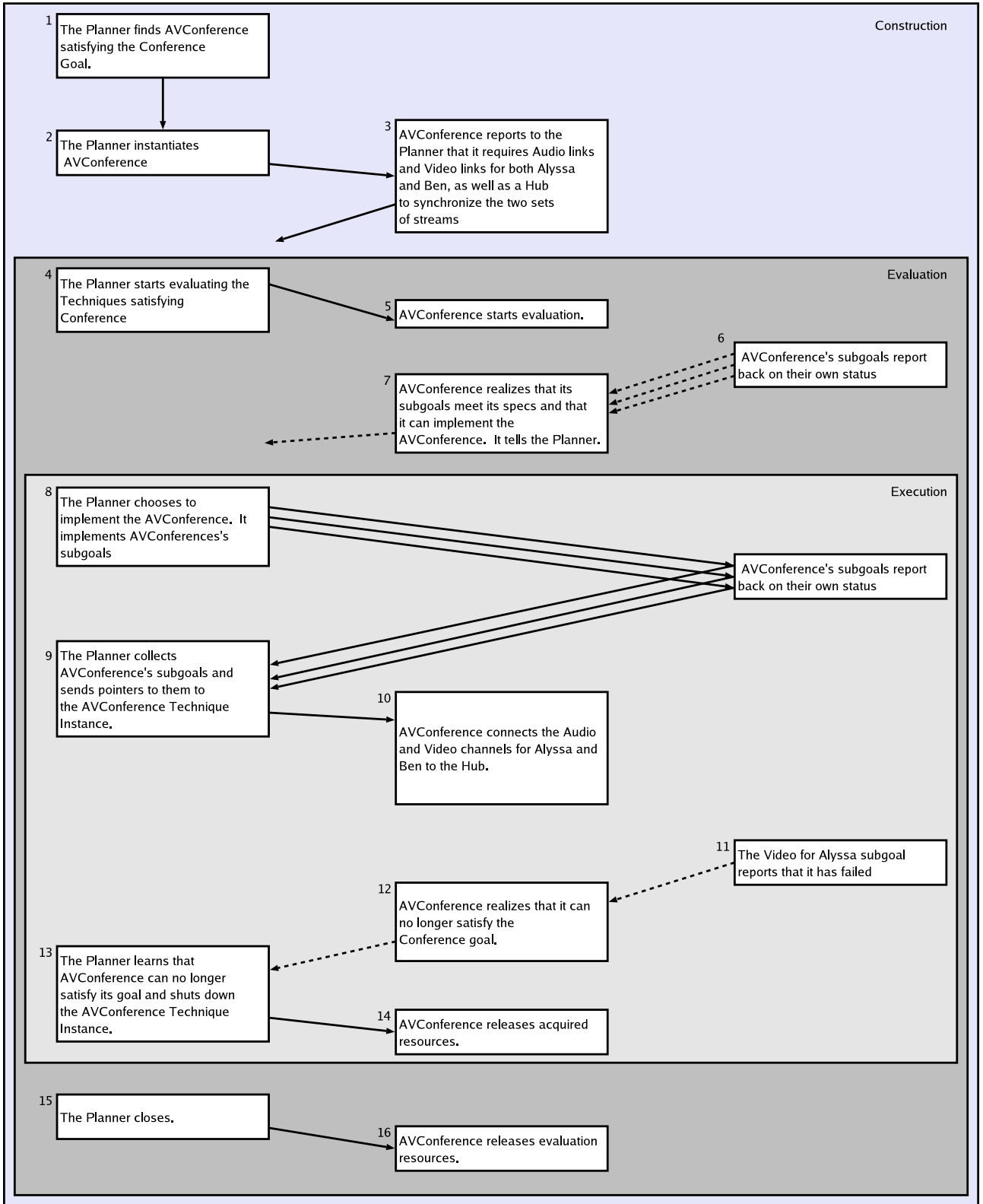


Figure 4-1: A transcript of the interaction between the Planner and the AVConference Technique in the example scenario. Synchronous calls are represented by solid arrows while asynchronous events are represented by dashed arrows. Blocks not connected by arrows may be widely separated in time.

The Planner first interacts with the `AVConference` Technique after discovering that it implements the `Conference` Goal. In Step 2, the Planner instantiates the `AVConference` Technique to create an `AVConference` Technique Instance with the correct parameters. Next, in order to construct the Plan Tree, the Planner asks the `AVConference` instance to enumerate its subgoals. Some time later, the Planner starts its evaluation of the `Conference` Goal Instance, which kicks off a variety of activity in `AVConference` (Steps 4–7). Recall, in the example scenario, Alyssa and Ben are both at their video-equipped computers, so initially the `AVConference` best satisfies the `Conference` Goal Instance. Therefore, after evaluating the other Technique Instances, the Planner chooses to execute `AVConference` in Steps 8–10. Eventually, Alyssa leaves her office, causing one of `AVConference`'s subgoals to fail, which in turn causes `AVConference` itself to fail and the Planner to choose another Technique Instance. Accordingly, `AVConference`'s implementation is shutdown, though it continues to evaluate its environment in case the video conferencing tools become applicable again. Finally, when the conference ends, the Planner garbage collects the `AVConference` Technique Instance.

## 4.2 Construction

As step 1 of Figure 4-1 shows, for every Goal Instance in the tree, the Planner must try to find a set of corresponding Technique Instances. Since each Technique declares the Goal it satisfies, this amounts to a table look-up<sup>1</sup> and instantiation with parameters. However, maintaining this table presents a policy problem since the Techniques that the Planner has access to fundamentally alter the resulting implementations. Therefore, the Planner must provide a user-defined way of finding Techniques.

Similarly, the Planner must also query each Technique Instance for its subgoals and subgoal arguments. Both of these may depend on the Technique Instance's bound parameters. For example, in step 3 of Figure 4-1, the `AVConference` Technique

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<sup>1</sup>Note that there is no corresponding repository of Goals since each Technique can contain a pointer to its Goal specification.

Instance needs to know that it is connecting Alyssa and Ben in order to properly enumerate its subgoals. The Planner, therefore, needs to let the Technique Instance dynamically declare its subgoals.

## 4.3 Evaluation

The next phase evaluates potential Plans in order to choose which Technique Instances are executed in order to satisfy each Goal Instance. Each Technique Instance provides the Planner with a self-evaluation, while Goal Instances inherit the evaluation values of their children Technique Instances. In Figure 4-1 this is the essence of steps 4–7.

Two basic considerations are the metrics used to communicate suitability for a particular goal as well as the “reach” of the metrics—how much information the metric has at its disposal when it computes its suitability. Applied to the scenario, the metric affects the form of the messages passed in steps 6 and 7. This is potentially difficult since **AVConference** must be able to understand the evaluation results of any Technique the Planner chooses to implement its subgoals. The “reach” of the metric affects how much information about the Plan Tree as a whole the **AVConference** has at its disposal in Step 7 when it decides that it can implement the **Conference** goal.

### 4.3.1 Evaluation Metrics

Fundamentally, the job of the Planner in the evaluation phase is to order all of the Technique Instances satisfying each Goal Instance so that it may choose one for execution. Choosing a correct metric is important since the metric shapes how the Goal Instance is satisfied. For example, one Goal Instance that provides video links may favor Technique Instances providing high bandwidth links, while another Goal Instance may favor Technique Instances providing low latency links. The evaluation metric should allow the Goal Instance to discern between these two kinds of links and choose what it wants.

To aid in Technique Instance selection, evaluation information may flow both up and down the Plan Tree. For example, a Technique may want its subgoals to succeed

if and only if they meet some expectation. This is a case for passing evaluation information down the tree. Another Technique may be able to cope with variability in its subgoals, and as such is interested when they change how well they satisfy their Goal Instances. Since subgoal variability may change how well the Technique Instance itself can satisfy its Goal Instance, evaluation information flows up the tree. Some Techniques may even use a combination of both flows. This is particularly useful in the example scenario since the **AVConference** Technique could specify video links limited by a maximum latency, but with variable quality. Since both top-down and bottom-up evaluation styles are valid policies, the Planner must strive to support both.

Finally, while the Technique may employ a variety of policies to judge its suitability to a particular goal, these policies are useless if the Planner cannot interpret the final result of the Technique Instances' evaluation. For the Goal-oriented system to work correctly, either the Planner needs to understand all possible evaluation methodologies or all Techniques must conform to a particular Planner-imposed standard.

### 4.3.2 Evaluation Reach

Suppose that we do have a way for Technique Instances to communicate how well they satisfy their Goal Instances. A remaining unanswered question is how information the Planner may use when evaluating an entire Plan.

There are two fundamentally different ways of evaluating a Plan. One is to evaluate entire paths through the Plan Tree and choose the "best" path based on the Techniques' metrics. A second is to evaluate each node in the tree and make local decisions as to what is best.

Largely, the evaluation methodology the Planner uses is an implementation detail. Moreover, our Isolation design principle implies that we shouldn't specify any constraints on the Planner's Plan evaluation phase. However, evaluation methodology becomes a design issue when Goals may be specified in such a way that they depend on the evaluation method of the Planner.

At first glance, it seems that the path-based evaluation may lead to better plans



since Technique Instances at the end of the path may make up for deficiencies in Technique Instances at the beginning of the path. However, there are some disadvantages to path-based evaluation. Since the suitability of a particular Technique Instance may change rapidly in time, it is difficult to pin down an entire path of Technique Instances for evaluation. Furthermore, this evaluation method may add complexity to the evaluation phase, violating our simplicity design principle. We also expect many Planners to make greedy decisions at each Goal in the tree since greedy algorithms are easy to implement. Therefore, the design of the Planner must restrict evaluation in some way that allows both simple implementations as well as more complicated ones.

### **4.3.3 Changing Evaluation with Time**

As exemplified by step 11 in Figure 4-1, Technique Instances can change their reported ability to satisfy their Goal Instance at any time. This can be due to both external events and changes in its subgoals. Therefore, the Planner must support a way for Technique Instances to respond to evaluation events and notify of the Planner any changes it makes.

## **4.4 Execution**

As step 9 of Figure 4-1 shows, once a Plan has been chosen, the Planner must execute the Technique Instances in the Plan starting at the bottom. Starting at the bottom is necessary because Technique Instances depend on their subgoals to satisfy their own Goal Instances.

After execution, each Technique Instance must be able to handle events from its subgoals. These events may be implementation-altering events, such as the swapping of subgoals, or more mundane management events, such as a signal that the Technique Instance should quit and shutdown its executing code.

## 4.5 Error Handling

The execute phase is the commit point for a Technique Instance. All information in the Construction and Evaluation stages is tentative because the Technique Instance is only estimating what resources it needs or how well it can meet its Goal Instance. However, only when the Technique Instance is actually executes will the estimates be proved right or wrong. For example, the **AVConference** might run into problems connecting its Video subgoals together. Moreover, as Alyssa's leaving her office in step 11 shows, even if the Technique Instance successfully executes initially, at a later time it may no longer be able to satisfy its Goal Instance. Therefore, the Planner must be able to react to failures in the execution phase.

# Chapter 5

## Design

Given the challenges of the previous chapter, any architecture for a Goal-oriented system must provide:

1. a way to find Techniques,
2. a way to evaluate them uniformly,
3. an environment for executing Technique evaluation and execution code,
4. methods for Technique Instance-Planner interaction, and
5. a way for Technique Instances to respond to events.

Our architecture for providing these services is illustrated in Figure 5-1. The architecture separates Technique Discovery from the rest of the Planner, then concentrates on the interactions between Techniques and the Planner. These interactions are codified by a Planner API and a Technique API. Finally, the architecture also provides a Satisfaction API that applications use to access the Planner.

### 5.1 Simplifying Assumptions and Clarifications

In order to concentrate on the dynamics of the evaluation and execution phases of the Goal-oriented system, we make a simplifying assumption that the construction phase completes before any part of the plan tree starts its evaluation phase.

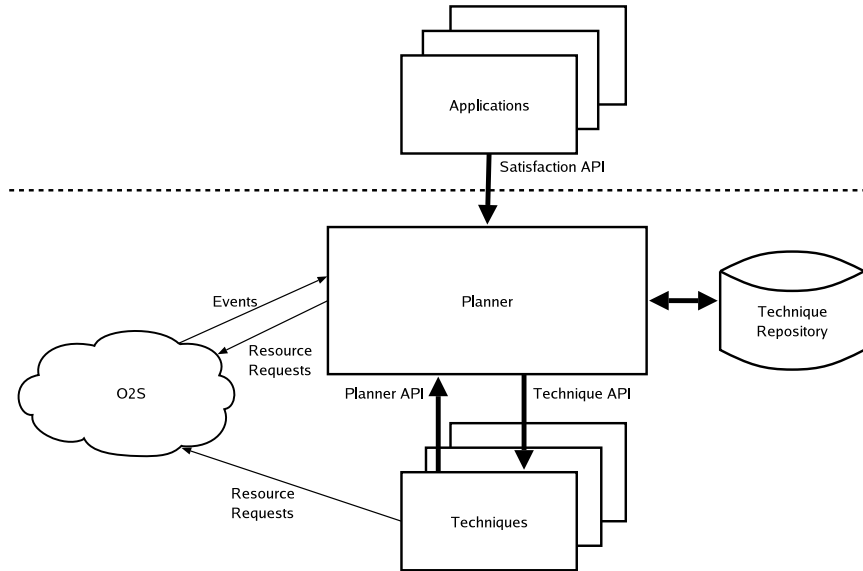


Figure 5-1: Illustration of the Goal-oriented programming system’s architecture.

Furthermore, we assume that the Planner and its Techniques operate in an environment much like that of the O2S System. That is, both the Planner and Techniques may assume that there are resource discovery, remote resource invocation, and asynchronous event handling services inherent in the operating environment. This also means that the Planner itself must support these operations. We allow both the Techniques and the Planner make synchronous requests on the outside world. However, in order to have control over the Technique execution, only the Planner can receive asynchronous events and callbacks. This way, the Planner can serialize all events, and schedule event callbacks for execution when it makes the most sense to.

## 5.2 Technique Discovery

Keeping with our design principle of separating policy from mechanism, the Planner offloads technique discovery to a user-controlled Technique Repository. This repository contains only the Techniques that the Planner can and should access. A user can customize the Techniques her Planner sees by altering the contents of her repository. Additionally, adding a level of indirection for technique discovery helps with the

fourth design principle of simplicity since the Technique Repository can implement complicated caching or security independent of the Planner.

### 5.3 Satisfaction: A Uniform Evaluation Value

As reviewed in Section 4.3, to allow arbitrary Techniques to interoperate with generations of Planners, either the Planner must understand all Techniques, or the Techniques must speak a common evaluation protocol with the Planner. We believe the latter approach is simpler and in many cases as expressive as letting Technique define their own evaluation protocol.

Therefore, we require that each Technique render all evaluation decisions into a single scalar we term *satisfaction*. The higher the satisfaction, the better a Technique Instance can implement its Goal Instance. A satisfaction of 0 indicates that the Technique Instance cannot satisfy the Goal Instance at all. What other values mean is determined by each Goal and codified in the Goal specification. Thus, satisfaction is an evaluation metric mechanism that: can be passed up the tree, allows for Goal-specific policy, and has simple semantics that both the Planner and the Technique programmer can understand. All of these properties are in line with our design principles.

The satisfaction metric also enables a simple, policy-independent way of pushing evaluation information down the tree. A Technique Instance need only specify what it expects as the arguments to its subgoals. If the Technique Instances fulfilling the subgoal cannot meet expectations, they report back a satisfaction of 0. If they can meet expectations, they report back a non-zero satisfaction and the Planner chooses among the satisfactory Technique Instances.

In order to allow for particularly simple Planners, we require that Goal specifications, and thus, Technique Instance evaluations, be workable with a greedy algorithm that works on only one Goal at a time. In other words, a Technique Instance's evaluation can only depend on its subgoals' satisfaction and whatever other evaluation information the Technique Instance can generate. To enforce this, the Planner will

only report to the Technique Instance the satisfaction levels of its immediate subgoals.

Finally, each Planner can set its own policy on how to determine the satisfaction of any given Goal Instance. We impose only two constraints on the Goal satisfaction level. First, a Goal Instance with no satisfactory Techniques must have a satisfaction of 0. Second, the Goal Instance's satisfaction level must be consistent with the Goal's specification.

Some may argue that the Planner-imposed satisfaction system violates our design principle of separating policy and mechanism. The argument is based on a common need to express how well a Technique Instance may perform on orthogonal issues. This is a valid criticism since a general evaluation method may not compress into a single metric. However, we rely on the heuristic that in most evaluations there is some final decision that sways the evaluation one way or another. The particular use of the satisfaction metric in the Goal specification can reflect this final binary decision. While having to specify such decisions in the Goal specification may complicate specification writing, we believe the trade-off for policy-independence is worth it. Moreover, we believe that satisfaction also ports to AI theorem-proving systems, making the trade-off even more valuable.

## 5.4 The Planner API

The Planner API provides a set of functions aimed at enabling inter-Technique Instance and Planner-Technique Instance communication. These functions are shown in Figure 5-2. Only the first three functions are needed by the Planner: these allow a Technique Instance to pass information to and through the Planner. The remaining functions are convenience functions that help a Technique integrate into a pervasive environment.

The `send_event` function is used to send an event between executing Technique Instances. The `to` argument can either be "parent" or the name of one of the Technique Instance's subgoals. This function is provided to strengthen the subgoal abstraction since the Technique Instance should only be able to control its subgoals by

Communication Functions:

```
send_event(to, event)
```

```
post(event)
```

```
signal_quit()
```

Pervasive Functions:

```
find_resources(profile) returns set of resources
```

```
add_subscription(profile) returns subscription_id
```

```
remove_subscription(subscription_id)
```

```
monitor_resource(resource)
```

```
unmonitor_resource(resource)
```

```
get_event_listener() returns listener_resource
```

Figure 5-2: Planner API used by Techniques

name. `post` is used to inform the Planner of changes in satisfaction or the return value of the Technique Instance. Finally, the `signal_quit` function notifies the Planner that the Technique Instance would like to quit normally. `signal_quit` should only be used for normal terminations. Section 5.5.2 describes Technique event generation in more detail.

The first block of pervasive helper functions allows the Technique Instance to discover resources. Specifically, the `find_resources` returns a possibly empty set of resources matching the given profile. The next two manage callback subscriptions that allow the Technique Instance to be notified if new resources come into the environment. The callback messages are received by the Technique Instance's `handle_event` method.

The next block of functions allows the Technique Instance to monitor the health of a resource. Like resource subscriptions, resource health notifications are received by the Technique Instance's `handle_event` method.

Finally, there may be other kinds of event callbacks that the Technique Instance may want to register, many of which are application-specific. The `get_event_listener` function returns an `event_listener`. Any event sent to this event listener will be queued to be received by the Technique Instance's `handle_event` method.

`Constructor(planner, arguments)`

Construction Functions:

`get_subgoals()` returns map of names to subgoals

Evaluation Functions:

`start_evaluation()`

`stop_evaluation()`

Execution Functions:

`start_execution(subgoals)` returns handle

`stop_execution()`

Event handling Functions:

`handle_event(event)`

Figure 5-3: API for Techniques

## 5.5 The Technique API

Figure 5-3 shows the API that Techniques must implement. Techniques need not be thread-safe as the Planner guarantees that the Technique is executing in at most one thread at any given time.

When the Planner instantiates a Technique, the Planner gives the Technique both its arguments and a pointer to itself. The resulting object is a Technique Instance<sup>1</sup>. The Planner pointer enables the Technique to access the Planner API. The Planner also passes the arguments of the Goal Instance for which the Technique is being instantiated since the Technique will need to make decisions based on those arguments.

### 5.5.1 Phases of Goal Resolution

During the construction phase, the Planner calls each Technique's `get_subgoals` function. The Technique returns a set of name, subgoal pairs. In all subsequent stages of Goal resolution, the Planner will refer to the subgoals by the names the

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<sup>1</sup>In this section, we will primarily refer to Techniques rather than Technique Instances. This is because programmers write Techniques that are instantiated by the Planner into Technique Instances.



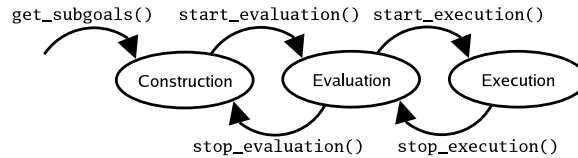


Figure 5-4: Each function call the Planner makes moves the Technique into a different phase.

Technique chose.

When the Planner determines that the Technique should enter the evaluation phase, it calls `start_evaluation`. Here, the Technique can send to the planner a basic estimate of its satisfaction as well as register relevant network probes.

When the Planner chooses a Technique for execution, it calls `start_execution` with the return values of the Technique’s subgoals, using the same names that the Technique chose earlier. The exact type of the value bound to each subgoal name is determined by the Goal specification that the subgoal implements. During this call, the Technique should acquire any resources it needs. If the initialization succeeds, the `start_execution` function returns a handle as dictated in its Goal specification. Otherwise, the `start_execution` call fails by returning a special FAIL return value to the Planner. The Technique returns to the Evaluation phase and the Planner makes alternate plans if possible. If the Planner decides to shutdown an executing Technique, it calls the `stop_execution` function on that Technique. The Technique must release all of the resources that it reserved.

Finally, if the Planner decides that certain Techniques are taking too many evaluation resources, it may call `stop_evaluation`. In this call, the Technique must cancel any callbacks it started in the `start_evaluation` function.

The Planner calls Technique methods in “Goal resolution” order as Figure 5-4. In particular, `get_subgoals`, `start_evaluation`, and `start_execution` must be called to move the Technique into the construction, evaluation, and execution stages, respectively. Similarly, `stop_evaluation` and `stop_execution` are used to take the Technique out of the evaluation and execution stages. These guarantees are made so that the Technique knows what plan phase it is in so that it can handle events

Planner Functions:

```
Constructor(technique_repository, event_listener)
satisfy(goal, goal_args, event_listener) returns Plan object
stop()
```

Plan Functions:

```
stop()
```

Figure 5-5: The Satisfaction API the Planner exports to Applications.

properly.

### 5.5.2 Event Handling

At any point after instantiation, the Planner may call the Technique's `handle_event` function. Typically, the events passed to this function are callbacks from sub-goals or parent Techniques, though they may also be callbacks from the event listener the Technique has access to. Any events from subgoals are identified by the name of the subgoal given to the Planner in the construction phase.

The Planner defines two kinds of Events that it understands. Techniques send these messages using the `post` method of the Planner's event system. The first is the `EvaluationCallback` message, which carries with it an update to a Technique's satisfaction. The Planner will then take this into consideration and pass the value up the tree as necessary. If a Technique needs to report that it can no longer solve its Goal, it sends an `EvaluationCallback` message with satisfaction set to 0. The other message is an `ExecutionCallback`, which returns the result of re-implementing part of the executing plan tree.

## 5.6 Satisfaction API

In order to separate development of applications from development of the Planner, the Planner's Goal Satisfaction API must be standardized. Figure 5-5 shows the API the Planner exports to applications. The most important function is the `satisfy` call, which instructs the Planner to satisfy some Goal Instance. It returns a Plan object,

which is a handle to that specific satisfaction call. One Planner can satisfy many Goal Instances at once. Both the Planner and the `satisfy` call can optionally take in `event_listeners`, which will receive status events. For example, a Plan object may notify the event listener whenever it changes its underlying implementation. Both objects export a `stop` method. The `stop` method is used to cleanly shutdown the Plan or Planner as a whole. Finally, the Planner also takes in a Technique Repository that it will use as its database of Techniques.

## 5.7 Goal-oriented Conferencing Revisited

Figure 5-6 shows the interaction between the Planner and the `AVConference` Technique Instance using our API. There are a few things to note. First, the Planner always uses the names of the subgoals that the Technique Instance returns in step 3. Instances of this can be seen in steps 6, 9, and 11. Second, there are no direct calls between the Technique Instance and its subgoals, or from the Technique Instance to its super-goals. Such interactions are provided through the `handle_event` and `post` method calls. This way, each Technique Instance is isolated from all other Technique Instances. Finally, the ordering of method calls on the `AVConference` object helps the Technique Instance know what execution stage the Planner is in. This way, the `AVConference` can handle the events of steps 6 (received when evaluating) and 11 (received when executing) differently.

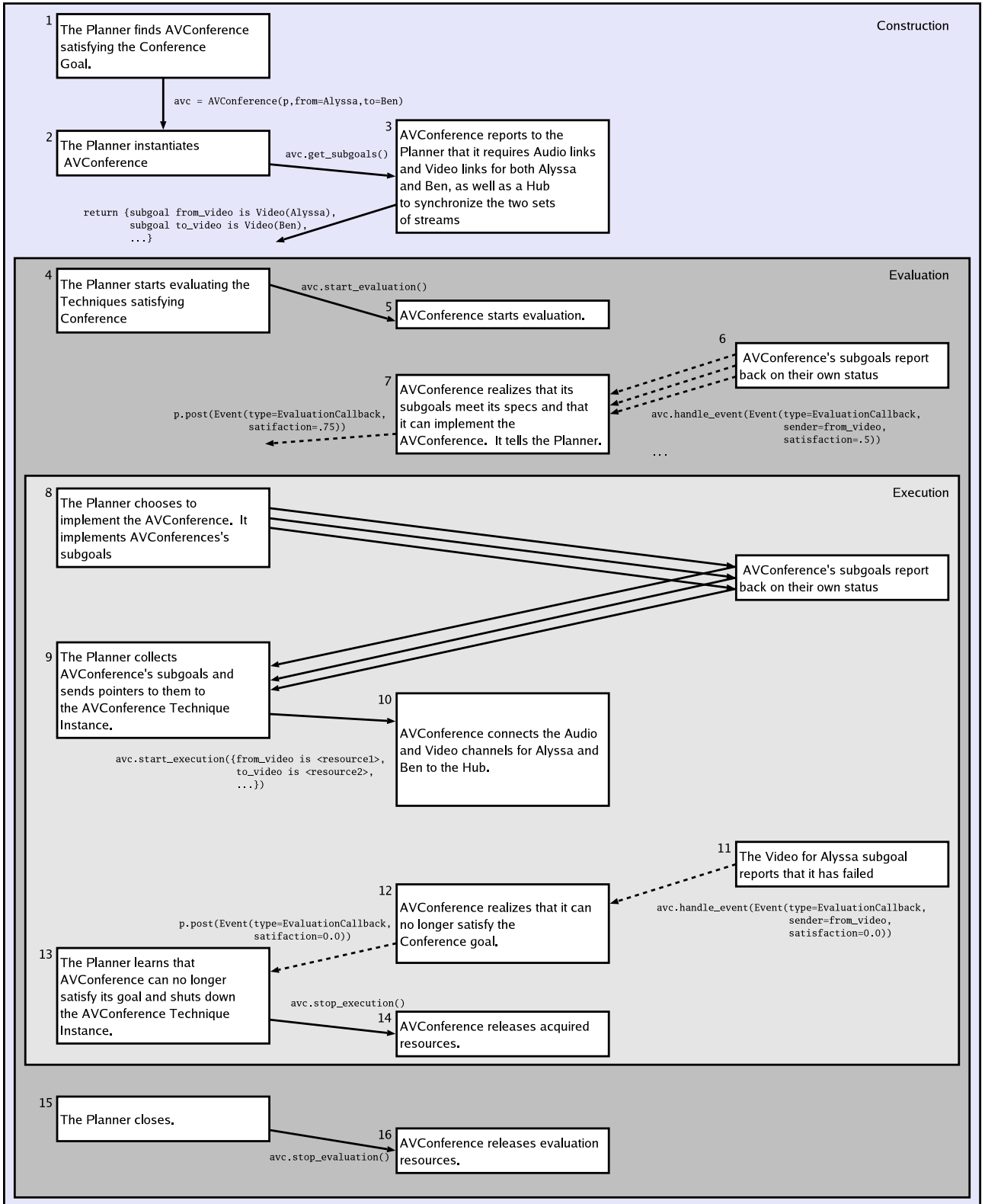


Figure 5-6: The sample interaction between the Planner and the AVConference Technique Instance annotated with the API calls that each makes. `p` is a reference to the Planner planning the Conference goal. `avc` is a reference to the AVConference Technique Instance created in step 2.

# Chapter 6

## Implementation

We implemented a basic Planner and several Techniques based on our Goal-oriented programming system design. Our implementation was written in Python 2.3 [15]. We chose Python mainly because the rest of the O2S environment is written in Python. No code of the Planner depends on a special feature unique to Python and could have been implemented in Java or any other object-oriented language supporting XMLRPC (to support communication with the rest of O2S). The implementation runs under GNU/Linux, Windows using Cygwin, and Mac OS X.

There are two main goals for this implementation. The first is to prove that the proposed API of the previous chapter is workable. The second is to exploit as much parallelism as possible in the Planner. This helps show that the proposed API lends itself to optimization as well as allowing large plan trees to be evaluated and implemented quickly.

### 6.1 Writing a Parallel Planner

For our Planner implementation, we chose to try to exploit as much parallelism as possible. This is motivated by the fact that Techniques do not do much computation, but rather connect together Resources. Since many of these connections happen over a network, most of the time a Technique is blocked waiting for a response. In a serial Planner, this could lead to serious performance problems. For example,

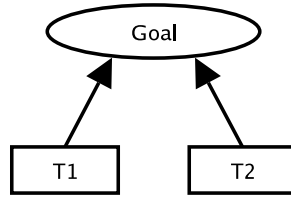


Figure 6-1: Simple Plan Tree. If  $T1$  takes a long time to evaluate, in a single-threaded Planner,  $T2$  will be blocked.

consider the simple plan tree of Figure 6-1. Suppose that Technique Instance  $T1$  makes many network requests to determine its satisfaction and takes 5 seconds to post a satisfaction of .25, while  $T2$  takes far less time to post a better satisfaction of .5. A single-threaded Planner can take 5.25 seconds to choose  $T2$  when it should take closer to .25 seconds. It is easy to see that adding Technique Instances only makes the problem worse. However, a multi-threaded planner could run the two Technique Instances in parallel and have more of a chance of approaching the lower bound of .25 seconds.<sup>1</sup> Similar problems also plague event dispatch to Techniques. In a single-threaded Planner, one Technique Instance could block event dispatch to other Technique Instances if its `handle_event` function takes sufficiently long.

In order to avoid these performance problems, we chose to implement a multi-threaded Planner that runs as much of the planning process in parallel. Our Goal-oriented system architecture anticipates that some Planners may be multi-threaded and as such, ensures that distinct Technique Instances only communicate with each other through asynchronous events. Since we don't need to worry about isolating Technique Instances from each other, the main difficulty in our implementation becomes efficiently parallelizing the Planner while at the same time ensuring that a Technique Instance is never called in more than one thread at a time.

A Technique Instance may be called by more than one thread because its `handle_event` method may be called any time after object construction. The obvious solution is to wrap a lock around each Technique Instance and block operations on Technique Instances that are already running. However, this imposes scheduling problems when

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<sup>1</sup>Note that if  $T1$  had a higher satisfaction than  $T1$ , parallelism is still helpful since we could more quickly get a worse solution with  $T2$  and then swap  $T1$  for  $T2$  when the Planner learns that  $T1$  is better.

a single Technique Instance may get many events at once, since the Planner may schedule all of its threads to servicing those events, essentially leading to a livelocked state. A potential refinement of this scheme is to give each Technique Instance its own event queue and schedule it to handle all of the events in the queue. This has a fairness problem since a set of Techniques with many events may take up all available worker threads servicing their event queues, starving other threads of computation time.

Therefore, we eschew fine-grained locking for the coarser mechanism of thread coloring. The Planner assigns each Technique Instance in the tree a unique color. During runtime, each worker thread assumes the color of the Technique Instance it is working with. The Planner makes sure that no color is running in more than one thread at any given time. Clearly, such a system allows each Technique to run in only a single thread at any time. However, it also solves the fairness problem: the Planner can schedule each call to `handle_event` separately, breaking up large computation blocks so other Techniques can run.

## 6.2 Physical Code Structure

Physically, the Planner code is broken into three Python modules mirroring our design.

**techniques** Prototypes for user-defined Techniques and Goals. Contains a Technique interface and the `GoalDescription` class. This module provides templates for programmers.

**planner** The bulk of the Planner. Contains the `Planner`, `Plan`, `GoalNode`, and `TechniqueNode` classes. This module encapsulates our specific planner implementation and related files.

**event\_driven** The parallelizing framework. Contains the `EventFramework` class and currying functions.

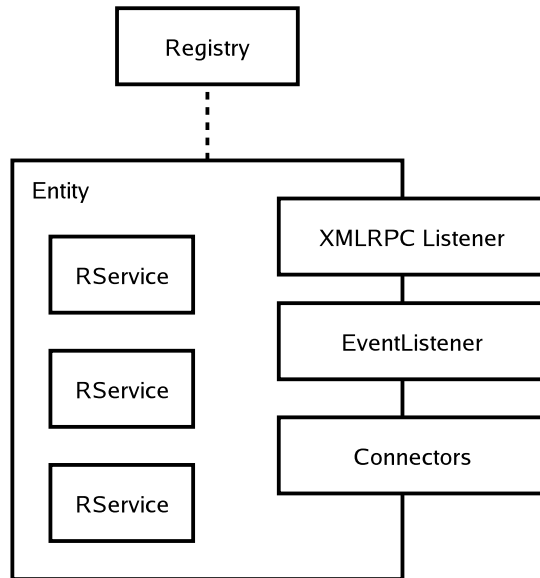


Figure 6-2: The runtime environment of O2S.

All of the interesting implementation is in the *planner* and *event\_driven* modules. The *event\_driven* module implements a stand-alone multi-threaded event-driven framework [14, 19]. It has no dependencies on O2S, and as such may be used in other projects. The Planner of the *planner* module implements a simple Technique selection algorithm. Both parts are described in more detail later in this chapter.

### 6.3 The O2S Programming Environment

Before delving in the details of the Planner’s implementation, it makes sense to briefly review the O2S programming environment. Figure 6-2 illustrates the major runtime-structures of O2S. All Resources are concrete subclasses of `RService`. Resources run within an `Entity` object. The `Entity` provides Resources with an XMLRPC listener as well as an `EventListener`. The former allows the Resource to receive function calls over the network while the latter lets it receive asynchronous Events. For performance reasons, the XMLRPC listener will optimize out network calls if two objects share a process on a local machine.

Additionally, an `Entity` registers with the O2S Registry. The O2S Registry is



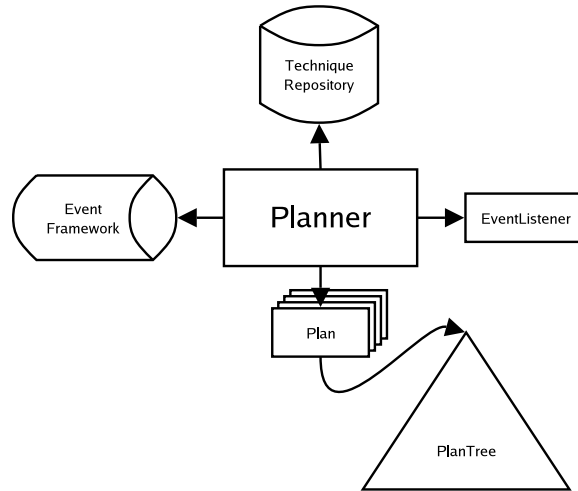


Figure 6-3: The runtime structure of the Planner.

a simple resource discovery and health monitoring system. The Registry also offers a subscription service that allows registered Entities (and the Resources contained within them) to receive events when suitable Entities come up and go down. The Planner’s resource functions are based on this interface, and in our initial implementation, the Registry backs these calls.

Usually, a programmer will create an **Entity**:

1. when the Entity needs to be located through the Registry, or
2. when the Entity serves as a database of related Resources.

Typically, Entities act as proxies for some host or user. Almost all other functionality is coded as Resources.

## 6.4 Runtime Code Structure of the Planner

Figure 6-3 shows the runtime structure of the Planner. One **Planner** object contains a reference to a **TechniqueRepository**, an **EventListener**, an **EventFramework**, and zero or more **Plan** objects. Each **Plan** object represents a user-initiated goal call. The **TechniqueRepository** contains the database of Techniques the Planner should access, while the **EventListener** is an O2S event listener that enables the Planner

to receive O2S events. The `EventFramework` provides a loop that drives the `Planner` and is discussed in more detail in Section 6.5.

In our current implementation, the main job of the `Planner` object is to run the main `EventFramework` loop, serialize O2S events, and support the `Planner` half of the Satisfaction API. Most of the algorithmic logic for goal resolution is embedded in the `Plan` class and the `PlanTreeNode`s it contains. The `Plan` object also implements the `Plan` half of the Satisfaction API, as well as the `Planner` API exported to `Techniques`.

### 6.4.1 The Plan Object

Each `Plan` object contains all of the necessary state to satisfy a user-initiated Goal. In particular it contains a tree of `PlanTreeNode` objects that represents the Goal tree. `PlanTreeNode` is an abstract O2S `RService` with two concrete sub-classes, `GoalInstance` and `TechniqueInstance`, which are instances of Goals and Techniques, respectively. `PlanTreeNode` contains mostly mechanism related to O2S, while its concrete sub-classes implement the Goal-selection algorithm.

#### The `PlanTreeNode` Class

The `PlanTreeNode` provides the `Planner` API interface of Figure 5-2.

`PlanTreeNode` inherits from O2S's `RService` class and as a result, can be passed as a `Resource`. In particular, the `PlanTreeNode` class implements the O2S `EventListener` `Resource` specification. One bookkeeping job the `Planner` must perform efficiently is routing of Events through the `Planner`'s one `EventListener`. Since each `PlanTreeNode` is directly corresponds to a Goal or Technique Instance, if the `PlanTreeNode` is passed, it knows which node the event goes to, and as a result can multiplex the `Planner`'s `EventListener` without keeping lookup tables. This significantly simplifies the `Planner` object's implementation.

### The GoalInstance Class

The `GoalInstance` class implements a very simple algorithm for Goal selection. On initial evaluation, the `GoalInstance` chooses the `TechniqueInstance` with the highest satisfaction for implementation. This choice is made either after all `TechniqueInstances` have reported their satisfaction or a timeout occurs. Note that as long as `TechniqueInstances` correctly calculate their satisfaction, this choice is in line with our requirement that Planners choose a Goal satisfaction in line with the Goal specification. The `GoalInstance` updates its choice as `TechniqueInstance` satisfactions change: it always tracks the most satisfying `TechniqueInstance` and keeps the satisfaction value of that best instance.

### The TechniqueInstance Class

The `TechniqueInstance` class is a thin wrapper around a `Technique`. It only adds functionality around the `Technique`'s `handle_event` function. Specifically, it translates the `from` field of the event from the `GoalInstance` object itself to the name of the Goal specified by the `Technique`'s `get_subgoals` function.

## 6.5 The EventFramework

The `EventFramework` contains all of the code to implement our thread coloring system as well as the API of Figure 6-4. The API is loosely based on that of *libasync-mp* [20, 7]. As its name suggests, the `EventFramework` centers on “events” that it reads from an event queue. Each event contains at the least a function pointer and a color. The function pointer is executed when the event is serviced while the color is used for thread coloring. The `EventFramework` ensures that no two events of the same color are serviced at the same time.

The first two functions in the `EventFramework` API schedule functions. `enqueue` and `run` both create events that run their `fn` argument; `run` also calls creates an event that runs `cb` when `fn` completes. The next two functions manage time-delayed callbacks, typically used to implement timeouts. The `delay_cb` function will `cb` at

Call Scheduling Functions:

```
enqueue(fn, color)
run(fn, cb, color, cb_color)
```

Delayed Execution Management Functions:

```
delay_cb(cb, delay, color) returns callback_id
remove_cb(callback_id)
```

Function Currying for above:

```
curry(fn, arguments...) returns closure
```

Callback Functions:

```
post(poster, message)
register_post_callback(cb, filter, poster, color) returns reg_id
unregister_post_callback(reg_id)
```

Figure 6-4: API exported by the EventFramework.

least `delay` seconds after the `delay_cb` call. `remove_cb` allows delayed callbacks to be removed before they are run. Function arguments to all of the above calls must be argument-less. As a convenience, the `curry` function turns the application of `fn` to its arguments into a parameter-less closure that can be used by the other functions. Finally, the last three `EventFramework` methods allow Techniques to post messages and register callbacks to receive those messages asynchronously.

### 6.5.1 Implementation of the EventFramework

Figure 6-5 shows the major components of the `EventFramework`. Events scheduled by `delay_cb` contain delay times, while events scheduled by `run` also contain callback functions and colors for the callbacks.

The heart of the Event-Driven implementation is the Dispatch Loop. Its job is to assign events from the Event Queue to idle threads in its thread pool. It also monitors the Delayed Event Queue and adds events to the main Event Queue when the delay has expired. Finally, the Dispatch Loop also manages messages and callbacks from produced by the `post` calls. The Dispatch Loop is responsible for ensuring that only one color runs at any given time and also that for any given color, events run in FIFO order.

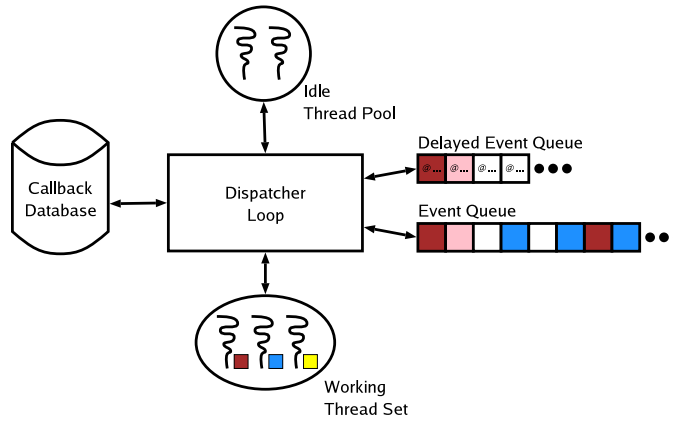


Figure 6-5: The runtime structure of the EventFramework.

The rest of the implementation is straightforward. When assigned an event, a worker thread runs the function, and schedules the event's callback (if it has one) when the function completes. When it completes, the worker thread returns to the idle thread pool. The `CallbackDatabase` maintains a mapping between post callback registrations and subscription IDs so that `post` messages can be routed to the correct callbacks.



# Chapter 7

## Performance Evaluation

A good goal-oriented system must provide a reasonable programming environment as well as decent performance at runtime. Therefore, we evaluate our Planning system in two ways. First, we detail a few anecdotes from development of Techniques in our Conferencing scenario of earlier chapters. Second, we evaluate the planner's runtime performance using a variety of simulations.

### 7.1 Scenario Anecdotes

To support the Conferencing scenario, we created six Goals and nine Techniques. The Goals and Techniques correspond directly with Figure 2-1. We were able to write and debug the all of the Techniques in a single day. As a show of how much mechanism the Planner hides, the complete application code fits in the five lines of Figure 7-1.

The satisfaction metric works well in the Conferencing scenario: it provides a clear ordering of Techniques as well as a method of indicating failure. Additionally, we were

```
1 planner = Planner(technique_db ,
2                   app_event_listener)
3 plan = planner.satisfy(conference_goal ,
4                       fromuser="Alyssa" ,
5                       touser="Ben" )
```

Figure 7-1: Application code to run the scenario. `technique_db` is a pointer to a common `TechniqueRepository`

able to combine satisfaction with a few Goal parameters to avoid any backtracking in our initial evaluations phases. However, it still remains to be seen if satisfaction will be useful in larger systems and if backtracking can be avoided in the evaluation phase.

As an additional anecdote, during Technique development, we found that Goal-oriented programming lends itself quite well to incremental development. For the scenario's Techniques, we first implemented the simpler `AudioConference` before tackling the more complicated `AVConference` Technique. We made no changes to the code in Figure 7-1: all we had to do was add the new Techniques to the `TechniqueRepository` and re-run the Planner.

## 7.2 Performance

Ideally, a user should not be able to notice that a goal-oriented system is planning her application. To the user, it should appear that the application is just adapting to its environment. However, in reality, the Planner takes time to perform its operations. This shows up as latency between making a satisfy call and getting an implementation, and as lag time between changes in the environment re-implementation of the plan.

We measure performance as the amount of real time it takes the Planner to implement a solution to a satisfy call or re-implement a solution after a change to the environment is made. We believe that this metric is appropriate because the Planner does not actually run Application or Resource code, but only glue code when implementations must change. For each test, the real time delay is plotted against the number of threads the Planner's `EventFramework` is allowed. Since the Planner can do one operation per thread at any given time, variation in real time delay shows how well the Planner is exploiting parallelism in the tree.

### 7.2.1 Test Methodology

All tests were performed on a lightly-loaded Pentium 4/3.0GHz Linux workstation with 1.0GB of RAM connected to a local-area network at 100Mb/s. For each test,



we created a database of Goals and Techniques according to three parameters:

**Goal Degree** : the number of Techniques implementing each Goal

**Technique Degree** : the number of subgoals required by each Technique Instance

**Tree Height** : the number of levels of Goal and Technique Instances in the plan tree.

Tests were also run with varying evaluation delays meant as simulations of network delays. The delay caused the Technique to `sleep` for a certain amount of time before reporting its satisfaction. We used three delay values: 0ms, 6ms, and 250ms:

**0ms Delay** These tests indicate the peak performance of the planner as well as how well the Planner can be expected to run when all Resources are local calls rather than network calls.

**6ms Delay** 6ms is a typical round-trip time for the `O2S identify`<sup>1</sup> Resource request. Therefore, these delays are indicative of performance when all network calls are quick.

**250ms Delay** The `find_resources` request in the Planner takes, on average, .25s. Therefore, these tests are indicative of how the Planner can cope with long network delays.

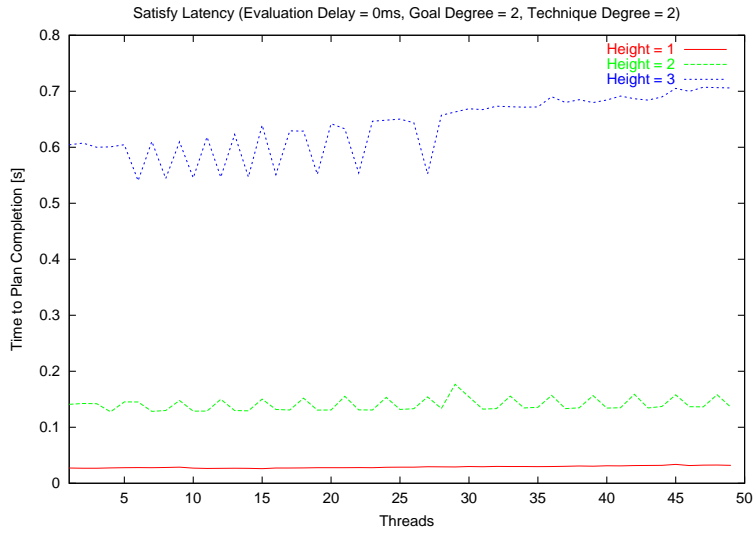
We only applied the evaluation delays to Techniques with no sub-Goals, since these Techniques will typically be the ones that need to use the network for evaluation.

## 7.2.2 Satisfy Performance on Full Trees

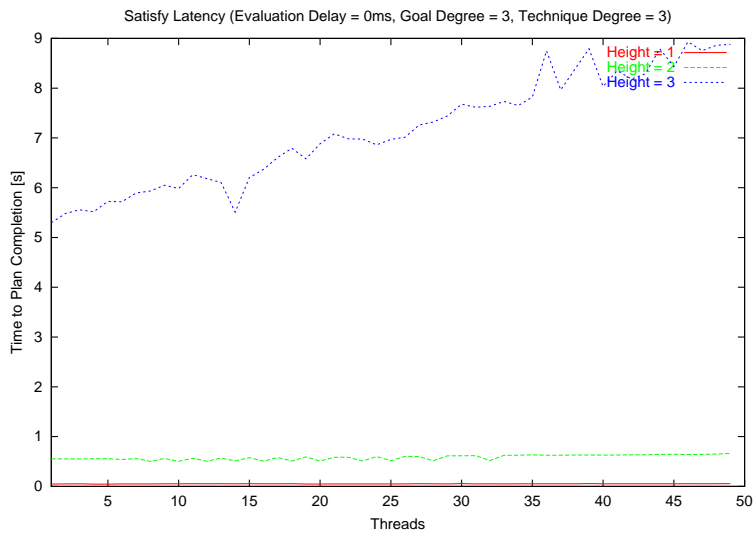
To start evaluating the Planner's performance, it is helpful to look at six different tree configurations, summarized in Figure 7-5. We chose either trees with two Techniques per Goal and two subgoals per Technique or three of each, then varied the height of

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<sup>1</sup>The `identify` request simply returns the Resource's name.

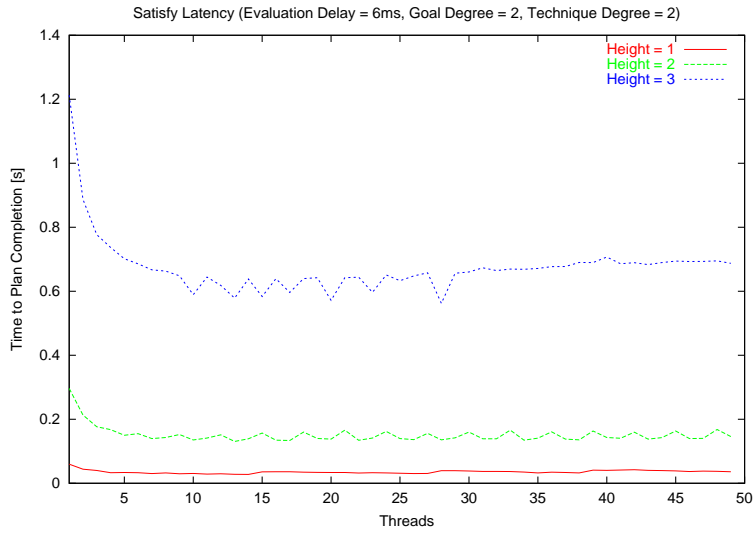


(a) Goal Degree of 2 and Technique Degree of 2.

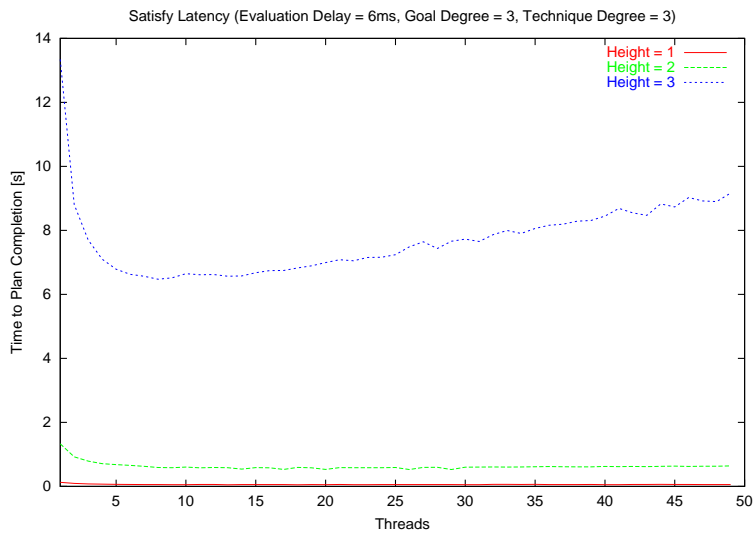


(b) Goal Degree of 3 and Technique Degree of 3.

Figure 7-2: Latency for plan trees of varying size and no evaluation delay. Note that the time scale is different for each graph.

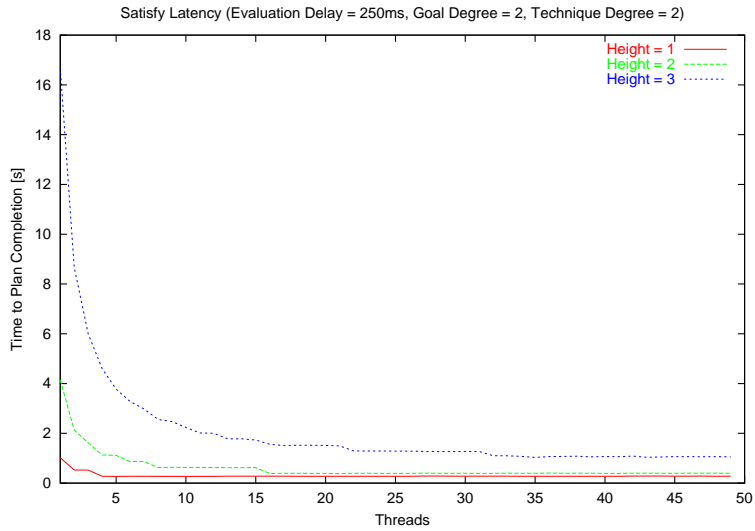


(a) Goal Degree of 2 and Technique Degree of 2.

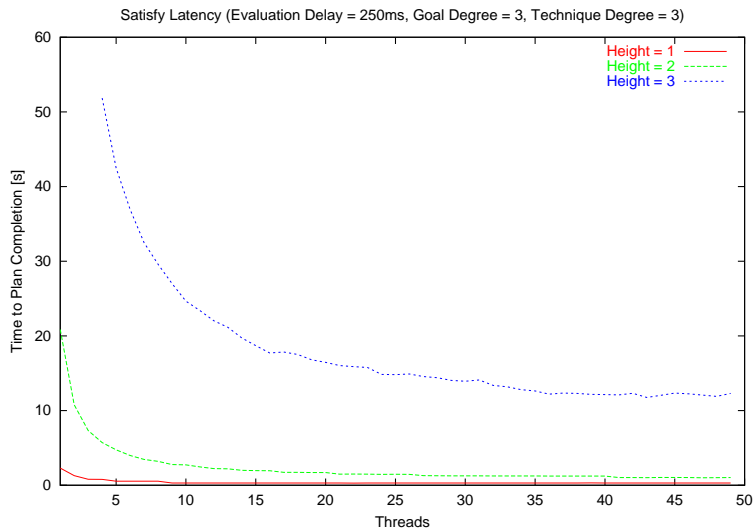


(b) Goal Degree of 3 and Technique Degree of 3.

Figure 7-3: Latency for plan trees of varying size and 6ms evaluation delay. Note that the time scale is different for each graph.



(a) Goal Degree of 2 and Technique Degree of 2.



(b) Goal Degree of 3 and Technique Degree of 3.

Figure 7-4: Latency for plan trees of varying size and 250ms evaluation delay. Note that the time scale is different for each graph. For low numbers of threads in Figure 7-4(b), the testing framework timed out because the tests took longer than a minute.

the tree. Overall, these configurations gave a wide variety of tree sizes, so they form a good baseline of planner performance.

In particular, each tree has a varying number of leaf nodes—Techniques without any subgoals to which we add evaluation delays. We can estimate ideal plan latency, ignoring Planner overhead and execution time, for our simulations from the number of leaf Techniques. The ideal latency for a single-threaded Planner is just the number of leaf Techniques multiplied by the delay time. For a multi-threaded planner, the ideal latency is simply the delay time of the Techniques. These ideal times are summarized in the last columns of Figure 7-5.

Figures 7-2–7-4 show the Planner’s performance on each of the six tree configurations as well as on all delay times.

**No Delay** Figure 7-2 shows how well the planner performs when there is no evaluation delay. Therefore, the difference between the ideal delays of Figure 7-5 and the real results is the overhead the Planner incurs. As could be expected, the amount of overhead is proportional to the number of nodes in the tree. For small trees overhead is under 1s, which is reasonable. However, for large trees, the overhead becomes significant for the largest tested tree. For example, the “Height = 3” line of 7-2(b) shows a minimum overhead of 5s. Furthermore, this delay becomes larger as the number of threads grows, showing that thread and color management also increases overhead.

**6ms Delay** Figure 7-3 shows that parallelism does help in the face of even minor evaluation and execution delays. In the multi-threaded case, each Plan is able to gain a speedup of 2 over the single-threaded case. Again, as the “Height = 3” line of Figure 7-4(b) shows, a large number of threads incurs additional overhead, though the multi-threaded Planner is still faster than the single-threaded version.

**250ms Delay** Figure 7-4 shows that for very long delays, parallelism helps immensely. For example, for low numbers of threads, the “Height = 3” tree of Figure 7-4(b) could not finish in under a minute, while for higher numbers of threads, it

Tree Characteristics					Ideal Serial Latency [s]			Ideal Parallel Latency [s]		
Goal Degree	Tech. Degree	Height	Total Nodes	Total Leaf Nodes	0ms	6ms	250ms	0ms	6ms	250ms
2	2	1	3	2	0	.012	.500	0	.006	.250
2	2	2	15	8	0	.048	2.000	0	.006	.250
2	2	3	63	32	0	.192	8.000	0	.006	.250
3	3	1	4	3	0	.018	.750	0	.006	.250
3	3	2	40	27	0	.162	6.750	0	.006	.250
3	3	3	364	243	0	1.458	60.750	0	.006	.250

Figure 7-5: Comparison of Tree Properties.

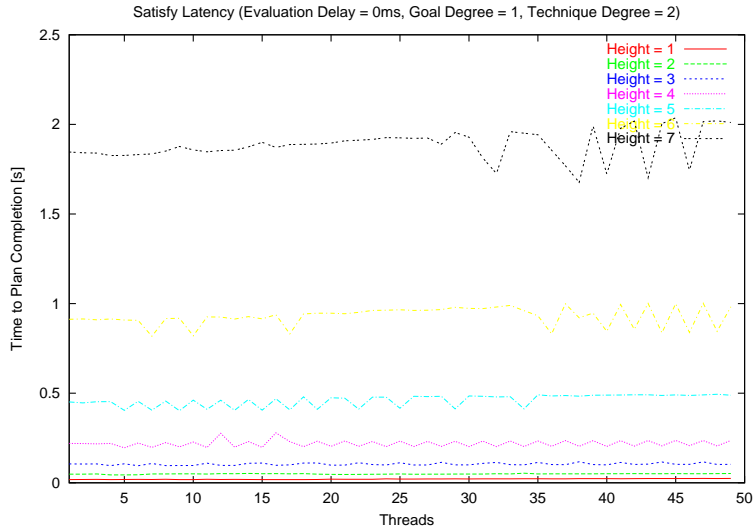


Figure 7-6: Latency for scrawny trees of varying height and no evaluation delay.

could easily finish in a little over 10 seconds. If Techniques regularly perform slow network calls, then the overhead of extra parallelism is well worth it.

### 7.2.3 Satisfy Performance on Long, Scrawny Trees

Though full, bushy trees are ideal for the Planner since they allow it to weigh different Techniques, long trees with little Technique and Goal Degree are also likely. For example, in our implementation of the Goal-oriented Conference, a maximum of two Techniques implement each Goal. Figures 7-6–7-8 show satisfy latency for such scrawny trees of varying height. Here, a moderate amount of parallelism is incredibly helpful in lowering latency any delay is involved.

### 7.2.4 Fail-Over Performance

In addition to quickly satisfying a Goal, the Planner must also be able to react quickly to changes in the environment. This statistic is related to the number of Goal Instances that must be re-planned. Figure 7-9 shows the tree on which we took our fail-over measurements. Initially the left most branch of each Goal is selected. Then we gradually make Technique Instances fail starting from the left and moving right,

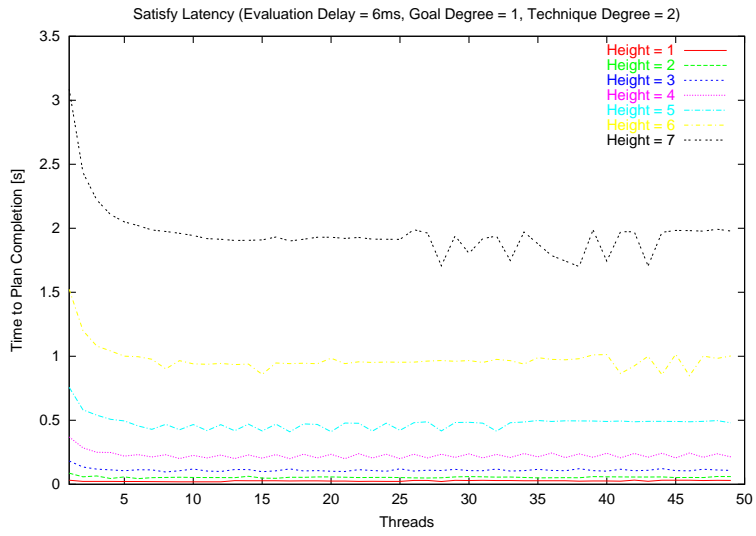


Figure 7-7: Latency for scrawny trees of varying height and an evaluation delay of 6ms .

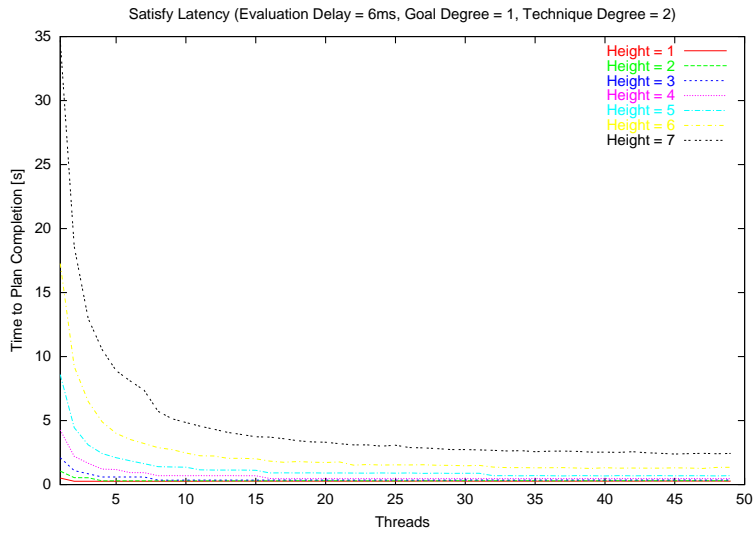


Figure 7-8: Latency for scrawny trees of varying height and an evaluation delay of 250ms.



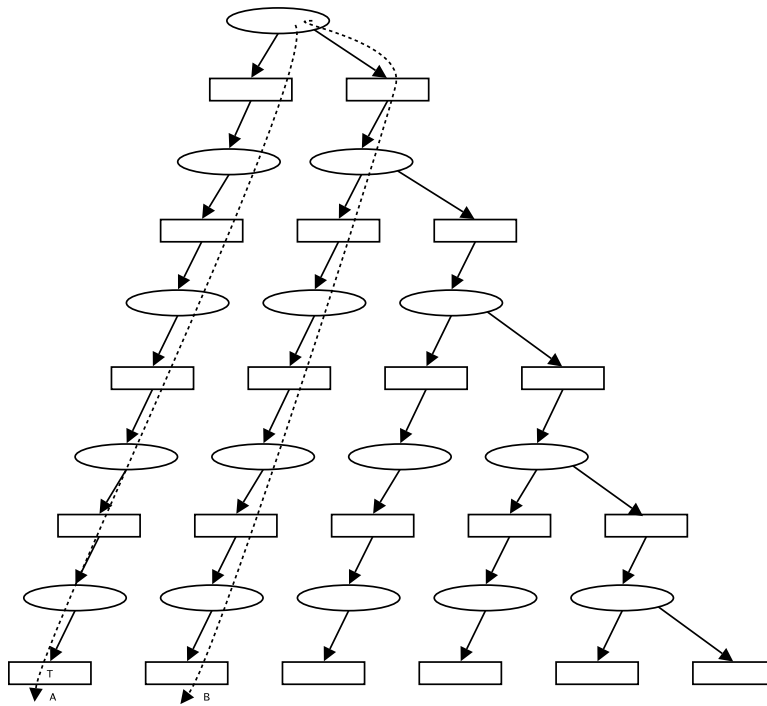


Figure 7-9: The tree used for the fail-over tests. Goal Instances are ellipses and Technique Instances are rectangles. If Technique Instance T fails, the Planner will switch from Plan A to Plan B requiring 5 levels of Goals to be re-planned. Failures in other Techniques cause similar re-plans.

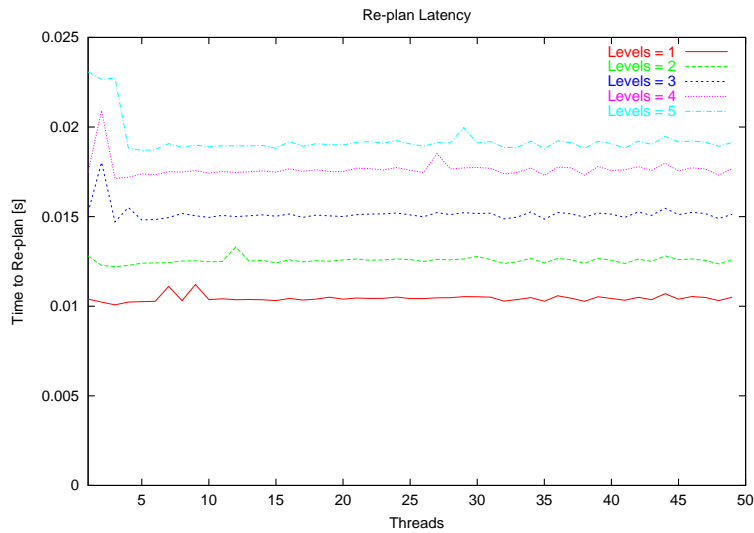


Figure 7-10: Re-plan delay as a function of how many tree levels must be re-planned.

therefore giving us a way to measure latency as a function of the Goal levels that need to be re-planned. This causes each Goal Instance from the top down to switch to its right branch. Figure 7-10 shows the amount of time it takes the Planner to react to a failure of a Technique and re-plan the goal as a function of the number of Goals that failed.

Overall, reacting to a failure is a quick process since the Planner continually monitors the Plan and has all of the information it needs when the failure occurs. Note that, in our test case, allowing extra threads does not improve re-plan latency. In re-planning, most of the re-planning latency comes from starting up and shutting down a handful of Techniques, so the Planner doesn't need the extra parallelism.

# Chapter 8

## Conclusion

### 8.1 Future Work

In the future we would like to explore a variety of extensions to our Planner implementation. The first is making it more dynamic. Our current implementation does not let the arguments to a Technique Instance change after it is constructed, nor allow the subgoals a Technique Instance needs to change after it declares them. Such a restriction might not be necessary and may give Techniques more flexibility. As an extension of the evaluation phase, the Planner might also enable Technique Instances to negotiate terms of service. This could be useful when a Technique Instance demands a subgoal that can't be met, but that could be met in a compromise solution. We would also like to explore hot-swapping Technique Instances. Currently, if two implementations need to be swapped, the first one is completely shutdown before the second is started.

However, in order to make sure that such dynamism does not kill performance, the Planner should be able to “compile” branches of Techniques to a single Composite Technique. This way the Planner needs to only explore fewer branches. Additionally, the Planner can engage in “common subgoal elimination” to reduce the number of Goal Instances the Planner must plan across distinct parts of the Plan.

Finally, we would also like to explore using theorem-proving systems. This way, the Planner can benefit from the ever-increasing performance of these systems.

## 8.2 Conclusion

This thesis presented Goal-oriented programming as a way of writing pervasive applications. An application written in a Goal-oriented way only specified that its intents be satisfied: the actual implementation that backs the intent is planned by the system. This is useful for pervasive applications since they must continually adapt to changing network conditions and service availability.

As a proof of concept, we built a Goal-oriented system as well as a sample scenario. Most of our optimization was in parallelizing as much of the Planner as possible. In many cases, especially for large trees with many Techniques per Goal, parallelization led to several times speedup compared to the single-threaded case. However, speedup was sometimes reduced when the Planner was run with a large number of threads, due to the extra management of the threads.

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