

Artificial Intelligence

19. Critical Path Heuristics

Honing In On the Most Critical Subgoals

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Agenda

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Critical Path Heuristics
- 3 Dynamic Programming Computation
- 4 Graphplan Representation [for Reference]
- 5 What about FDR Planning?
- 6 Conclusion

We Need Heuristic Functions!

→ Critical path heuristics are a family of methods to relax planning tasks, and thus automatically compute heuristic functions h .

There are four different methods currently known:

- Critical path heuristics → **This Chapter**
- Delete relaxation → **Chapter 20**
- Abstractions
- Landmarks
- LP Heuristics

→ Each of these have advantages and disadvantages.

Critical Path Heuristics: Basic Idea



“Approximate the cost of a goal set by the most costly subgoal.”

Assume unit costs. Then $h(I)$ is? 2 (Perth or Darwin).

But: In “the most costly subgoal”, we may use size > 1 !

→ It is easiest to understand this approximation in terms of approximate versions of an equation characterizing h^* by regression.

Our Agenda for This Chapter

- ② **Critical Path Heuristics:** Introduces and illustrates the formal definition.
- ③ **Dynamic Programming Computation:** The straightforward method to compute critical path heuristics.
- ④ **Graphplan Representation:** A slightly less straightforward method to compute critical path heuristics. I mention this here only because, historically, it was there first, and its terminology is all over the planning literature.
- ⑤ **What about FDR Planning?** The above uses STRIPS as this is a little easier to discuss in the examples. In this section, we point out that (almost) everything remains exactly the same for FDR.

A Regression-Based Characterization of h^*

Definition (r^*). Let $\Pi = (P, A, c, I, G)$ be a STRIPS planning task. The *perfect regression heuristic* r^* for Π is the function $r^*(s) := r^*(s, G)$ where $r^*(s, g)$ is the function that satisfies

$$r^*(s, g) = \begin{cases} 0 & g \subseteq s \\ \min_{a \in A, \text{regr}(g, a) \neq \perp} c(a) + r^*(s, \text{regr}(g, a)) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

(Reminder **Chapter 17**: $\text{regr}(g, a) \neq \perp$ if $\text{add}_a \cap g \neq \emptyset$ and $\text{del}_a \cap g = \emptyset$; then, $\text{regr}(g, a) = (g \setminus \text{add}_a) \cup \text{pre}_a$.)

→ The cost of achieving a subgoal g is 0 if it is true in s ; else, it is the minimum of using any action a to achieve g .

Proposition. Let $\Pi = (P, A, c, I, G)$ be a STRIPS planning task. Then $r^* = h^*$. (Proof omitted.)

Critical Path Heuristics: h^1

Definition (h^1). Let $\Pi = (P, A, c, I, G)$ be a STRIPS planning task. The *critical path heuristic* h^1 for Π is the function $h^1(s) := h^1(s, G)$ where $h^1(s, g)$ is the function that satisfies

$$h^1(s, g) = \begin{cases} 0 & g \subseteq s \\ \min_{a \in A, \text{regr}(g, a) \neq \perp} c(a) + h^1(s, \text{regr}(g, a)) & |g| = 1 \\ \max_{g' \in g} h^1(s, \{g'\}) & |g| > 1 \end{cases}$$

→ For singleton subgoals g , use regression as in r^* . For subgoal sets g , use the cost of the most costly singleton subgoal $g' \in g$.

→ “Path” = $g_1 \xrightarrow{a_1} g_2 \dots g_{n-1} \xrightarrow{a_{n-1}} g_n$ where $g_1 \subseteq s$, $g_n \subseteq G$, $g_i \neq g_j$, and $g_i \subseteq \text{regr}(g_{i+1}, a_i)$. $|g_i| = 1$ here, $|g_i| \leq m$ for h^m (up next).

→ “Critical path” = Cheapest path through the most costly subgoals g_i .

The h^1 Heuristic in “TSP” in Australia



- P : $at(x)$ for $x \in \{Sy, Ad, Br, Pe, Ad\}$; $v(x)$ for $x \in \{Sy, Ad, Br, Pe, Ad\}$.

- A : $drive(x, y)$ where x, y have a road.

$$c(drive(x, y)) = \begin{cases} 1 & \{x, y\} = \{Sy, Br\} \\ 1.5 & \{x, y\} = \{Sy, Ad\} \\ 3.5 & \{x, y\} = \{Ad, Pe\} \\ 4 & \{x, y\} = \{Ad, Da\} \end{cases}$$

- I : $at(Sy), v(Sy)$; G : $at(Sy), v(x)$ for all x .

- $h^1(I) = h^1(I, G) = h^1(I, \{at(Sy), v(Sy), v(Ad), v(Br), v(Pe), v(Da)\}) = \max(h^1(I, \{at(Sy)\}), \dots, h^1(I, \{v(Da)\}))$.
- $h^1(I, \{at(Sy)\}) = h^1(I, \{v(Sy)\}) = 0$.
- $h^1(I, \{v(Da)\}) = 4 + h^1(I, regr(\{v(Da)\}, drive(Ad, Da))) = 4 + h^1(I, \{at(Ad)\})$.
- $h^1(I, \{at(Ad)\}) = \min(3.5 + h^1(I, \{at(Pe)\}), 4 + h^1(I, \{at(Da)\}), 1.5 + h^1(I, \{at(Sy)\})) = 1.5$.
- So $h^1(I, \{v(Da)\}) = 5.5$. Further, $h^1(I, \{v(Pe)\}) = 5$ and $h^1(I, \{v(Br)\}) = 1$, hence $h^1(I) = 5.5$.
- The critical path is? $at(Sy) \xrightarrow{drive(Sy, Ad)} at(Ad) \xrightarrow{drive(Ad, Da)} at(Da)$.

Critical Path Heuristics: The General Case

Definition (h^m). Let $\Pi = (P, A, c, I, G)$ be a STRIPS planning task, and let $m \in \mathbb{N}$. The **critical path heuristic h^m** for Π is the function $h^m(s) := h^m(s, G)$ where $h^m(s, g)$ is the function that satisfies

$$h^m(s, g) = \begin{cases} 0 & g \subseteq s \\ \min_{a \in A, \text{regr}(g, a) \neq \perp} c(a) + h^m(s, \text{regr}(g, a)) & |g| \leq m \\ \max_{g' \subseteq g, |g'| = m} h^m(s, g') & |g| > m \end{cases}$$

→ For subgoal sets $|g| \leq m$, use regression as in r^* . For subgoal sets $|g| > m$, use the cost of the most costly m -subset g' .

→ Like h^1 , basically just replace “1” with “ m ”.

→ For fixed m , $h^m(s, g)$ can be computed in time polynomial in the size of Π . (See next section.)

Critical Path Heuristics: Properties

Proposition (h^m is Admissible). h^m is consistent and goal-aware, and thus also admissible and safe.

Proof Sketch. Goal-awareness is obvious. We need to prove that $h^m(s) \leq h^m(s') + c(a)$ for all transitions $s \xrightarrow{a} s'$. Since $s \supseteq \text{regr}(s', a)$, a critical path \vec{p} for $h^m(s')$ can be pre-fixed by a to obtain an upper bound on $h^m(s)$: all subgoals at the start of \vec{p} are contained in s' , and are achieved by a in s .

→ Intuition: h^m is admissible because it is always more difficult to achieve larger subgoals (so m -subsets can only be cheaper).

→ Any ideas about what happens when we compare h^{m+1} to h^m ?

Proposition (h^m gets more accurate as m grows). h^{m+1} dominates h^m .

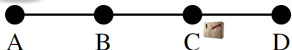
Proof Intuition: "It is always more difficult to achieve larger subgoals."

→ Any ideas about what happens when we let m go to ∞ ?

Proposition (h^m is perfect in the limit). There exists m s.t. $h^m = h^*$.

Proof. Setting $m := |P|$, the case $|g| > m$ will never be used, so $h^m = r^*$.

Questionnaire



- Initial state I : $t(A), p(C)$.
- Goal G : $t(A), p(D)$.
- Actions A : $drXY, loX, ulX$.

Question!

In this planning task, what is the value of $h^1(I)$?

(A): 2

(B): 3

(C): 4

(D): 5

→ A critical path is $t(A) \rightarrow t(B) \rightarrow t(C) \rightarrow p(T) \rightarrow p(D)$. (C) is correct.

Question!

In this planning task, what is the value of $h^2(I)$?

(A): 5

(B): 8

→ For all subgoals g generated, either $|g| \leq 2$, or g must request more than one position for either the truck or the package, which in this domain will be recognized i.e. $h^2(I, g) = \infty$. Thus $h^2(I) = r^*(I)$ and (B) is correct.

Overview

Basic idea:

Consider all subgoals g with size $\leq m$. Initialize $h^m(s, g)$ to 0 if $g \subseteq s$, and to ∞ otherwise.

Then, keep updating the value of each g based on actions applied to the values computed so far, until the values converge.

- We start with an **iterative** definition of h^m that makes this approach explicit.
- We define a **dynamic programming algorithm** that corresponds to this iterative definition.

Iterative Definition of h^m

Definition (Iterative h^m). Let $\Pi = (P, A, c, I, G)$ be a STRIPS planning task, and let $m \in \mathbb{N}$. The *iterative h^m heuristic* h_i^m is defined by

$$h_0^m(s, g) := \begin{cases} 0 & g \subseteq s \\ \infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and $h_{i+1}^m(s, g) :=$

$$\begin{cases} \min[h_i^m(s, g), \min_{a \in A, \text{regr}(g, a) \neq \perp} c(a) + h_i^m(s, \text{regr}(g, a))] & |g| \leq m \\ \max_{g' \subseteq g, |g'|=m} h_{i+1}^m(s, g') & |g| > m \end{cases}$$

Proposition. Let $\Pi = (P, A, c, I, G)$ be a STRIPS planning task. Then the series $\{h_i^m\}_{i=0, \dots}$ converges to h^m .

Proof Sketch: (i) Convergence: If $h_{i+1}^m(s, g) \neq h_i^m(s, g)$, then $h_{i+1}^m(s, g) < h_i^m(s, g)$; that can happen only finitely often because each decrease is due to a new path for g . (ii) If $h_{i+1}^m = h_i^m$ then h_i^m satisfies the h^m equation (direct from definition). (iii) No function greater than h_i^m at any point can satisfy the h^m equation (easy by induction over i).

Dynamic Programming

Dynamic Programming Algorithm

```

new table  $T_0^m(g)$ , for all  $g \subseteq P$  with  $|g| \leq m$ 
For all  $g \subseteq P$  with  $|g| \leq m$ :  $T_0^m(g) := \begin{cases} 0 & g \subseteq s \\ \infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ 

fn  $Cost_i(g) := \begin{cases} T_i^m(g) & |g| \leq m \\ \max_{g' \subseteq g, |g'|=m} T_i^m(g') & |g| > m \end{cases}$ 

fn  $Next_i(g) := \min[Cost_i(g), \min_{a \in A, regr(g,a) \neq \perp} c(a) + Cost_i(regr(g,a))]$ 

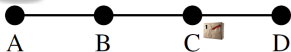
 $i := 0$ 
do forever:
    new table  $T_{i+1}^m(g)$ , for all  $g \subseteq P$  with  $|g| \leq m$ 
    For all  $g \subseteq P$  with  $|g| \leq m$ :  $T_{i+1}^m(g) := Next_i(g)$ 
    if  $T_{i+1}^m = T_i^m$  then stop endif
     $i := i + 1$ 
enddo

```

Proposition. $h_i^m(s, g) = Cost_i(g)$ for all i and g . (Proof is easy.)

→ This is *very* inefficient! (Optimized for readability.) We can use “Generalized Dijkstra” instead, maintaining the frontier of cheapest m -tuples reached so far.

Example: $m = 1$ in “Logistics”



- **Facts** P : $t(x) \ x \in \{A, B, C, D\}$;
 $p(x) \ x \in \{A, B, C, D, T\}$.
- **Initial state** I : $\{t(A), p(C)\}$.
- **Goal** G : $\{t(A), p(D)\}$.
- **Actions** A (unit costs): $drive(x, y)$, $load(x)$, $unload(x)$.
E.g.: $load(x)$: pre $t(x), p(x)$; add $p(T)$; del $p(x)$.

$h^1(I) = ?$

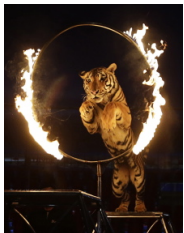
Content of Tables T_i^1 :

i	$t(A)$	$t(B)$	$t(C)$	$t(D)$	$p(T)$	$p(A)$	$p(B)$	$p(C)$	$p(D)$
0	0	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	0	∞
1	0	1	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	0	∞
2	0	1	2	∞	∞	∞	∞	0	∞
3	0	1	2	3	3	∞	∞	0	∞
4	0	1	2	3	3	4	4	0	4
5	0	1	2	3	3	4	4	0	4

→ So $h^1(I) = 4$. (Cf. slide 13)

Note: This table computation always first finds the *shortest* path to achieve a subgoal g . Hence, with unit action costs, the value of g is fixed once it becomes $< \infty$, and equals the i where that happens. With non-unit action costs, neither is true.

Example: $m = 2$ in “Animal Taming”



- $P = \{alive, haveTiger, tamedTiger, haveJump\}$.
Short: $P = \{A, hT, tT, J\}$.
- Initial state I : *alive*.
- Goal G : *alive, haveJump*.
- Actions A :
getTiger: pre *alive*; add *haveTiger*
tameTiger: pre *alive, haveTiger*; add *tamedTiger*
jumpTamedTiger: pre *alive, tamedTiger*; add *haveJump*
jumpTiger: pre *alive, haveTiger*; add *haveJump*; **del *alive***

Content of Tables T_i^2 :

i	A	hT	tT	J	A, hT	A, tT	A, J	hT, tT	hT, J	tT, J
0	0	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞
1	0	1	∞	∞	1	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞
2	0	1	2	2	1	2	∞	2	2	∞
3	0	1	2	2	1	2	3	2	2	3

→ So $h^2(I) = 3$, in contrast to $h^1(I) = 2$.

Note reg A, J in step 2: Each of A and J is reached, but not both together:
jumpTiger deletes A so we can't regress this subgoal over that action;
jumpTamedTiger yields the regressed subgoal $\{A, tT\}$ whose value at 1 is ∞ .

Example: $m = 1$ in “TSP” in Australia



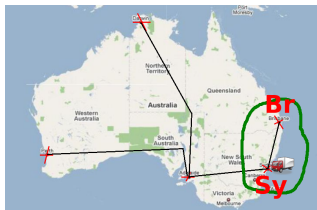
- P : $at(x)$ for $x \in \{Sy, Ad, Br, Pe, Ad\}$; $v(x)$ for $x \in \{Sy, Ad, Br, Pe, Ad\}$.
 - A : $drive(x, y)$ where x, y have a road.
- $$c(drive(x, y)) = \begin{cases} 1 & \{x, y\} = \{Sy, Br\} \\ 1.5 & \{x, y\} = \{Sy, Ad\} \\ 3.5 & \{x, y\} = \{Ad, Pe\} \\ 4 & \{x, y\} = \{Ad, Da\} \end{cases}$$
- I : $at(Sy), v(Sy)$; G : $at(Sy), v(x)$ for all x .

Content of Tables T_i^1 :

i	$at(Sy)$	$at(Ad)$	$at(Br)$	$at(Pe)$	$at(Da)$	$v(Sy)$	$v(Ad)$	$v(Br)$	$v(Pe)$	$v(Da)$
0	0	∞	∞	∞	∞	0	∞	∞	∞	∞
1	0	1.5	1	∞	∞	0	1.5	1	∞	∞
2	0	1.5	1	5	5.5	0	1.5	1	5	5.5
3	0	1.5	1	5	5.5	0	1.5	1	5	5.5

→ So what is $h^1(I)$? 5.5.

Example: $m = 2$ in Very Simple “TSP” in Australia



- **Facts** P : $at(Sy), at(Br), v(Sy), v(Br)$.
- **Initial state** I : $at(Sy), v(Sy)$.
- **Goal** G : $at(Sy), v(Sy), v(Br)$.
- **Actions** A : $drive(Sy, Br), drive(Br, Sy)$; both cost 1.
 $drive(Sy, Br)$:
 pre $at(Sy)$; add $at(Br), v(Br)$; del $at(Sy)$.
 $drive(Br, Sy)$:
 pre $at(Br)$; add $at(Sy), v(Sy)$; del $at(Br)$.

Content of Tables T_i^2 :

i	$at(Sy)$	$at(Br)$	$v(Sy)$	$v(Br)$	$at(Sy),$ $at(Br)$	$at(Sy),$ $v(Sy)$	$at(Sy),$ $v(Br)$	$at(Br),$ $v(Sy)$	$at(Br),$ $v(Br)$	$v(Sy),$ $v(Br)$
0	0	∞	0	∞	∞	0	∞	∞	∞	∞
1	0	1	0	1	∞	0	∞	1	1	1
2	0	1	0	1	∞	0	2	1	1	1
3	0	1	0	1	∞	0	2	1	1	1

→ So $h^2(I) = 2$, in contrast to $h^1(I) = 1$.

NOTE reg $at(Sy), v(Br)$ in step 1: Each of $at(Sy)$ and $v(Br)$ is reached, but not both together: $drive(Sy, Br)$ deletes $at(Sy)$ so we can't regress this subgoal over that action; $drive(Br, Sy)$ yields the regressed subgoal $\{at(Br), v(Br)\}$ whose value at iteration 0 is ∞ .

Runtime

Proposition. Let $\Pi = (P, A, c, I, G)$ be a STRIPS planning task, and let $m \in \mathbb{N}$ be fixed. Then the dynamic programming algorithm runs in time polynomial in the size of Π .

Proof Sketch. With fixed m , the number of size- m fact sets is polynomial in the size of Π , so obviously each iteration of the algorithm runs in time polynomial in that size. The fixed point is reached at the latest at $i + 1 = |P|^m + 1$, as each path has length at most $|P|^m$.

→ For any fixed m , h^m can be computed in polynomial time.

Remarks:

- In practice, only $m = 1, 2$ are used; higher values of m are infeasible.
- However! Instead of considering all “atomic subgoals” of size $\leq m$, one can select an arbitrary set C of atomic subgoals!
→ h^C , currently investigated, great results in learning to recognize dead-ends [Steinmetz and Hoffmann (2016)].

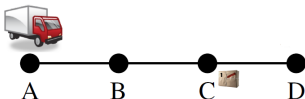
Graphplan Representation: The Case $m = 1$

1-Planning Graphs

```
 $F_0 := s; i := 0$   
while  $G \not\subseteq F_i$  do  
   $A_i := \{a \in A \mid pre_a \subseteq F_i\}$   
   $F_{i+1} := F_i \cup \bigcup_{a \in A_i} add_a$   
  if  $F_{i+1} = F_i$  then stop endif  
   $i := i + 1$   
endwhile
```

This is called “relaxed planning graph”. Slide 32 explains why.

1-Planning Graph for “Logistics”



- Initial state I : $t(A), p(C)$.
- Goal G : $t(A), p(D)$.
- Actions A : $dr(X, Y), lo(X), ul(X)$.

Content of Fact Sets F_i :

i	$t(A)$	$t(B)$	$t(C)$	$t(D)$	$p(T)$	$p(A)$	$p(B)$	$p(C)$	$p(D)$
0	yes	no	no	no	no	no	no	yes	no
1	yes	yes	no	no	no	no	no	yes	no
2	yes	yes	yes	no	no	no	no	yes	no
3	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	no
4	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
5	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes

→ Rings a bell? We got a “yes” for i, g if and only if $T_i^1(g) \neq \infty$, cf. slide 18.

1-Planning Graphs vs. h^1

Definition. Let $\Pi = (P, A, c, I, G)$ be a STRIPS planning task. The **1-planning graph heuristic** h_{PG}^1 for Π is the function $h_{PG}^1(s) := \min\{i \mid s \subseteq F_i\}$, where F_i are the fact sets computed by a 1-planning graph (and the minimum over an empty set is ∞ .)

Proposition. Let $\Pi = (P, A, c, I, G)$ be a STRIPS planning task **with unit costs**. Then $h_{PG}^1 = h^1$.

Proof Sketch: Induction over the value i of $h^1(s)$. Trivial for base case $i = 0$. For the step case, assume that $h_{PG}^1(s) = h^1(s)$ for all s where $h^1(s) \leq i$, and show the same property for all s with $h^1(s) \leq i + 1$. $h_{PG}^1(s) < i + 1$ directly contradicts the assumption. To show $h_{PG}^1(s) \leq i + 1$, it suffices to observe that $h^1(pre_a) \leq i$ implies $h_{PG}^1(pre_a) \leq i$ by assumption.

→ Intuition: A 1-planning graph is like our dynamic programming algorithm for $m = 1$, except that it represents not all facts but only those that have been reached (value $\neq \infty$), and instead of a fact-value table it only remembers that set.

Graphplan Representation: The General Case

m -Planning Graphs

```
 $F_0 := s; M_0 := \emptyset; i := 0$   
fn  $Reached_i(g) := \begin{cases} True & g \subseteq F_i, \nexists g' \in M_i : g' \subseteq g \\ False & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$   
while not  $Reached_i(G)$  do  
     $A_i := \{a \in A \mid Reached_i(pre_a)\}$   
     $F_{i+1} := F_i \cup \bigcup_{a \in A_i} add_a$   
     $M_{i+1} := \{g \subseteq P \mid |g| \leq m, \forall a \in A_i : \text{not } Reached_i(regr(g, a))\}$   
    if  $F_{i+1} = F_i$  and  $M_{i+1} = M_i$  then stop endif  
     $i := i + 1$   
endwhile
```

→ Intuition: All m -subsets g of F_i are reachable within i steps, except for those g listed in M_i (the “mutexes”).

→ Instead of listing the reached m -subsets, represent those that are not reached (and hope that there are fewer of those).

Critical Path Heuristics in FDR

... are *exactly* the same!

→ All definitions, results, and proofs apply, exactly as stated, also to FDR planning tasks. (See the single exception below.)

→ Remember (cf. → **Chapter 14**): We refer to pairs (v, d) of variable and value as facts. We identify partial variable assignments with sets of facts.

The single non-verbatim-applicable statement, adapted to FDR:

Proposition (h^m is Perfect in the Limit). *There exists m s.t. $h^m = h^*$.*

Proof. Given the definition of $regr(g, a)$ for FDR (→ **Chapter 17**), it is easy to see by induction that every subgoal g contains at most one fact for each variable $v \in V$. Thus, if we set $m := |V|$, then the case $|g| > m$ will never be used, so $h^m = r^*$.

→ In FDR, it suffices to set m to the number of *variables*, as opposed to the number of *variable values* i.e. STRIPS facts (compare slide 12)!

Summary

- The **critical path heuristics** h^m estimate the cost of reaching a subgoal g by the most costly m -subset of g .
- This is admissible because it is always more difficult to achieve larger subgoals.
- h^m can be computed using **dynamic programming**, i.e., initializing true m -subsets g to 0 and false ones to ∞ , then applying value updates until convergence.
- This computation is polynomial in the size of the planning task, given fixed m . In practice, $m = 1, 2$ are used; $m > 2$ is typically infeasible.
- **Planning graphs** correspond to dynamic programming with unit costs, using a particular representation of reached/unreached m -subsets g .

Historical Remarks

- The first critical path heuristic was introduced in the Graphplan system [Blum and Furst (1997)], which uses h^2 computed by a 2-planning graph.¹
- 1-planning graphs are commonly referred to as **relaxed planning graphs**. This is because they're identical to Graphplan's 2-planning graphs when ignoring the delete lists [Hoffmann and Nebel (2001)].
- Graphplan spawned a huge amount of follow-up work [e.g., Kambhampati *et al.* (1997); Koehler *et al.* (1997); Koehler (1998); Kambhampati (2000)].
- Nowadays, h^m is not in wide use anymore; its most prominent application right now is in modified forms that allow to use arbitrary sets of atomic subgoals (see slide 35), or to compute improved delete-relaxation heuristics.

¹Actually, Graphplan does **parallel planning** (a simplistic form of temporal planning), and uses a version of 2-planning graphs reflecting this. I omit the details since parallel planning is not relevant in practice.

A Technical Remark

Reminder: Search Space for Progression

- $\text{start}() = I$
- $\text{succ}(s) = \{(a, s') \mid \Theta_{\Pi} \text{ has the transition } s \xrightarrow{a} s'\}$

→ Need to compute $h^m(s) = h^m(s, G) \Rightarrow$ one call of dynamic programming for every different search state s !

Reminder: Search Space for Regression

- $\text{start}() = G$
- $\text{succ}(g) = \{(a, g') \mid g' = \text{regr}(g, a)\}$

→ Need to compute $h^m(I, g) = \max_{g' \subseteq g, |g'|=m} h^m(I, g') \Rightarrow$ a single call of dynamic programming, for $s = I$ before search begins!

→ For $m = 1$, it is feasible to use progression and recompute the cost of the (singleton) subgoals in every search state s . For $m = 2$ already, this is completely infeasible; all systems using h^2 do regression search, where all subgoals can be evaluated relative to the dynamic programming outcome for I .

Reading

- *Admissible Heuristics for Optimal Planning* [Haslum and Geffner (2000)].

Available at:

<http://www.dtic.upf.edu/~hgeffner/html/reports/admissible.ps>

Content: The original paper defining the h^m heuristic function, and comparing it to the techniques previously used in Graphplan.

- $h^m(P) = h^1(P^m)$: *Alternative Characterisations of the Generalisation from h^{\max} to h^m* [Haslum (2009)].

Available at: <http://users.cecs.anu.edu.au/~patrik/publik/pm4p2.pdf>

Content: Shows how to characterize h^m in terms of h^1 in a compiled planning task that explicitly represents size- m conjunctions.

Relevance here: this contains the only published account of the iterative h_i^m characterization of h^m . Relevance more generally: yields an alternative computation of h^m . This is not per se useful, but variants thereof have been shown to allow the computation of powerful partial-delete-relaxation heuristics (→ **Chapter 20**).

Reading, ctd.

- *Explicit Conjunctions w/o Compilation: Computing $h^{FF}(\Pi^C)$ in Polynomial Time* [Hoffmann and Fickert (2015)].

Available at:

<http://fai.cs.uni-saarland.de/hoffmann/papers/icaps15b.pdf>

Content: Introduces the h^C heuristic (cf. slide 22), which allows to select an arbitrary set C of atomic subgoals, and thus strictly generalizes h^m .

This is only a side note in the paper though, the actual concern is with defining and computing partial-delete-relaxation heuristics on top of h^C .

Reading, ctd.

- *Towards Clause-Learning State Space Search: Learning to Recognize Dead-Ends* [Steinmetz and Hoffmann (2016)].

Available at:

<http://fai.cs.uni-saarland.de/hoffmann/papers/aaai16.pdf>

Content: Specifies how to “learn” the atomic subgoals C based on states s where the search already knows that $h^*(s) = \infty$, yet where $h^C(s) \neq \infty$. The learning process adds new conjunctions into C , in a manner guaranteeing that $h^C(s) = \infty$ afterwards.

Doing this systematically in a depth-first search, we obtain a framework that approaches the elegance of clause learning in SAT, finding and analyzing conflicts to learn knowledge that generalizes to other search branches.

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