

# A Case Study on the Importance of Low-Level Algorithmic Details in Domain-Independent Heuristics

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In this paper, we show that low-level algorithmic details of domain-independent planning heuristics can have a surprisingly large impact on search performance. As a case study, we consider the well-known FF heuristic ( $h_{ff}$ ) (Hoffmann and Nebel 2001).

A planning task  $P = \langle V, s_0, s_*, A \rangle$ , where  $V$  is a set of variables,  $s_0$  is the initial state,  $s_*$  is the goal states, and  $A$  is the set of actions. Each action  $a$  has a cost  $c(a)$ , preconditions ( $pre(a)$ ), and effects ( $eff(a)$ ), and each effect  $e$  has a effect condition ( $cond(e)$ ) and a value assignment ( $x \leftarrow v$ ). A plan for a planning task is an action sequence which makes  $s_0$  transition to  $s \in s_*$ .

A well-known heuristic for satisficing planning is the FF heuristic (Hoffmann and Nebel 2001).  $h_{ff}(s)$  is defined as the cost of a plan for a *relaxed planning task*, where multiple values can be assigned to a variable. As a side effect of computing  $h_{ff}(s)$ , a subset of applicable actions called “helpful actions” is obtained and exploited by search algorithms (Hoffmann and Nebel 2001; Helmert 2006; Nakhost and Müller 2013). Although the original  $h_{ff}$  uses a planning graph to compute a relaxed plan (GRAPHPLAN) (Blum and Furst 1997; Hoffmann and Nebel 2001), Keyder and Geffner 2008 proposed a computation of  $h_{ff}$  based on an additive heuristic  $h_{add}$  (Bonet and Geffner 2001).

The widely used Fast Downward planning system (FD) (Helmert 2006; Richter and Westphal 2010) uses an  $h_{add}$  based implementation. In FD (<http://hg.fast-downward.org/>),  $h_{ff}$  is computed as follows: 1) decompose each action  $a$  per each effect  $e$  into unary actions  $u$ , such that  $pre(u) = pre(a) \cup cond(e)$ , effect  $eff(u) = x \leftarrow v$ , and cost  $c(u) = c(a)$ . 2) if an unary action  $a$  is dominated by another action  $b$ , i.e.  $eff(a) = eff(b) \wedge pre(b) \subseteq pre(a) \wedge c(b) \leq c(a)$ , exclude  $a$ , 3) compute  $h_{add}$  using Generalized Dijkstra algorithm (Liu, Koenig, and Furcy 2002) which maintains a priority queue, 4) and extract a relaxed plan and helpful actions. In step 3, FD uses an adaptive priority queue, which is a bucket based priority queue at first, but switches to the C++ Standard Library `std::priority_queue` when the priority of any entry exceeds 100. While tie-breaking of the bucket based priority queue is Last In First

Out (LIFO), `std::priority_queue` is heap based and the ordering is not stable in GCC 5.4 (<https://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs/gcc-5.4.0/libstdc++/manual/>). Although the original  $h_{ff}$  extracted helpful actions from the relaxed planning graph, step 4 restricts helpful actions to actions in the relaxed plan.

	GBFS			+PO			MRW		
	B	H	G	B	H	G	B	H	G
elevators	16	17	15	17	19	18	20	20	20
nomystery	10	8	11	10	9	11	10	10	11
parcprinter	20	8	20	20	12	20	20	20	20
pegsol	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20
scanalyzer	17	18	18	18	18	20	17	17	17
sokoban	19	18	19	19	19	19	1	1	1
tidybot	16	14	13	15	15	13	17	18	18
woodworking	14	10	14	20	17	20	8	7	20
barman	3	0	3	9	3	17	19	19	20
cavediving	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7
childsnaek	0	0	0	6	6	3	4	5	4
citycar	0	0	0	9	6	4	5	5	6
floortile	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
ged	20	20	19	20	20	20	20	20	15
hiking	19	19	11	19	20	12	18	18	18
maintenance	6	6	7	9	11	7	17	17	12
openstacks	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20
parking	4	7	8	13	10	5	6	0	20
tetris	10	14	16	18	17	19	8	8	17
thoughtful	8	11	12	14	14	12	20	20	20
transport	0	0	0	10	6	1	20	20	20
visitall	0	20	0	0	20	0	13	16	20
agricola	10	10	10	14	13	10	10	10	10
caldera	10	5	12	4	4	14	5	5	12
caldera-split	2	5	4	4	6	4	2	2	2
data-network	4	5	5	11	13	11	10	10	8
flashfill	8	8	10	13	14	10	9	9	12
nurikabe	10	13	9	9	10	10	14	14	14
organic-synthesis	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
organic-synthesis-split	8	9	11	8	9	11	4	4	5
settlers	3	3	4	14	14	11	20	17	17
snake	5	5	5	5	5	7	8	11	9
spider	11	11	10	14	14	13	11	12	14
termes	15	14	14	15	14	14	2	2	1
total	320	330	332	409	410	388	390	389	435
diff (B,H) (H,G) (G,B)	94	98	68	83	128	109	35	90	85

Table 1: Coverage comparison. diff(a,b) is the number of instances solved by either a or b and not solved by the other.

**Comparison of  $h_{ff}$  Implementation Strategies** We evaluated a satisficing planner with 3 implementations of unit-cost  $h_{ff}$ : GRAPHPLAN (G), an  $h_{add}$  based implementation with a bucket based priority queue (B), and an  $h_{add}$  based implementation using a heap (H). We evaluated these 3  $h_{ff}$  implementations with 3 search strategies: Lazy Greedy Best First Search (GBFS), GBFS with helpful actions (+PO)

	#min			#helpful		
	B	H	G	B	H	G
woodworking	1	0	<b>17</b>	1.140	1.214	<b>19.933</b>
parking	0	0	<b>20</b>	-	-	-
tetris	0	1	<b>8</b>	1.086	1.174	<b>2.166</b>
visittall	0	0	0	<b>1.217</b>	1.184	1.171
caldera	0	0	<b>12</b>	0.477	0.442	<b>1.440</b>
flashfill	2	<b>4</b>	0	<b>0.720</b>	0.605	0.432

Table 2: #min and #helpful per domains.

(Richter and Helmert 2009), and the Monte-Carlo Random Walk (MRW) algorithm used in Arvand-13 (Nakhost and Müller 2013). All of the algorithms were implemented in C++14 (GCC 5.4). Experiments were run on a machine with 16 cores (Xeon E5-2650 v2 2.60 GHz). For H, we used `std::priority_queue`, following FD. We use a wall-clock time limit of 30 min, a memory limit of 8 GB, and 34 domains from the satisficing track of IPC-11, IPC-14, and IPC-18 (20 instances/domain). For the domains with overlaps in IPC-11 and IPC-14, the IPC-14 version was used.

Table 1 shows the number of solved instances within resource limits (coverage). In GBFS and +PO, the coverage difference between B and H was  $>2$  instances on parcprinter, woodworking, barman and visittall. In particular, B could not solve any visittall instances, while H solved all the instances. For MRW, large coverage differences between B and H were observed on parking, settlers, and snake.

For all search strategies, coverage using G differed by  $\geq 3$  from the coverage of  $h_{add}$  based implementations in at least 5 domains. The total coverage of +PO with G performed worse than B and H. However, MRW with G solves more than 40 instances compared B and H.

In addition, Table 1 shows a `diff(alg1,alg2)` metric for each algorithm pair (B vs H, B vs G, H vs G, for GBFS, +PO, and MRW) which counts the number of instances solved by one algorithm but not the other. Although the total coverage of GBFS with B vs H differ only by 10, the `diff(B,H)` for GBFS is 94. Similarly, although total coverage of +PO with B vs H differ only by 1, `diff(B,H)` for +PO is 83. *Thus, the choice of priority queue tie-breaking policy causes significantly different search behavior, and the problems which are solved differ significantly depending on the policy.*

While `diff(B,H)` is  $<50\%$  smaller than `diff(H,G)` and `diff(B,G)` for MRW, `diff(B,H)` is higher than `diff(G,B)` in GBFS – surprisingly the tie-breaking of the priority queue, a minor implementation detail of  $h_{ff}$ , sometimes has a larger impact than the method used to compute a relaxed plan.

Note that Arvand-13, the previous state-of-the-art MRW-based planner, is built on top of the FD codebase, and uses FD’s  $h_{add}$  based implementation of  $h_{ff}$ . MRW with B and H are competitive with the original Arvand-2013 (<https://github.com/nhootan/Arvand2011>) (coverage=360). *Using a planning-graph based  $h_{ff}$  implementation resulted in a significant performance improvement compared to Arvand-13.*

One possible explanation for such a large performance gap is that different  $h_{ff}$  variants compute different  $h$ -values.

Because  $h$ -values of  $h_{ff}$  are the costs of relaxed plans, lower the  $h$ -value, the closer the relaxed plan is to the optimal relaxed plan. Table 2 shows the number of instances where the initial  $h$ -value of any  $h_{ff}$  variant is strictly lower than all the others (#min) on 6 domains where MRW with G solved  $\geq 3$  instances more than B and H. While  $\#min(G) > \#min(B)$  and  $\#min(H)$  on most of these domains,  $\#min(G)$  was lower than  $\#min(B)$  and  $\#min(H)$  on visittall and flashfill.

Another possible cause of the large performance gap between G vs. B and H is the number of helpful actions. Action choices are biased by helpful actions in MRW, and helpful actions in  $h_{add}$  based  $h_{ff}$  are more restricted than in the original  $h_{ff}$  because of step 2 and 4. Table 2 compares the mean # of helpful actions per state (#helpful) on instances solved by all 3 MRW variants. G generates more helpful actions than others on the domains except for visittall and flashfill.

It is possible that excluding actions in step 2 results in different relaxed plans and helpful actions, and both of these simultaneously affect search performance. We are currently continuing to investigate the cause of the performance gap.

**Conclusion** While the previous state-of-the-art MRW-based planner used the commonly used  $h_{add}$  based  $h_{ff}$  implementation (Nakhost and Müller 2013), we have shown that a planning-graph based implementation of  $h_{ff}$  yields a surprisingly large performance improvement, resulting in an MRW satisficing planner which is significantly more competitive than MRW using an  $h_{add}$  based  $h_{ff}$  implementation. Furthermore, we showed that both the choice of relaxed plan computation method as well as the priority queue policy for  $h_{add}$  significantly affect which specific instances are solved.

These results show that such seemingly minor “low-level algorithmic details” can have a significant impact on the performance of a heuristic. Although this paper evaluated  $h_{ff}$ , similar details may have a significant but overlooked impact in other heuristics (e.g., heuristics which embed or use  $h_{ff}$ ).

## References

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