

Topological Planning with Post-unique and Unary Actions

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Abstract

We are interested in realistic planning problems to model the behavior of Non-Playable Characters (NPCs) in video games. Search-based action planning, introduced by the game F.E.A.R. in 2005, has an exponential time complexity allowing to control only a dozen NPCs between 2 frames. A close study of the plans generated in first-person shooters shows that: (1) actions are unary, (2) actions are contextually post-unique and (3) there is no two instances of the same action in an NPC's plan. By considering (1), (2) and (3) as restrictions, we introduce new classes of problems with the Simplified Action Structure formalism which indeed allow to model realistic problems and whose instances are solvable by a linear-time algorithm. We also experimentally show that our algorithm is capable of managing millions of NPCs per frame.

1 Introduction

In 2005, F.E.A.R. is released and it is the first video game to use *action planning* for the control in *real-time* of the *Non-Playable Characters* (NPCs). The planning is executed through the well-known Goal-Oriented Action Planning (GOAP) system [Orkin, 2005]. The behavior of these NPCs were so relevant that reviews praised the approach when released [Ocampo, 2007], and it is still recognized as such today [Horti, 2017]. This *Artificial Intelligence* (AI) technique has then be implemented in several other video games such as Rise of the Tomb Raider [Conway, 2015], Middle Earth: Shadow of Mordor [Higley, 2015], Immortals Fenyx rising and the Assassin's Creed series since Odyssey [Girard, 2021].

Action planning is a sub-field of AI that aims to give agents, or NPCs in our case, the capability to build sequences of actions to plan and behave in their environment. Given the description of an initial state, the description of a goal state and the description of an action set, the purpose of a *planner* is to find a sequence of actions, known as *plan*, to reach the

goal state and that is applicable in the initial state, or to return that no such plan exists. GOAP uses finite domain variables to represent the *planning problem* of the NPCs. These problems are decidable but planning remains intractable in general [Bylander, 1994]. In particular, the planning algorithm of GOAP is based on A* whose worst-case time complexity is exponential with the number of actions and the size of the plan. To give a plan to as many NPCs as possible while respecting the real-time constraint, which represents less than 10% of the time between two frames¹, and avoiding triggering the worst-case scenarios, the GOAP developers of these game companies have relied on tricks². Among these tricks are:

1. The action representation is simple. Each action has few pre- and post-conditions. In F.E.A.R., almost all actions are unary, i.e. each action only has one post-condition [Monolith Productions, 2006].

2. There are pruning techniques to avoid exploring the entire action search space while planning [Orkin, 2003; Girard, 2021]. In F.E.A.R., each action has a *Context Precondition* method whose role is to check whether the action is contextually viable. If not, the action is merely withdrawn from the search. It means that even if several actions may have the same post-condition, only some of them (sometimes none) will be considered.

3. Plans are short [Jacopin, 2014]. In Middle Earth: Shadow of Mordor, to keep plans short P. Higley explains that some actions are just animations [Higley, 2015]. It means these actions will never be considered by the planner but they will still be animated to make the player believes NPCs have long plans.

Even though game companies use these tricks, the planning problems of their NPCs remain intractable. Points 1., 2. and 3. can be used to define assumptions, however:

1. Actions are unary. Each action only has one post-condition.
2. Actions are (contextually) post-unique. Given a situa-

¹It represents 1,67ms for a 60 frames per second video game.

²The Software Development Kit of F.E.A.R. is freely available online.

tion, no two actions have the same post-condition.

- Each action of the plan has at most one occurrence in the plan.

In this paper, we propose to use these assumptions as restrictions so as to create classes of planning problems that are tractable, and with an algorithm capable of solving each instance. The rest is organized as follows: we first give a background on action planning restrictions. We then define an NPC planning problem with post-unique and unary actions to introduce the SAS formalism and the issues with these two restrictions. It follows the definition of new tractable classes of planning problems and the introduction of our linear time algorithm capable of solving the problem instances of these classes, along with complexity and correctness theorems. We eventually present a concrete experiment performed on abstract settings to show that our classes of problems allow the creation of realistic problems and to highlight the potential of our planner.

2 Background

The use of restrictions to create tractable classes of problems is not new [Cooper *et al.*, 2012]. C. Bäckström, in his thesis, has developed the *Simplified Action Structure* (SAS) formalism and has applied restrictions on his action representation to create the first tractable class of problems: SAS-PUS [Bäckström, 1992]. PUS are the restrictions and stand for Post-uniqueness, Unariness, and Single-Valuedness, which fits two of our assumptions. In SAS, actions have post-conditions and two types of preconditions: the pre- and prevail-conditions. The pre-conditions define what must be true before the action execution and what will be changed by the post-conditions. Whereas the prevail-conditions define what must be true before the action execution and what must hold during the entire action execution. If an NPC fills a bucket with water, the bucket is previously empty (pre-condition), then filled (post-condition). And the bucket must remain in hands while being filled (prevail-condition). The (S) restriction implies that if a prevail-condition is defined for an action, then all the other actions must either have the same prevail-condition or not be affected by it. In our example, if an NPC has an action requiring the bucket in hands, all the other actions of the set must either require the bucket in hands or not care about having it. In other words, (S) implies that there is no action in the NPC’s set whose prevail-condition is to not have the bucket in hands. (S) is very restrictive and prevents the creation of some realistic problems. To generalize our bucket example, one cannot create On/Off situations with the SAS-PUS class of problems.

Considering our assumptions 1. and 2., it would be great to get rid of the single-valuedness. (S) cannot be simply removed, however, C. Bäckström proved that the resulting class SAS-PU is intractable [Bäckström, 1992]. The reason for the intractability is the exponentially-sized minimal³ solution plans of some problem instances. An underlying conclusion

³A minimal solution plan is a plan with the lowest number of actions.

\mathcal{A}	pre	post	prv	Explanation
a_1	$v_0 = 1$	$v_0 = 0$	$\langle u, u, u \rangle$	DropHaystack
a_2	$v_0 = 0$	$v_0 = 1$	$\langle u, 0, u \rangle$	TakeHaystack
a_3	$v_0 = 1$	$v_0 = 2$	$\langle u, u, u \rangle$	FillHorseFeeder
a_4	$v_1 = 1$	$v_1 = 0$	$\langle u, u, u \rangle$	DropBucket
a_5	$v_1 = 0$	$v_1 = 1$	$\langle 0, u, u \rangle$	PickUpBucket
a_6	$v_2 = 0$	$v_2 = 1$	$\langle u, 1, u \rangle$	FillBucketWithWater
a_7	$v_2 = 1$	$v_2 = 2$	$\langle u, 1, u \rangle$	FillHorseTrough

$$\mathcal{M} = \{v_0 : \text{Haystack}, v_1 : \text{Bucket}, v_2 : \text{Water}\}$$

$$\mathcal{D}_{v_0} = \{0 : \text{none}, 1 : \text{inHands}, 2 : \text{inFeeder}\}$$

$$\mathcal{D}_{v_1} = \{0 : \text{none}, 1 : \text{inHands}\}$$

$$\mathcal{D}_{v_2} = \{0 : \text{inSource}, 1 : \text{inBucket}, 2 : \text{inTrough}\}$$

Table 1: The SAS action set of the Horse Breeder. Actions are (P) and (U). Variable u means *undefined*.

is that some actions have an exponential number of occurrences inside these plans, which, in addition to making the SAS-PU class intractable, does not respect our third assumption. According to **Theorem 4.4** [Bäckström, 1992, p.76], the class SAS-PUS does not respect our third assumption either: the minimal solution plan of each solvable SAS-PUS problem instance contains actions with at most two occurrences. Thus, the question is: does there exist a restriction which, once combined with (P) and (U), creates a tractable class whose solvable problem instances are solved by a minimal solution plans containing actions with at most one occurrence?

(P), (U) and (S) are *syntactical* restrictions because they affect the action representation. There also exists *structural* restrictions that restrict the structure of a planning problem [Jonsson and Bäckström, 1998]. Most of the time, the structure of a problem is represented as a graph [Chen and Giménez, 2010]. In the literature, there is no structure representation that fully captures the intractability of SAS-PU problems. Both the post-pre and the post-prevail dependencies must be studied to define a structural restriction that will allow us to respect our third assumption. To this end, we define in this paper two new graphs: the *domain action graph* presented in Section 3 and the *action graph* presented in Section 4. They focus on SAS-PU actions and the relations between them.

3 SAS-PU Planning Problems

A SAS *planning problem* is defined as a couple $(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{A})$, with \mathcal{M} a set of state variables and \mathcal{A} a set of actions. Each state variable $v_i \in \mathcal{M}$ has a domain of values denoted \mathcal{D}_{v_i} . A list of size $|\mathcal{M}|$ of such values defines a *state* and the i^{th} element of a state is a value of \mathcal{D}_{v_i} assigned to the state variable v_i . Then, each action of \mathcal{A} is defined with post-conditions (post) and two types of preconditions: the pre-conditions (pre) and the prevail-conditions (prv). The unariness (U) implies each action only has one post-condition. The post-uniqueness (P) implies there are no two actions with the same post-condition. In SAS, the pre- and post-conditions both define the same state variables, so, due to (U), they both only affect one state variable. It results they can be defined with the state variable affected (v_i) and the value assigned (p) only:

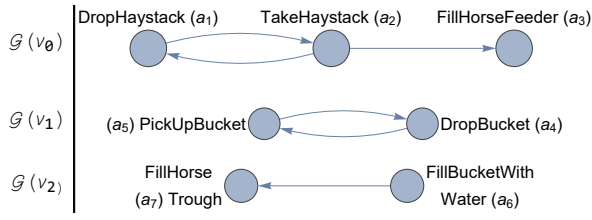


Figure 1: The domain-action graphs of the Horse Breeder.

$\forall a \in \mathcal{A}, pre/post(a) = (v_i = p)$. The prevail-conditions, on the contrary, are represented as a partially-defined state: $\forall a \in \mathcal{A}, prv(a) = \langle v_i = p \mid v_i \in \mathcal{M}, p \in \mathcal{D}_{v_i} \cup \{u\} \rangle$, and u is the *undefined* value. Table 1 gives an example of a SAS-PU planning problem with the Horse Breeder, a NPC from the game Red Dead Redemption 2 [DefendTheHouse, 2018].

The purpose of a SAS planner is then to solve a *problem instance* defined as the quadruple $(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{A}, s_0, s_*)$, with s_0 the start state and s_* the goal state. Let I_{hb} denote a problem instance of the Horse Breeder, $I_{hb} = (\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{A}, \langle 0, 0, 0 \rangle, \langle 2, 0, 2 \rangle)$ is a possible problem instance to define the daily routine: feed the horses. His goal is to have the water in the horse trough ($s_*[v_2] = 2$) and the horse feeder filled with a haystack ($s_*[v_0] = 2$). At the beginning of his daily routine, he carries nothing ($s_0[v_0] = 0, s_0[v_1] = 0$) and the water is in the source ($s_0[v_2] = 0$). With SAS, the start and the goal states must be totally defined (cf. Section 7 for a discussion on this point). To solve a problem instance, the planner will eventually build a minimal solution plan Δ . Such plans are composed of several *chains of actions*, one (possibly empty) for each state variable from the start to the goal state [Bäckström, 1992]. A chain of actions on v_i from $s_0[v_i]$ to $s_*[v_i]$, denoted $chain_{v_i}(s_0[v_i], s_*[v_i])$, is a linear sequence of actions that focus on the relation between the pre- and post-condition. Once all the chains are known, the actions of these chains are ordered among themselves according to their prevail-conditions to create Δ . For example, $\Delta = \langle a_5, a_6, a_7, a_4, a_2, a_3 \rangle$ is a linear and minimal solution plan to solve I_{hb} , and Δ is composed of: $chain_{v_0}(0, 2) = \langle a_2, a_3 \rangle$, $chain_{v_1}(0, 0) = \langle a_5, a_4 \rangle$ and $chain_{v_2}(0, 2) = \langle a_6, a_7 \rangle$.

In section 2, we explained that it exists problem instances in SAS that can be solved by minimal solution plans containing actions with several occurrences. In SAS, planners are allowed to instantiate several times the same action to build a plan. This is feasible if and only if these actions are looping with some other actions via the post-pre dependencies. The Horse Breeder can pick up and drop the bucket as many times as he wants because DropBucket and PickUpBucket are looping together. On the contrary, in this problem representation, the planner can only instantiate FillBucketWithWater, FillHorseFeeder or FillHorseTrough once to solve a problem instance. The *domain-action graph* enables the visualization of such cycles:

Definition 1 (Domain-action graph). *Let $v_i \in \mathcal{M}$, a domain-action graph of v_i , denoted $\mathcal{G}(v_i)$, is a weakly connected and directed graph. $\mathcal{G}(v_i) = (\mathcal{A}(v_i), E_{pre}(\mathcal{A}(v_i)))$ s.t.:*

- $\mathcal{A}(v_i) = \{a \mid a \in \mathcal{A}, post(a) \in \mathcal{D}_{v_i}\}$ is the vertex set.
- $E_{pre}(\mathcal{A}(v_i)) = \{(a, b) \mid a, b \in \mathcal{A}(v_i), post(a) =$

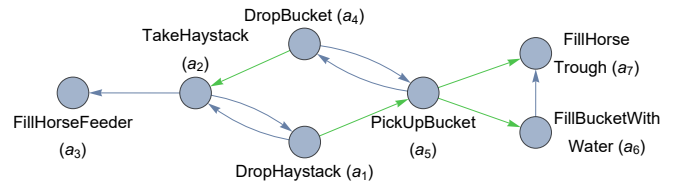


Figure 2: The action graph \mathcal{G} of the Horse Breeder. The blue edges are the post-pre dependencies ($E_{pre}(\mathcal{A})$) while the green edges are the post-prevail ones ($E_{prv}(\mathcal{A})$).

$pre(b)\}$ is the directed edge set.

The Horse Breeder has three domain-action graphs, one for each state variable (cf. Figure 1). $\mathcal{G}(v_0)$ and $\mathcal{G}(v_1)$ have one cycle with two actions while $\mathcal{G}(v_2)$ has no cycle. It can be highlighted that, due to (P), there are at most $|\mathcal{D}_{v_i}|$ actions in $\mathcal{A}(v_i)$. Then, if there are less than $|\mathcal{D}_{v_i}| - 1$ actions in $\mathcal{A}(v_i)$ then $\mathcal{G}(v_i)$ is disconnected and the actions of each of the disconnected part will never end up in the same action plan. Although this is theoretically feasible, this is equivalent to considering that there are as many state variables as there are disconnected parts. Hence the weakly connected characteristic of the domain-action graphs. Eventually, if there are exactly $|\mathcal{D}_{v_i}| - 1$ actions in $\mathcal{A}(v_i)$, then there is one value in \mathcal{D}_{v_i} that cannot be set by an action but only by the environment. In our example, we consider that (Water = *in.Source*) can only be set by the environment and not by an action of the Horse Breeder.

Lemma 1. *Let $v_i \in \mathcal{M}$,*

- *If $|\mathcal{A}(v_i)| = |\mathcal{D}_{v_i}| - 1$, then $\mathcal{G}(v_i)$ is a directed tree.*
- *If $|\mathcal{A}(v_i)| = |\mathcal{D}_{v_i}|$, then $\mathcal{G}(v_i)$ has a unique cycle.*

Proof. (Idea of proof) This lemma is proven by recursion and by using the previous observations. \square

This Lemma is significant as it highlights that actions responsible for the intractability of SAS-PU problems are contained in identifiable cycles:

Definition 2. *We denote $Cycle(v_i)$ the set of actions that are inside the unique, possibly empty, cycle of $\mathcal{G}(v_i)$.*

For the Horse Breeder, we have: $Cycle(v_0) = \{a_1, a_2\}$, $Cycle(v_1) = \{a_4, a_5\}$, $Cycle(v_2) = \emptyset$. Although, for each $v_i \in \mathcal{M}$, $Cycle(v_i)$ contains actions that are likely to be instantiated several times, if none of them satisfy one defined prevail-condition of another action, then the planner does not need to pass through $Cycle(v_i)$ several times. Let consider that the Horse Breeder only has two actions: DropBucket and PickUpBucket: the minimal solution plan to solve $s_0[v_1] = s_*[v_1]$ is $\Delta = \emptyset$; and, the minimal solution plan to solve $s_0[v_1] \neq s_*[v_1]$ is of size 1 and contains either an instance of DropBucket or an instance of PickUpBucket depending on which one satisfies $s_*[v_1]$. Now, no matter how many actions the planning problem is composed of, if none of them require DropBucket or PickUpBucket to satisfy their prevail-condition, the planner will never loop through $Cycle(v_1)$. In fact, this is crucial to identify what we called the requestable actions:

Definition 3 (Requestable Action). A requestable action is an action that solves the prevail-condition of at least another action of \mathcal{A} . We denote \mathcal{Req} the set of requestable actions: $\mathcal{Req} = \{a \mid a \in \mathcal{A}(v_i), \exists b \in \mathcal{A}, \text{post}(a) = \text{prv}(b)[v_i] \neq u\}$. $\mathcal{Req}(v_i)$ is the set of requestable actions affecting $v_i \in \mathcal{M}$.

For the Horse Breeder, the requestable actions are: $\mathcal{Req} = \{a_1, a_4, a_5\}$. **Definitions 2** and **3** allow us to define a new structural restriction in function of the number of actions per cycle:

Definition 4. Let $v_i \in \mathcal{M}$, $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Given a SAS-PU problem, we denote C_k the structural restriction that limits to at most k the number of actions inside each $\text{Cycle}(v_i)$ having at least one requestable action.

If $\mathcal{Req}(v_i) \cup \text{Cycle}(v_i) \neq \emptyset$, then $|\text{Cycle}(v_i)| \leq k$.

In the next section, we introduce the new classes of problems SAS-PUC $_k$. In particular, with respect to some $k \in \mathbb{N}$, we introduce new classes of tractable problems and we indicate from which k our 3rd assumption is no longer respected.

4 The Classes of Problems SAS-PUC $_k$

Our 3rd assumption is: there is no two times the same action in an NPC's plan. This assumption is an output restriction, however, and does not give information on how to design a SAS planning problem. The purpose of this section is thus to study SAS-PUC $_k$ problems for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$ so as to find problems whose solvable instances are necessarily solved by a solution plan respecting our 3rd assumption. If such classes of problems exist, then we will say that they respect the 3rd assumption.

In the following, we only consider $k = 0$, $k = 2$ and $k \geq 3$. The case $k = 1$ is meaningless as it implies there is an action whose pre-condition is equal to its post-condition. This is not possible due to inner restrictions of the SAS formalism [Bäckström, 1992, p.52].

Theorem 1. SAS-PUC $_0$ problems respect our 3rd assumption.

Proof. (Idea of proof) In these problems, for each $v_i \in \mathcal{M}$, there is no $\text{Cycle}(v_i)$ containing a requestable action. If the planner instantiates some actions from these cycles, it is just to link the start to the goal state. The planner will never loop through these cycles to seek for a requestable action. For the actions outside such cycles, they can obviously only be instantiated once. The theorem is then proved by recursion. \square

Theorem 2. SAS-PUC $_2$ problems are intractable.

Proof. (Idea of proof) The Gray Code problem defined in **Proof 6.14** [Bäckström, 1992, p.138] is also of the class SAS-PUC $_2$. The conclusion is that it exists problem instances with an exponentially-sized minimal solution plan. \square

Lemma 2. For $k \geq 3$, every SAS-PUC $_k$ problem has at least one problem instance whose minimal solution plan has at least one action with two occurrences in it.

Proof. (Idea of proof) For each of these problems, we can build a problem instance similar to the one presented in **Figure 4.3** [Bäckström, 1992, p.75]. It results the statement of this Lemma. \square

According to our 3rd assumption and **Lemma 2**, we cannot model a NPC problem with the class SAS-PUC $_k$ with $k \geq 3$. The Horse Breeder problem is of the class SAS-PUC $_2$. It is (P) and (U) and both $\text{Cycle}(v_0)$ and $\text{Cycle}(v_1)$ are concerned by the restriction (C $_2$). $|\text{Cycle}(v_0)| = |\text{Cycle}(v_1)| = 2$ and they both contain at least one requestable action: $\mathcal{Req}(v_0) \cup \text{Cycle}(v_0) = \{a_1\}$ and $\mathcal{Req}(v_1) \cup \text{Cycle}(v_1) = \{a_4, a_5\}$. It can be proved by hands that the Horse Breeder problem respects our 3rd assumption. So there exists sub-classes of SAS-PUC $_2$ problems that respect our 3rd assumption: SAS-PUC $_2^S$ and SAS-PUC $_2^*$ are two of them.

Definition 5. SAS-PUC $_2^S$ is a sub-class of SAS-PUC $_2$ and $\forall v_i \in \mathcal{M}$, $|\mathcal{Req}(v_i) \cup \text{Cycle}(v_i)| \leq 1$.

The letter S in (C $_2^S$) recalls (S), the single-valuedness restriction. C $_2^S$ means there is at most one requestable action per $\text{Cycle}(v_i)$.

Theorem 3. SAS-PUC $_2^S$ problems respect our 3rd assumption.

Proof. (Idea of proof) Let $v_i \in \mathcal{M}$, consider $\text{Cycle}(v_i) = \{a^-, a^+\}$ such that $\text{post}(a^+) = +$ and $\text{post}(a^-) = -$, and a^+ is the requestable action. If $s_0[v_i] = +$, then the planner does not need to pass through $\text{Cycle}(v_i)$ as $+$ is satisfied by $s_0[v_i]$ and a^- is not requestable. If $s_0[v_i] = -$, then the planner can search for a^+ in $\text{Cycle}(v_i)$. It does not need to do it more than once, however, thus respecting the 3rd assumption. If $s_0[v_i] \in \mathcal{D}_{v_i} \setminus \{-, +\}$, then the planner cannot reach the actions in $\text{Cycle}(v_i)$. So the problem instance is not solvable if a^+ is requested while planning. The theorem is proved by recursion using this idea of proof. \square

SAS-PUC $_2^S$ problems suffer from the same issue as the SAS-PUS problems: On/Off situations cannot be modeled. The Horse Breeder is not of the class SAS-PUC $_2^S$ as Drop-Bucket and PickupBucket are both requestable and looping together: $|\mathcal{Req}(v_1) \cup \text{Cycle}(v_1)| = 2$. A corollary of both **Theorems 2** and **3** is that it is the cycles $\text{Cycle}(v_i)$ in which both actions are requestable that cause some SAS-PUC $_2$ problems to be intractable. **Proof 6.14** [Bäckström, 1992, p.138] is a very good example to understand how a planner can loop through $\text{Cycle}(v_i)$: the requestable actions must be instantiated alternatively several times to order each instance with some other action instances that could not be ordered with the first requestable action instances, etc.

The SAS-PUC $_2^*$ problems, however, allow the use of $\text{Cycle}(v_i)$ with two requestable actions and the class respects our 3rd assumption. It allows to model some On/Off situations such as $\text{Cycle}(v_1)$ in the Horse Breeder problem. To define this class, we need to introduce the *action graph*, which is a graph that captures both the post-pre and the post-prevail dependencies between the actions. Figure 2 gives the action graph of the Horse Breeder.

\mathcal{A}	ID	\mathcal{N}_{pre}	\mathcal{N}_{prv}	Name
a_1	$a_{v_0}^0$	$\{a_2\}$	\emptyset	DropHaystack
a_2	$a_{v_0}^1$	$\{a_1\}$	$\{a_4\}$	TakeHaystack
a_3	$a_{v_0}^2$	$\{a_2\}$	\emptyset	FillHorseFeeder
a_4	$a_{v_1}^0$	$\{a_5\}$	\emptyset	DropBucket
a_5	$a_{v_1}^1$	$\{a_4\}$	$\{a_1\}$	PickUpBucket
a_6	$a_{v_2}^1$	$\{ghost\}$	$\{a_5\}$	FillBucketWithWater
a_7	$a_{v_2}^2$	$\{a_6\}$	$\{a_5\}$	FillHorseTrough

Table 2: Identifiers and predecessor sets for the Horse Breeder.

Definition 6 (Action graph). *An action graph is the directed graph $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{A}, E_{\mathcal{A}})$, with \mathcal{A} the vertex set and $E_{\mathcal{A}}$ the directed edge set. $E_{\mathcal{A}} = E_{pre}(\mathcal{A}) \cup E_{prv}(\mathcal{A})$ such that:*

- $E_{prv}(\mathcal{A}) = \{(a, b) \mid a \in Req(v_i), \exists b \in \mathcal{A}, post(a) = prv(b)[v_i]\}$, stores the post-prevail dependencies.
- $E_{pre}(\mathcal{A}) = \bigcup_{v_i \in \mathcal{M}} (E_{pre}(\mathcal{A}(v_i)))$, stores the post-pre dependencies.

Definition 7. *SAS-PUC $_2^*$ is a sub-class of SAS-PUC $_2$ and $\exists Cycle(v_i) = \{a^+, a^-\}$ s.t. $|Req(v_i) \cup Cycle(v_i)| \leq 2$. $\forall a_x, a_y \in \mathcal{A} \setminus \mathcal{A}(v_i)$, if $\{(a^+, a_x), (a^-, a_y)\} \subset E_{prv}(\mathcal{A})$, then a_x must not be related to a_y in $\mathcal{G} \setminus \mathcal{G}(v_i)$.*

The Horse Breeder is of the class SAS-PUC $_2^*$: $a_4, a_5 \in Cycle(v_1)$ are both requestable and $a_2, a_6, a_7 \in \mathcal{A}$ are such that $\{(a_4, a_2), (a_5, a_6), (a_5, a_7)\} \subset E_{prv}(\mathcal{A})$ and a_2 is not related to either a_6 nor a_7 in $\mathcal{G} \setminus \mathcal{G}(v_1)$. That is, if a_4 and a_5 are removed from \mathcal{G} , a_2 is in a different subgraph as a_6 and a_7 . Let $Cycle(v_i) = \{a^+, a^-\}$, the idea of SAS-PUC $_2^*$ is that, in any instance of these problems, the actions requesting a^+ can be ordered independently of the actions requesting a^- . Thus, the planner can instantiate a^+ and ordered all the actions requesting a^+ before instantiating a^- and ordered all the actions requesting a^- .

Theorem 4. *SAS-PUC $_2^*$ problems respect our 3rd assumption.*

Proof. (Idea of the proof) When $\mathcal{G}(v_i)$ is removed from \mathcal{G} , the results is a disconnected graph with two or more parts. And each part is an action graph that models either a SAS-PUC $_0$ problem, a SAS-PUC $_2^S$ problem or a SAS-PUC $_2^*$ problem. By recursion, we prove this theorem. \square

5 Topological Planning

In this section, we present our algorithm *TopoPlan* and two procedures that composes it: *BuildChain* and *DFSTopo*. The specification of our algorithm is the following:

Definition 8. (TopoPlan’s specification)

Input: $(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{A}, s_0, s_*)$, a problem instance of the class SAS-PUC $_0$, SAS-PUC $_2^S$ or SAS-PUC $_2^*$.

Output: If the instance is solvable, then *TopoPlan* returns Δ , a linear and minimal solution plan with at most one occurrence of each action of \mathcal{A} . If the instance is not solvable, *TopoPlan* yields a failure.

Procedure 1 BuildChain($v_i, s, g, \mathcal{D}, E_{\mathcal{D}}, \mathcal{A}$)

Input: $v_i \in \mathcal{M}$, $s, g \in \mathcal{D}_{v_i}$, $s \neq g$ and $a_{v_i}^g$ is white; \mathcal{D} , a set of yellow actions; $E_{\mathcal{D}}$, a set of orders between the actions of \mathcal{D} ; **Parameters:** x, y , two values of \mathcal{D}_{v_i} . **Output:** Each browsed action a is colored yellow, added to \mathcal{D} and the order $(\mathcal{N}_{pre}(a), a)$ is added to $E_{\mathcal{D}}$.

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1:  $x \leftarrow \emptyset; y \leftarrow \emptyset$ 
2: if  $a_{v_i}^g$  is a ghost action then fail
3: end if
4:  $Color(a_{v_i}^g) \leftarrow yellow; \mathcal{D} \leftarrow \mathcal{D} \cup \{a_{v_i}^g\}; y \leftarrow pre(a_{v_i}^g);$ 
    $E_{\mathcal{D}} \leftarrow E_{\mathcal{D}} \cup \{(a_{v_i}^y, a_{v_i}^g)\}$ 
5: if  $Next(a_{v_i}^y) = \emptyset$   $\{a_{v_i}^y$  can be a ghost action.  $\}$  then
6:    $Next(a_{v_i}^y) \leftarrow a_{v_i}^g$ 
7: end if
8: while  $y \neq s$  do
9:   if  $a_{v_i}^y$  is a ghost action then fail
10:  end if
11:  if  $Color(a_{v_i}^y) = yellow$  then fail
12:  end if
13:   $Color(a_{v_i}^y) \leftarrow yellow; \mathcal{D} \leftarrow \mathcal{D} \cup \{a_{v_i}^y\}; x \leftarrow y; y \leftarrow$ 
     $pre(a_{v_i}^y); E_{\mathcal{D}} \leftarrow E_{\mathcal{D}} \cup \{(a_{v_i}^y, a_{v_i}^x)\}$ 
14:  if  $Next(a_{v_i}^y) = \emptyset$   $\{a_{v_i}^y$  can be a ghost action.  $\}$  then
15:     $Next(a_{v_i}^y) \leftarrow a_{v_i}^x$ 
16:  end if
17: end while

```

5.1 Pre-processing

First of all, there is a pre-processing phase for our algorithm in which each action is associated with the state variable it affects, the value of its pre- and post-condition, and its prevail-conditions. (P) and (U) allow to use the post-condition of each action as an identifier (ID), i.e. to create a hashing table. Let $v_i \in \mathcal{M}$, $p \in \mathcal{D}_{v_i}$, $a \in \mathcal{A}$: $a_{v_i}^p$ identifies a iff $post(a) = (v_i = p)$. We also created two sets of predecessors: $\mathcal{N}_{pre}(a) = \{b \mid (b, a) \in E_{pre}(\mathcal{A})\}$ is the set of predecessors that establish the pre-condition of a . Due to (P), this set is a singleton. $\mathcal{N}_{prv}(a) = \{b \mid (b, a) \in E_{prv}(\mathcal{A})\}$ is the set of predecessors that establish the defined prevail-conditions of a . Eventually, if $|\mathcal{A}(v_i)| = |\mathcal{D}_{v_i}| - 1$, then there is exactly one ID that identifies a *ghost action*. A ghost action is an action with an ID but that does not exist in the action set. The concatenation of Table 1 and Table 2 is an example of this pre-processing applied to the Horse Breeder.

The post-uniqueness does not mean pre-uniqueness. For example, the Horse Breeder’s actions FillHorseFeeder and TakeHaystack are post-unique but both have the same pre-condition. *TopoPlan* plans backwards to benefit from the post-uniqueness, but we gave actions a pointer, called *Next*, that *TopoPlan* will dynamically set (1.6, 1.15) and use (3.20, 3.23) while planning to refer in constant time to the successor of an action in a chain⁴.

Eventually, each action can have four different colors: (white) the action is not in the solution plan, (yellow) the action is in the solution plan, (blue) the action is being topologically sorted, (green) the action is topologically sorted.

⁴We refer to the procedures with the notation (procedure.line).

Procedure 2 DFSTopo($a_{v_i}^p, \mathcal{D}, E_{\mathcal{D}}, s_0, \Delta$)

Input: $a_{v_i}^p$, a yellow action affecting v_i with the value $p \in \mathcal{D}_{v_i}$; $s_0 \in \mathcal{S}$; Δ , the linear solution plan.

Output: $a_{v_i}^p$ is colored in green once all its neighbors have been topologically sorted; It is then enqueued to Δ .

```
1: Color( $a_{v_i}^p$ )  $\leftarrow$  blue
2: for  $a_{v_j}^q \in E_{\mathcal{D}}(a_{v_i}^p)$  do
3:   if  $a_{v_j}^q \notin \mathcal{N}_{pre}(a_{v_i}^p) \vee a_{v_i}^p$  is not the first action to modify
       $s_0[v_i]$  then
4:     if Color( $a_{v_j}^q$ ) = blue then fail {Cycle spotted.}
5:     end if
6:     if Color( $a_{v_j}^q$ ) = yellow then
7:       DFSTopo( $a_{v_j}^q, \mathcal{D}, E_{\mathcal{D}}, s_0, \Delta$ )
8:     end if
9:   end if
10: end for
11: Color( $a_{v_i}^p$ )  $\leftarrow$  green;  $\Delta \leftarrow \Delta + \{a_{v_i}^p\}$ ;
```

5.2 How TopoPlan Works

According to **Theorems 1, 3** and **4**, solvable instances of a SAS-PUC₀, SAS-PUC₂^S or SAS-PUC₂^{*} problem are solved by a minimal solution plan that respects our 3rd assumption. We previously explained that such action plans are composed of chains of actions. The strategy of our algorithm, *TopoPlan*, is therefore to find and creates every required chain of actions, then to order the actions of these chains via their post-prevail dependencies. The building of the chains is done backwards by the procedure *BuildChain* (3.4, 3.15 and 3.21). The post-prevail orders are done by browsing each action a colored yellow by *BuildChain* (3.9, a is therefore in a chain) and by looking after the predecessors of a via $\mathcal{N}_{prev}(a)$ (3.10).

Theorem 5. *TopoPlan satisfies its specification so it is correct and complete.*

Proof. (\oplus is the a concatenation symbol). The procedure *BuildChain* is used by *TopoPlan* to build chains of actions that respect our 3rd assumption, i.e. with at most one occurrence per action. *BuildChain* builds backwards to benefit from the post-uniqueness. For each $v_i \in \mathcal{M}$, there are three cases to take into account with such chains between the start $s_0[v_i]$ and the goal $s_*[v_i]$: $\sigma_1 = \text{chain}_{v_i}(s_0[v_i], s_*[v_i])$; $\sigma_2 = \text{chain}_{v_i}(s_0[v_i], s_0[v_i])$; $\sigma_3 = \text{chain}_{v_i}(s_0[v_i], s_0[v_i]) \oplus \text{chain}_{v_i}(s_0[v_i], s_*[v_i])$. We can highlight that: $\sigma_3 = \sigma_2 \oplus \sigma_1$. The building of σ_1 is easy to understand to solve a problem instance. Finding all the chains of actions that solve $s_0[v_i] \neq s_*[v_i]$ is a relevant starting point. *TopoPlan* builds these σ_1 action chains in Phase 1 (3.2 to 3.6). The prevail-conditions then give instructions to the planner to correctly order the actions of the different chains together. *TopoPlan* does this during Phase 2 (3.9 to 3.31) thanks to two for loops (3.9 and 3.10). Let $a \in \mathcal{D} \cup \mathcal{T}$ and $b \in \mathcal{N}_{prev}(a)$, then b is unique (Post-Uniqueness and 3rd assumption). If b is already ordered in a chain, then it is yellow: b must therefore be ordered before a (3.17), and if $Next(b)$ exists, then it threatens the prevail-condition of a and a must therefore be ordered before $Next(b)$ (3.24). If b is required but not yet ordered in a

Procedure 3 TopoPlan($\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{A}, s_0, s_*$)

Input/Output: (**Definition 8**). **Parameters:** \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{T} , two yellow action sets; $E_{\mathcal{D}\mathcal{T}}$, an order set for the actions of $\mathcal{D} \cup \mathcal{T}$.

```
1:  $\Delta \leftarrow \emptyset$ ;  $\mathcal{D} \leftarrow \emptyset$ ;  $\mathcal{T} \leftarrow \emptyset$ ;  $E_{\mathcal{D}\mathcal{T}} \leftarrow \emptyset$ 
2: for  $v_i \in \mathcal{M}$  do {Phase 1}
3:   if  $s_0[v_i] \neq s_*[v_i]$  then
4:     BuildChain( $v_i, s_0[v_i], s_*[v_i], \mathcal{D}, E_{\mathcal{D}\mathcal{T}}, \mathcal{A}$ )
5:   end if
6: end for
7: if  $\mathcal{D} = \emptyset$  then return  $\emptyset$  { $s_0$  and  $s_*$  are equal.}
8: end if
9: for  $a_{v_i}^p \in \mathcal{D} \cup \mathcal{T}$  do {Phase 2}
10:  for  $a_{v_j}^q \in \mathcal{N}_{prev}(a_{v_i}^p)$  do
11:    if  $q \neq s_0[v_j]$  then
12:      if  $a_{v_j}^q \notin \mathcal{A}$  then fail
13:    end if
14:    if Color( $a_{v_j}^q$ ) = white then
15:      BuildChain( $v_j, s_0[v_j], q, \mathcal{T}, E_{\mathcal{D}\mathcal{T}}, \mathcal{A}$ )
16:    end if
17:     $E_{\mathcal{D}\mathcal{T}} \leftarrow E_{\mathcal{D}\mathcal{T}} \cup \{(a_{v_j}^q, a_{v_i}^p)\}$ 
18:  end if
19:  if  $q \neq s_*[v_j]$  then
20:    if Next( $a_{v_j}^q$ ) =  $\emptyset$  then
21:      BuildChain( $v_j, q, s_0[v_j], \mathcal{T}, E_{\mathcal{D}\mathcal{T}}, \mathcal{A}$ )
22:    end if
23:    if  $prev(Next(a_{v_j}^q))[v_i] \neq p$  then
24:       $E_{\mathcal{D}\mathcal{T}} \leftarrow E_{\mathcal{D}\mathcal{T}} \cup \{(a_{v_i}^p, Next(a_{v_j}^q))\}$ 
25:    end if
26:  end if
27:  if  $q = s_0[v_j] \wedge a_{v_j}^q \in Cycle(v_j) \wedge Cycle(v_j)$  is concerned by  $(C_2^*)$  then
28:     $E_{\mathcal{D}\mathcal{T}} \leftarrow E_{\mathcal{D}\mathcal{T}} \cup \{(a_{v_j}^{s_0[v_j]}, a_{v_i}^p)\}$ 
29:  end if
30: end for
31: end for
32: for  $a \in \mathcal{D} \cup \mathcal{T}$  do {Phase 3}
33:  if Color( $a$ ) = yellow then
34:    DFSTopo( $a, \mathcal{D} \cup \mathcal{T}, E_{\mathcal{D}\mathcal{T}}, s_0, \Delta$ )
35:  end if
36: end for
37: return  $\Delta$ 
```

chain (b is white (3.14)), then the problem instance is either not solvable, or b is in a chain of the form of σ_2 with $\sigma_2 = \text{chain}_{v_i}(s_0[v_i], prev(a)[v_i]) \oplus \text{chain}_{v_i}(prev(a)[v_i], s_0[v_i])$: the first part is built by (3.15) and the second part is built by (3.21) (It should be noticed that, due to the restriction (C_2) each of these two parts is a chain of size 1). In other words, if the problem instance is solvable, b is a requestable action inside the unique cycle of its domain-action graph. If both σ_1 and σ_2 are built, then the chain of actions on v_i is of the form of σ_3 . In this case, the concatenation of σ_2 and σ_1 is made by the procedure *BuildChain* (1.4 or 1.13). Moreover, $pre(First(\sigma_2)) = pre(First(\sigma_1)) = s_0[v_i]$, i.e. two actions modifies the start state in case of σ_3 . $First(\sigma_2)$ is thus the first action to modify $s_0[v_i]$, hence the if statement (2.3).

If the problem instance is of the class SAS-PUC₂^{*} and σ_2 contains the two requestable actions, then $post>Last(\sigma_2) = s_0[v_i]$ and both $post>Last(\sigma_2)$ and $s_0[v_i]$ can solve a prevail-condition of an action a . In other words, a can be ordered either before $First(\sigma_2)$ (which threatens the prevail-condition of a) or a can be ordered after $Last(\sigma_2)$ (3.28) and before $First(\sigma_1)$ (3.24, if $\sigma_1 \neq \langle \rangle$). Due to the structure of the SAS-PUC₂^{*} problems, both solutions are feasible, we chose the second case (3.28 and 3.24). Eventually, if the input of *TopoPlan* is a solvable problem instance, then Phase 2 returns a non-linear and minimal solution plan that respect our 3rd assumption. If the input is not solvable, Phase 2 can yield a failure through the *BuildChain* procedure (1.2, 1.9 and 1.11), otherwise it returns a sequence of actions that is not irreflexive. The last phase (3.32 to 3.36) is a topological sort performed by the procedure *DFSTopo*. This procedure is a depth first search topological sort, proven correct [Cormen *et al.*, 2009]. If the problem instance is solvable, the input of *DFSTopo* is a non-linear and minimal solution plan that respect our 3rd assumption. Therefore, *DFSTopo* returns a linear and minimal solution plan and still respects our 3rd assumption. If the problem instance is not solvable, Phase 2 may return a non-linear sequence of actions that is not irreflexive. *DFSTopo* therefore yields a failure thanks to the blue color that spots looping issue (2.4). \square

In the appendices, we have provided how *TopoPlan* solves step by step the following two Horse Breeder problem instances: $(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{A}, \langle 0, 0, 0 \rangle, \langle 2, 0, 2 \rangle)$ and $(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{A}, \langle 1, 0, 0 \rangle, \langle 2, 0, 2 \rangle)$. These two problem instances illustrate the three possible chains of actions σ_1 , σ_2 and σ_3 .

Theorem 6 (Time Complexity). *TopoPlan worst-case time complexity is $O(|\mathcal{A}| + |E_{\mathcal{A}}|)$, with \mathcal{A} the set of actions and $E_{\mathcal{A}}$ the set of orders between the actions of \mathcal{A} .*

Proof. We explained that the *BuildChain* calls (3.4), (3.15) and (3.21) never build the same chain of actions: (3.4) builds σ_1 chains, (3.15) and (3.21) builds two different parts of σ_2 . This is also ensured by the if statements (3.14), (3.20) and (1.11): they check the *BuildChain* procedure only builds chains with white actions, i.e. actions that are not yet in the plan. It results $\mathcal{D} \cap \mathcal{T} = \emptyset$. It also results that, between (3.2) and (3.31) the three *BuildChain* calls execute $O(|\mathcal{D} \cup \mathcal{T}|) \equiv O(|\mathcal{A}|)$ instructions: $|\mathcal{D}|$ instructions in Phase 1 (3.2 to 3.6) plus $|\mathcal{T}|$ instructions in Phase 2 (3.9 to 3.31).

Now, for the two for loops (3.9) and (3.10), let consider all the necessary chains have been built, then the core of the second for loop (from 3.11 to 3.29) has a constant c_{st} number of instructions. The first for loop (3.9) only take 1 instruction to execute. It results the formula:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{a \in \mathcal{D} \cup \mathcal{T}} (1 + \sum_{b \in \mathcal{N}_{prv}(a)} c_{st}) &= \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} (1 + c_{st} \cdot \sum_{b \in \mathcal{N}_{prv}(a)} 1) \\ &= |\mathcal{A}| + c_{st} \cdot \sum_{(b,a) \in E_{prv}(\mathcal{A})} 1 \\ &= O(|\mathcal{A}| + |E_{prv}(\mathcal{A})|) \quad (1) \end{aligned}$$

Eventually, at the end of Phase 2 (3.31), *TopoPlan* has executed $O(|\mathcal{A}|) + O(|\mathcal{A}| + |E_{prv}(\mathcal{A})|) \equiv O(|\mathcal{A}| + |E_{prv}(\mathcal{A})|)$

instructions. Phase 3 (3.32 to 3.36), performs a topological sort to sort the non-linear plan $\langle \mathcal{D} \cup \mathcal{T}, E_{\mathcal{D}\mathcal{T}} \rangle$. It takes $O(|\mathcal{D} \cup \mathcal{T}| + |E_{\mathcal{D}\mathcal{T}}|) \equiv O(|\mathcal{A}| + |E_{\mathcal{A}}|)$ instructions which dominates the whole. \square

Theorem 7 (Space Complexity). *TopoPlan requires at most $O(n^2 \cdot m^2)$ space, $m = |\mathcal{M}|$ and $n = \max_{v_i \in \mathcal{M}} (\mathcal{D}_{v_i})$.*

Proof. A (PU) action a takes $O(m)$ space: the pre- and post-condition can be reduced to one variable each, plus a variable for the ID ; the set $\mathcal{N}_{pre}(a)$ is a singleton due to restrictions (P) and (U) ; the prevail-conditions, on the contrary, are lists of m elements, and the set $\mathcal{N}_{prv}(a)$ has at most $O(m)$ elements. Then, the hashing table that stores IDs takes $O(n \cdot m)$ space. Finally, the pre-processing phase creates an action graph \mathcal{G} which takes at most $O(n^2 \cdot m^2)$ space: The set of actions takes $O(|\mathcal{A}|) \equiv O(n \cdot m)$ space, and each action can have at most $O(|\mathcal{A}|) \equiv O(n \cdot m)$ predecessors. Hence, $O(|\mathcal{A}|^2) \equiv O(n^2 \cdot m^2)$, which dominates the whole. \square

6 Discussion

We have carried out experiments on abstract settings to test *TopoPlan*. Given the description of three different realistic SAS-PUC₂^{*} problems (Different NPCs from Red Dead Redemption 2 (including the Horse Breeder), citizens from Assassin's Creed: Origins [Ubisoft, 2017] and the acquisition machines from Horizon Zero Dawn [Guerilla Games, 2017]), we wanted to test how many of these NPCs can get a plan in real time by our C++ implementation of *TopoPlan*? With the following configuration: AMD Ryzen™ 7 2700X (8-Core) CPU (3.7GHz), 32Gb of RAM and Windows 10 (64 bits), *TopoPlan* was able to provide more than 3.000.000 plans with up to 10 actions in it in less than 1.67ms, which is 10% of the time between two frames in a 60FPS video game.

7 Conclusion

Based on three assumptions made by studying commercial video games using planning systems, we have introduced three new tractable classes of planning problems (SAS-PUC₀, SAS-PUC₂^S and SAS-PUC₂^{*}) that allow the design of realistic NPCs. The instances of these problems are all solvable by a correct, complete and a linear-time planning algorithm, called *TopoPlan*, that we provide in this paper.

We used the SAS formalism which imposes the start and the goal states to be totally defined. In a future work, we can study other structures such as SAS* [Jonsson and Bäckström, 1998] that allows s_* to be partially-defined, or SAS⁺ [Bäckström, 1992] that allows both s_0 and s_* to be partially defined. Such structures may be easier to use to define NPC problem instances for example. Among our assumptions are the post-uniqueness (P), although it is an acceptable restriction to create NPC planning problems, as shown in this paper, it remains a restriction GOAP developers would like to relieve. Our new structural restriction defined in this paper can surely help to study how (P) can be relieved to create new tractable classes of problems without (P).

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