What are routines good for?*

Henry H. Hexmoor

Department of Computer Science
SUNY at Buffalo, Buffalo NY 14260
hexmoor@cs.buffalo.edu

Abstract

Routines are patterns of interaction between an agent and its world. Getting in or out of a car, changing lane, and flipping pages of a book can be routines for an agent if the agent consistently engages in these activities in a similar way. I.e., a task for an agent is a routine if the agent that has choices about how to accomplish that task, nevertheless does it in the same way. Consistently putting on the left leg of pants before putting on the right leg would be a routine for an agent.

A routine is either imposed upon the agent (a plan at the conscious level to be followed), in which case it need not be discovered, or performed by the agent automatically, i.e., unconsciously. The latter may or may not ever be discovered, i.e., noticed and made conscious. However, the existence of such a routine may guide the agents actions. If it remains unconscious, it aids in choosing among competing actions unconsciously as an unexplained tendency or a preference. If it is noticed and made conscious, it can also be used as a concept and used in reasoning about actions and planning. We show how agents with routines a) use them to guide their everyday activity, b) use them to enrich their abstract concepts about acts.

1 Introduction

We see instances of routines as by products of research in planning, artificial life, and architectures for intelligent agency. Routines have not been direct objects of study. Colloquial use of the term “routine” dominates reference to this word in the relevant literature. In our work we try to understand and find ways in which routines can be formalized as well as their impact on learning about act, actions, and skills.

Regardless of benefits of routines, they are either conscious, or unconscious. A conscious routine is a set of policies, a plan, or a script for doing something. An unconscious routine is a sequence of actions, as if the sequence is just a complex action.

“Routines are patterns of interaction between an agent and its world” [AC87]. Getting in or out of a car, changing lanes, and flipping pages of a book can be routines for an agent if the agent consistently engages in these activities in a similar way. I.e., a task for an agent is a routine if the agent that has choices about how to accomplish that task, nevertheless does it in the same way. Consistently putting on the left leg of pants before putting on the right leg would be a routine for an agent.1

In [Agr88], a routine is described as a frequently repeated pattern of activity between an agent and the world, e.g., picking up a fork, making a bowl of cereal, putting on a heavy backpack, selecting a toll booth at the San Francisco Bay Bridge, putting a watch on, breaking an egg into a bowl, washing dishes in the kitchen sink after a large dinner, tossing a wad of paper into the trash can in the far corner of the office, and writing the word “the”. Agre points out that he might not have any fixed way of pouring liquids, but in his morning stupor he might have set way of pouring his first cup of coffee. He goes on to emphasize the improvisational aspects of routines. However, he never gets around to suggesting that we learn from these routines. Agre does not examine the evolution of a routine from its constituent habitual preferences. Agre does not look at mechanisms for identifying and using skills by the agent. I sketch learning techniques that address learning skills from routine activities. Agents that have routines for tasks, use those rou-

1We assume the agent has no medical or otherwise conditions that make it choose one leg over another.
tines to guide their activity.

A course of action or a set of tendencies for choosing among alternative actions can be a routine that is useful in many occasions and is part of many tasks. On the one hand, such a course of action can be considered to be a skill. We consider skills to be routines at the unconscious. Since routines as skills are not plans, there can be no guarantee for success of a routine. Since we are concerned with every day activities, we are considering situated actions [Suc88], i.e., actions that an agent exhibits without reasoning or making conscious decisions, ergo unconscious behaviors.

On the other hand, a routine might be a plan, a set of policies, or a script to be followed. We consider plans/scripts to be routines at the conscious.

Following the research in situated activity [Suc88, AC87, Nil92], we would like an agent to operate with situated actions instead of planned actions. In the larger context of intelligent agency, we argue that situated activity is a particular form of interaction between an agent and its environment that is produced by an agent when it is involved in unconscious interaction [HLS92, HLCS93, HCBS93]. Elsewhere, in [HS93], we discuss that unconscious actions are part of an agent’s skills as opposed to its knowledge. When routines are unconscious they can be considered to be skills. On the other hand, an agent may also engage in conscious, reasoned out routine.

We have developed an architecture that facilitates modeling conscious and unconscious interactions of an agent with the world. Our architecture is GLAIR (Grounded Layered Architecture with Integrated Reasoning) [HN92, HLS92, HCBS93, HLCS93, HLS93, LHS93, HS93]. GLAIR is an architecture for intelligent autonomous agents that endows them with physical abilities that are “natural” for the agents, i.e., correspond to their physiology.

Figure 1 schematically presents GLAIR. GLAIR architecture is characterized by a three-level organization into a Knowledge Level (KL), a Perceptuo-Motor Level (PML), and a Sensori-Actuator Level (SAL). GLAIR is a general multi-level architecture for autonomous cognitive agents with integrated sensory and motor capabilities. GLAIR offers an unconscious layer for modeling tasks that exhibit a close affinity between sensing and acting, i.e., behavior based AI modules, and a conscious layer for modeling tasks that exhibit delays between sensing and acting. GLAIR provides learning mechanisms that allow for autonomous agents to learn emergent behaviors and add it to their repertoire of behaviors. GLAIR motivates the concept of embodiment.

In light of our distinction between conscious and unconscious interaction, we will specify the impact of routines on conscious and unconscious interactions with the environment. In general, we are interested in ways in which an agent discovers, learns, and uses routines. The following is our definition of a routine: “A conscious course of action or a set of unconscious preferences, that is habitually or by choice adhered to is a routine.”

The above definition assumes an agent that lives in a world and performs a set of tasks that are part of its life. We assume the agent to start out with no apriori plan or preference for a course of action. By engaging in the tasks, the agent develops preferences for actions. Given a task, if the agent has determined preferences for all possible choice points in the space of possible actions, we say the agent has a routine for the task. The world of the agent may or may not be static or changing. If an agent develops a routine in a particular world and then the world changes, the
routine maybe lost. For example if an agent develops a routine for finding an object in a cluttered but static room, it basically has learned the layout of the room.

If we now move objects in the room and it develops another routine for finding objects, we would want the new routine to work in the previous setting as well. I.e., we would like routines to endow the agent with ever richer preferences. Similarly, if the world becomes dynamic, i.e., the agent interacts with moving objects, new routines developed should cope with previously static situations. However, we don’t expect the routines be so robust that we can change the agent’s morphology, e.g., change its sensors and actuators, and expect the new routines to cope with the changed morphology.

Since a routine is a course of action or a set of preferences, within this course of action, there will be subsets of action courses that may remain the same even across morphology changes. For example, an agent that maneuvers around corners in a smooth arc motion instead of a stop-turn-start sequence should be able to keep this ability over many task spaces and many minor morphological changes.

Many recent works in mobile robotics have addressed learning isolated actions, particularly through neural network approaches, e.g., [Neh92]. In our approach, we don’t isolate actions for learning. Instead we focus on emergent sequences of actions that are parts of larger tasks and unsupervised learning of these action sequences. Furthermore, sequences of actions learned by the agent become significant for the agent after being learned and the agent generates concepts corresponding to these sequences to be used in subsequent interactions or reasoning.

In GLAIR we have developed a mechanism for unconscious behavior generation we call Perceptuo-Motor Automata, PMA. GLAIR and PMA are computational techniques designed to study improvisations and learning which is commonplace in many routine activities.

1.1 Uses of Routines

There are times that we notice our habitual behaviors, like tying a shoe lace, in a particular way. Why or when we form habits are beyond the scope of what we are interested. Here we seek ways to use and at times discover routines that are habitual.

We expect discovered and learned routines to be used in one of three ways: a) as a mental notion to be reasoned about, b) as stand alone unconscious pieces of behavior, c) tendencies for choosing certain commands over other applicable commands.

1.1.1 Routines Are Used to Guide Daily Activity

A routine is either imposed upon the agent (a plan at the conscious level to be followed), in which case it need not be discovered, or performed by the agent automatically, i.e., unconsciously. The latter may or may not ever be discovered, i.e., noticed and made conscious. However, the existence of such a routine may guide the agent’s actions. If it remains unconscious, it aids in choosing among competing actions unconsciously as an unexplained tendency or a preference. If it is noticed and made conscious, it can also be used as a concept in reasoning about actions and planning.

An important feature of GLAIR is that it allows knowledge to migrate from one level to another and in doing so changes representation in order to be consistent with the representation used at that level. The underlying assumption here is that parts of an agent’s knowledge about its world have natural loci either in the conscious or the unconscious. As the agent interacts with the world, the knowledge may be gained at some level and later find its natural locus at a different level and migrate there. The migration of knowledge from conscious level to unconscious level often is a result of caching reasoning that takes place at the conscious level. So what is migrated to the unconscious is cached reasoning or just chunks of “what to do when”. This is often known as chunking in psychological terms. Chunking allows the agent to quickly pick an action without deliberation. This lack of deliberation is a form of lessening the cognitive burden of deciding “what to do next”. Naturally this lessening cognition aids in guiding the agent’s actions.

We are interested in all routines including the ones that are not discovered but adopted. Reading a driver’s manual we are told about passing another vehicle and although that may not be the only way to pass another vehicle we adopt it. Once our conscious knowledge of passing another vehicle is practiced it becomes part of our skills and in our framework of GLAIR [HLS92] we consider it to have become unconscious. We can consider this process of learning as a form of caching a plan into reactive plans as was done in [Sch87, Dru89].

Another way that an agent’s actions are guided by routines is by refining skills at the unconscious level. There are many routines that need not have a concept associated with them at the conscious level, but nevertheless are useful in guiding actions. These
are tendencies that the agent may fall into and stay with. Informally, we consider this use of routines as skill acquisition.

1.1.2 Routines are Used to Enrich an Agent's Knowledge and Skill with Acts

Beyond their capacity to guide an agent's activity, routines can enrich an agent's ability to interact with the world. This enrichment takes two forms. The first is to enrich the agent's internal model of its acts. This means that the agent learns more about its abilities and represents these abilities in its repertoire of acts. The second method is an enrichment that does not affect the agent's explicit model of the world. i.e., no modifications are made to what is represented. Instead, the agent improves its ability in choosing among alternate actions. With both methods, the agents learns more complex acts and behaviors.

2 Routines and Learning

We consider unconscious routines to be acquired through inductive learning.3 Inductive learning is drawing inductive inferences from observed facts in the environment or by being told. A recent trend in inductive learning, especially as applied to planning, is reinforcement based learning, RBL. Reinforcement learning is a trial-and-error process where, upon executing an action, applicability of actions to situations are updated based on the reinforcement signal received in response to the action. An action elicited by a stimulus is known as a respondent [Hen69].4 This is in contrast to actions controlled by their consequences [Hen69].5

For an RBL application, a set of states, a number of actions, and a reward system that determines rewards for being in a state are given. The connection between actions and states is not given or at least it is underspecified. This makes deciding what action to perform given a state nondeterministic. After running an RBL system, it learns preferences for choosing actions for states that the system finds itself. This process reduces nondeterminacy of choosing actions.

In terms of GLAIR, we may have a situation where the agent’s KL is rich and PML is lean. As the agent interacts with the world, it enriches its PML with decisions made at the KL. However, some decisions may add nondeterminacy to the PML. For instance if at the PML for situation S there is a corresponding action A1 but the next time KL perceives situation S it decides on action A2, PML adds this nondeterminacy to its PMA.6

We have shown this type of learning in our implementation of a World War I style dogfight simulation game we call Air Battle Simulation (ABS). “Gabby,” is the agent in this game which stands for “GLAIR air battler.” Initially, Gabby has not acquired a PMA for the game and uses conscious level reasoning (i.e., SNePS behavioral rules [SR87]) to decide what move to make [HCBS93]. Gabby's interactions become more automatic as it interacts the enemy in routine activities. The routine is not being learned explicitly through this style of learning. This style of learning does not encode or discover a routine but makes use of it.

What is developed with RBL is connection between situations and actions. For example, given states S1 S2 S3 and actions A1 A2, let's assume no apriori preferences exist for actions, e.g., given state S2, doing A1 or A2 are equally preferred. Let's assume that S3 is the most rewarding (desirable) state and S1 is the least rewarding state. After RBL settles down, we may learn that in state S1 action A1 is preferred and in state S2 action A2 is preferred. If the goal is to get to S3 and we always start at state S1, the system will repeat A1 by A2. Thus the system becomes deterministic. We can call A1 followed by A2 or visiting S1 and S2 a routine.

Of course if we make the STRIPS assumption7 and if we assumed that the reward system stays the same, after RBL settles down and resolves all nondeterminacy, a routine can be detected by observing the recurring sequence of actions. In this example, A1 A2 as a repeating sequence is a routine.

Any system that changes goals will have a dynamic reward system. E.g., if the initial goal is to get to state S3, reward for getting to that state will be the highest. Now if the goal changes to get to state S2, being state S2 will have the highest reward. Another agent maybe involved and the interaction of the agents determine the resulting state. E.g., after executing action A1 if the agent normally finds itself in state S2, due to another agent's interference

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3 As opposed to analytic learning or deductive inference.
4 Respondent conditioning is also known as instrumental learning. An example of respondent conditioning is “laughter as a consequence of being amused”.
5 Operant conditioning is also known as classical conditioning. An example of operant conditioning is “laughing to the boss's jokes”.
6 In the sense that conscious knowledge at the KL migrates to unconscious in PML, we consider this as a form of automaticity. Automaticity is a psychological term. An agent experienced with an activity automatically (unconsciously) picks acts and execute them.
7 Nothing changes unless the agent changes it.
it might find itself in state S1 or state S3. Let’s extend our simple model to include goals. E.g., let’s have G1 G2 as two goals. Action sequences maybe recurrent under one goal or both. We want the agent to detect recurring sequences of actions common in multiple goals as routines.

Apart from multiple goals, there may not be rewards provided to make the system completely deterministic or the reward system dynamically changes. When rewards are dynamic or underspecified, the agent may detect recurring sequences of actions common under varying reward systems as routines.

In terms of GLAIR, an agent may have a rich PML and a thin KL. We have in mind, the ability for an agent to carry out a task unconsciously without being able to reason about it consciously, even at a coarse level. It is possible for the agent to realize the relationship among its disparate pieces of knowledge about actions by observing its own unconscious abilities. In GLAIR, knowledge level actions are decomposed in PML to more primitive behaviors and actuator commands. The agent relates a primitive action in the KL with a behavior at the PML. If the PML takes over the agent’s actions and the KL stays inactive\(^8\) the agent may notice changes in its behaviors appropriate for the task that occur atomatically. These changes correspond to switching between primitive actions in the KL. At the KL, the sequence of primitive actions that correspond to behaviors can be learned as a routine. We will explain this phenomena with examples in the next section.

2.1 Summary of Learning Routines

- When goals in a system change, the corresponding rewards change. The agent may detect recurring sequences of actions common in multiple goals as routines. The learned routine will be in the PML.

- When rewards are dynamic or underspecified, the agent may detect recurring sequences of actions common under varying reward systems as routines. The learned routine will be in the PML.

- An agent may learn connections between disparate pieces of the KL knowledge about actions that correspond to a rich PML. What is learned is a routine through migration of knowledge from PML to KL. The learned routine will be in the KL.

\(^8\)This is like an skillsman working on something without reasoning.

3 Routines, Learning, and when Gerry Catches Garry

Gerry is a mobile robot.\(^9\) It is 2.5’ tall. Gerry is controlled by a 6.270 board.\(^10\) Gerry has two independently driven wheels, an infrared transmitter, 4 infrared sensors, a front and a rear bumper, and four corner whiskers. Gerry is designed to have four primitive abilities of going straight, turning right, turning left, and stopping. When a whisker or a bumper senses contact with an external object, Gerry performs a reflex. There are reflexes uniquely corresponding to each whisker and bumper. Reflexes are implemented in the SAL of Gerry’s. At the PML of Gerry, behaviors are implemented using PMA.

Currently, Gerry has PMAs and some basic knowledge at the KL for searching for another robot, Garry.\(^11\) Garry is 1’ tall. Garry is controlled by a 6.270 board. Garry has two independently driven wheels, an infrared transmitter, 2 infrared sensors, and three front bumpers/whiskers. When a whisker or a bumper senses contact with an external object, Garry performs a reflex.\(^12\)

Figure 2 shows Gerry’s KL knowledge to consist of three separate pieces of knowledge for spotting Garry, catching up with Garry, and grabbing Garry. At the KL, Gerry doesn’t know that these are parts of a task for getting Garry. Perceptual reduction is implemented by having concepts at the KL correspond to patterns of stimulus at the PML. For example, “no-garry” at the KL corresponds to the pattern of no infrared being sensed at the PML. At the KL, no concepts for specific infrared signals as in PML exist. Each action in the KL is expanded into a PMA in the KL. This is an implementation of action elaboration where actions at the PML are finer compared to the KL actions.

At the SAL, Gerry has 6 reflexes for avoiding obstacles. Figure 2 shows pneumatic forms of these reflexes. The actual implementation of actuator commands are in terms of wheel commands. Concurrent behaviors at the PML are allowed and also concurrent reflexes are possible. Behaviors and

\(^9\)Gerry was an Omnibot 2000 toy robot we received from Amherst Systems, Inc. as a gift before we converted into a research vehicle, gave it a brain, and called it Gerry. The first letter “G” stands for GLAIR and the two ”r”s in the middle stand for roving robot.

\(^10\)6.270 boards are robot controller boards developed at MIT for use in their 6.270 class offering. 6.270 boards have a 6811 microprocessor with multitasking capabilities.

\(^11\)Garry is a Lego robot. The first letter “G” stands for GLAIR and the two “r”s in the middle stand for roving robot.

\(^12\)Details of Garry’s implementation are irrelevant here.
reflexes produce wheel commands. All wheel commands are given a priority level when they are generated. The PML wheel commands have lower priority than the ones for reflexes. One exception is that behaviors have higher priority than reflexes if a reflex needs to be suppressed. For example, to catch Garry, Gerry needs to have its front bumper touch Garry and sense high levels of infrared in its front sensors. Normally touching an object with the front bumper triggers a reflex to backup and turn. However, we want to suppress this reflex. There is a module at the SAL for arbitration and combination of all wheels commands. This module examines flags for suppression and if reflexes are not suppressed, it sums the effect of reflex generated wheel commands and passes it to the wheels. If no reflex is active, it takes all behavior generated wheel commands and sums and passes it to the wheels. If reflex suppression is turned on, it ignores reflexes and attends to the behavior generated commands.

We have programmed PMAs and the knowledge at the KL so Gerry will look for Garry and will stop when it finds Garry. At the PML we are running reinforcement based learning to resolve nondeterminacy. Gerry's actions can be controlled either completely by the KL or by the PML.

We intend to experiment with Gerry learning a routine by migration of knowledge from the PML to the KL. The routine we intend Gerry to learn is that when it sets on to spot Garry it follows through by catching up and grabbing Garry. This is a realization for Gerry that its three actions at the KL are part of the same routine. We want Gerry to produce a concept for the routine and that it consists of spotting, catching up and grabbing Garry.\textsuperscript{13}

4 Conclusion

We outlined routines in general as arising from interaction between an agent and its world. Routines maybe conscious or unconscious. A routine may enrich an agent's conscious knowledge or increase its unconscious capacity for interacting with the world. Routines guide interaction with the world by lowering cognitive burden of deciding actions. We described how our GLAIR architecture facilitates demonstration of learning routines. We described ongoing research with Gerry, our mobile robot implemented using GLAIR.

References


\textsuperscript{13}Naturally, since we want this learning to be done by Gerry the name for the routine will be anonymous (a "gensym" in Lisp terms). Semantics of the routine for Gerry will be in terms of PMA.


