# The Closed List Is an Obstacle Too 

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#### Abstract

The baseline approach for optimal path finding in 4connected grids is $\mathrm{A}^{*}$ with Manhattan Distance. In this paper we introduce an enhancement to $\mathrm{A}^{*}$ (called BOXA*) on grids which does not need any preprocessing and only needs negligible additional memory. The main idea is to treat the closedlist as a dynamic obstacle. We maintain rectangles which surround CLOSED nodes and calculate an admissible heuristic using the fact that an optimal path from a given node must go around these rectangles. We experimentally show the benefits of this approach on a variety of grid domains.


## Introduction

Optimal path finding in grids is important in AI and robotics. In this paper we limit the discussion to 4-connected 2D grids. The baseline approach is to use A* with Manhattan Distance (MD). Nevertheless, a large number of enhancements were suggested over the years, most of which require a preprocessing phase and/or additional memory to store smart lookup tables which speed up the search (Sturtevant et al. 2015). At one extreme, some methods calculate and store the all pairs shortest paths information (Botea and Harabor 2013). At the other extreme, some methods such as jump point search (Harabor and Grastien 2011) do not require any preprocessing or additional memory.

This paper introduces an enhancement to baseline A* on grids which does not need any preprocessing and only needs negligible additional memory. The main idea is to treat closed nodes as obstacles. Dynamic lists of rectangles which surround the closed list are maintained. We then calculate an admissible heuristic using the fact that an optimal path from any given node in OPEN must at least go around these rectangles. Finally, we provide experimental results that demonstrate the benefits of this approach. This paper is a proof-ofconcept for using the closed-list to improve the heuristic of open nodes. We believe that this idea can be also applied to other gird settings (e.g. 8-connected and 3D), and maybe even to other domains.

## Motivation and Definitions

We assume that there exists a consistent base heuristic ( $h_{\text {base }}$ ). Throughout this paper we use MD as $h_{\text {base }}$. The
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Figure 1: Motivating example
 and closed with its best $g$-value and that it will never be reopened (Zhang et al. 2009). A motivating example appears in Figure 1(left); blue nodes are in ClOSED and green nodes are in Open (similarly, in all our figures). Assume A* is executed from $s$ (the start state) to $g$ (the goal state). Further assume that node $c$ was already closed with $g(c)$, that node $x$ has just been generated and that we are seeking for $h(x)$. We now have the following lemma:

Lemma 1. If $x$ is on an optimal path $P$ from s to $g$ which was discovered by $A^{*}$, then $c$ will never appear on the remaining part of $P$ after $x$.

Proof (by contradiction): Assume that $P=\{s \rightsquigarrow x \rightsquigarrow c \rightsquigarrow$ $g\}$ is an optimal path from $s$ to $g$. But since $c$ was already closed and $h_{\text {base }}$ is consistent $P$ cannot be discovered by A* as A* never reopen nodes when the heuristic is consistent. In fact, in this case $c$ was closed with its best $g$-value $g(c) \leq$ $g(x)+d(x, c)$. So, instead of $P, \mathrm{~A}^{*}$ will find an alternative path $P^{\prime}=s \rightsquigarrow c \rightsquigarrow g$ via the original expansion of $c$ with $c\left(P^{\prime}\right) \leq c(P)$ (because $\left.g(c) \leq g(x)+d(x, c)\right) .{ }^{1}$

We note that the minimal requirement on a heuristic $h$ assuring that $\mathrm{A}^{*}$ finds an optimal solution is that there exists one optimal path $P$ where $\forall_{x \in P}\left(h(x) \leq h^{*}(x)\right)$. That is, $h$ is required to be admissible only on $P$ (Karpas and Domshlak 2012). As a result, nodes that are not on this unique path $P$ may have overestimating $h$-values. In particular, consider a node $y \notin P$ when it is generated. Ideally, if an oracle predicts that $y \notin P$ it would be safe to set $h(y)=\infty$ and never

[^0]expand $y$. In this setting, $A^{*}$ will only expand the nodes on the optimal path and reach the goal directly.

Therefore, when $\mathrm{A}^{*}$ generates a node $x$ the question we actually ask is: if $x$ is on an optimal path, what is a lower bound on the remaining optimal path to the goal? We call such lower bound path admissible. Consequently, when a node $x$ is generated, we want a lower bound on a path that does not pass through any CLOSED node (because an optimal path that includes $x$ cannot include any Closed node after $x$ ). In this sense, for this particular search from $s$ to $g$, CLOSED can be treated as an obstacle.

In the remaining of this paper we focus on finding such a lower bound. We denote it by $h_{B O X}$.

## Rectangles Around Closed Nodes

Consider again the example in Figure 1(left) and observe the gray rectangle which is the smallest rectangle that surrounds ClOSED. Simple properties of 4 -connected grids imply that any shortest path that does not pass in any Closed node (blue nodes) is equivalent in its length to the path that goes around the rectangle. Therefore, $h_{B O X}$ calculates the shortest path to the goal that goes around the rectangle.

Any rectangle $r$ in a grid divides the grid into 9 zones based on their locations relative to $r$ as depicted in Figure 1(right). These zones can be (1:) cardinal to the rectangle (e.g., north, east, south, west) (2:) diagonally to the rectangle (e.g., north-west), or (3:) inside the rectangle. We say that a rectangle blocks cell $x$ from cell $y$ (and vise versa) if they are on opposite cardinal zones (i.e., north vs. south or east vs. west). Similarly, we define four pivot points which are diagonally adjacent to the corners of the rectangle. The black squares in Figure 1(right) present the north-east and the south-east pivots of the rectangle.

Definition $1\left(h_{B O X}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{r})\right)$. Given that cell $x$ is cardinal to a rectangle $r$ which surrounds closed cells, let $P V(r, x)$ be the two pivots that are on the same cardinal side as $x$ (the black circles in Figure 1(left) are PV $(r, x)$ ).

If $x$ and goal are not blocked by $r$ then:
$h_{\text {BOX }}(x, r)=h_{\text {base }}(x)$
If $x$ and goal are blocked by $r$ (they are in opposite cardinal directions) then:

$$
h_{B O X}(x, r)=\min _{q \in P V(r, x)}\left(h_{\text {base }}(x, q)+h_{\text {base }}(q)\right)
$$

Lemma 2. $h_{B O X}(x, r)$ is path admissible.
Proof: As explained above, if $x$ is on an optimal path to the goal then this path must not enter any of the Closed nodes. The length of the minimal path from $x$ to the goal that does not pass through any CLOSED node is therefore a lower bound on the remaining optimal path. This is equivalent to a path that goes around the rectangle that surrounds the Closed nodes. The shortest path that passes through one of the pivots, $P V(r, x)$, is a lower bound for this.

It is easy to see that $h_{B O X}(x, r) \geq h_{\text {base }}(x)$. As a result, it is likely that the number of expanded nodes will be smaller with $h_{B O X}(x, r)$ than with $h_{\text {base }}(x)$ (but not necessary, see Holte (2010)). Next we introduce our algorithm BOXA* and a number of enhanced variants.

## BOXA*

BOXA* maintains a list $R_{D}$ of disjoint, unconnected rectangles which surround Closed nodes for each direction $D \in\{\mathbf{N}$ orth, East, South, West $\}$ relative to $g$. An example is shown in Figure 2(a) where $R_{N}$ is colored red, $R_{W}$ is colored purple and $R_{E}$ is colored orange. $R_{S}$ is empty. For node $x, h_{B O X}\left(x, r_{D}\right)$ is calculated for every rectangle $r_{D} \in R_{D}$ that blocks $x$ from $g$. That is, $x$ and $g$ are in opposite cardinal zones with respect to $r_{D}$.

Note that if $x$ is on the same row or the same column as $g$ then there is only one direction $D$ that may have rectangles that block $x$ from $g$. Otherwise, $x$ is diagonal to $g$ and there are two directions that might have rectangles which block $x$ from $g$. For example, if $x$ is southwest to $g$ then rectangles from both $R_{S}$ and $R_{W}$ may block $x$ from $g$. Each rectangle produces a lower-bound on the solution cost, thus the maximal $h_{B O X}$ value among them can be used as the (path admissible) heuristic value. Thus, the full (single-parameter) version of $h_{B O X}$ is defined with respect to a given cell $x$ and all rectangles that block $x$ from $g$ :

$$
h_{B O X}(x)=\max _{r_{d} \in R_{D} \text { s.t. } r_{d} \text { blocks } x \text { from } g} h_{B O X}\left(x, r_{d}\right)
$$

For example, assume that cell $x$ is generated in Figure 1 (left). While $\operatorname{MD}(x)=5, h_{B O X}(x)=11$ as we must make 6 vertical moves to get to one of the pivots and continue to the goal, due to the (single) west rectangle $r_{W}$. Finally, note that if a node $x$ is inside a rectangle $r$ when computing $h_{B O X}(x, r)$, only a sub-rectangle of $r$ that does not contain $x$ should be considered. For example, in the left side of Figure 2(a), $x_{1}$ is within the (single) west rectangle $r_{W}$. Thus, when computing $h_{B O X}\left(x_{1}, r_{W}\right)$ only the subrectangle that contains the three nodes right of $x_{1}$ is relevant.

## Maintaining the Rectangles

In the beginning of the search, there are no rectangles as Closed is empty. Since Closed grows whenever a node is expanded, the rectangles can possibly change after each expansion. There are three cases when a node $x$ is expanded which are covered next.

Case 1: If a node $x_{1}$, which is inside a rectangle $r$ is expanded, then $r$ remains unchanged. This case is demonstrated in Figure 2 where the west rectangle, $r_{W}$ is shown before (a) and after (b) the expansion of $x_{1}$.

Case 2: If a node $x_{2}$, which borders a rectangle $r$ is expanded, then $r$ needs to be extended to also include $x_{2}$. This process is shown in Figure 2 where the west rectangle, $r_{W}$ is shown before (b) and after (c) the expansion of $x_{2} .{ }^{2}$

Case 3: If a node $x_{3}$, which does not border any rectangle $r_{D} \in R_{D}$ in a relevant direction $D$ (based on the location of $x_{3}$ with respect to $g$ ) is expanded, then a new rectangle $r_{D}^{\prime}$ is created and added to $R_{D}$. This process is shown in Figure 2. The south rectangle, $r_{S}$ (in yellow) is shown before the expansion of $x_{3}$ (c). Then, after $x_{3}$ is expanded, a new rectangle $r_{S}^{\prime}$ is created (d). In principle, due to this case there

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Figure 2: (a:) initial state (b:) no enlarging (c:) enlarging (d:) multiple rectangles (e:) Lazy Evaluation (f:) Recursive $h_{B O X}$
can be several disjoint rectangles in $R_{D}$ for some direction $D$ (as just shown for $R_{S}$ ). In our experiments there was usually only a single rectangle in each direction, and never more than two. Moreover, when computing $h_{B O X}(x)$, not every rectangle from the relevant list $R_{D}$ blocks $x$ from $g$. For example, in Figure 2(d), even though $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$ are south to $g$, none of the south rectangles blocks them. Finally, note that when $s$ is expanded, then Closed grows from empty to include $s$. Therefore, $s$ does not border any rectangle and the initial rectangles are constructed due to case 3 .

## Implementation of BOXA*

BOXA* is mainly based on $A^{*}$, with some additional overhead for computing the new heuristic and maintaining the rectangles. When BOXA* generates a node $n$, the following operations are performed:

1. Find the zone of $n$ with respect to the goal; this is done by a simple comparison of the $(x, y)$-coordinates of $n$ with those of $g$.
2. Iterate over the rectangles in each relevant direction (induced by $n$ 's zone), and check if they block $n$ from the goal, i.e., check if $n$ is either adjacent to or inside any of the rectangles. In the latter case ( $n$ is inside a rectangle $r$ ), consider only a sub-rectangle of $r$ that doesn't contain $n$.
3. For every rectangle that blocks $n$ from the goal, compute $h_{B O X}$. The computation of $h_{B O X}$ is composed of computing the distance to the two pivots, and applying $h_{\text {base }}$ (MD) to each pivot.
4. Take the maximum between the lower-bounds induced by the different rectangles (step 3).
When a node $n$ is expanded, some of the rectangles in step 2 need to be extended (as explained in Section ). Furthermore, if one of the relevant directions induced by the zone of $n$ (step 1) had no rectangles that blocks $n$ from $g$, a new rectangle is generated. Both these operations (extending a rectangle and creating a new rectangle) are computationally inexpensive. All of the above generation and expansion operations of nodes consume a time that is at most linear in the number of rectangles. In practice, the number of rectangles from each direction was usually 1 (and never more than 2 ). Thus, the additional overhead of BOXA* compared to A* for every node generation and expansion is effectively constant. The memory consumption of BOXA* is also linear in the number of rectangles, as each rectangle is stored using two coordinates (the northwest and southeast corners). Thus,


Figure 3: A* vs BOXA* with a $3 \times 7$ obstacle
the overall additional memory consumption of BOXA* is constant in practice.

## Reduction in Node Expansions of BOXA*

Potentially, BOXA* may significantly reduce the number of nodes expanded, but this greatly depends on the specific instance and on the exact location of obstacles with respect to $s$ and $g$. Consider the grid in Figure 3 where the start $s$ and the goal $g$ are in opposite sides of a rectangular obstacle of height $H$ and width $W$. Numbers inside cells are their $f$-values. A* will expand the entire triangle left to start before it goes around the obstacle as shown in Figure 3(left). This will expand $H^{2} / 2+H / 2+W+2$ nodes. In contrast, BOXA* will only expand $3 H / 2+W+2$ nodes as shown in Figure 3(right). When $H$ is large and $W$ is small BOXA* will have a quadratic reduction in the number of nodes expanded compared to $\mathrm{A}^{*}$. For example, consider a rectangular obstacle of size $1,000 \times 4$. In this case BOXA* expands 1,506 nodes while A* expands 500,506 nodes. However, when $H=4$ and $W=1,000$, BOXA* expands 1,008 nodes while A* expands 1,014 nodes. Furthermore, assume that we swap the locations of $s$ and $g$ and search from $g$ to $s$. Here, $A^{*}$ will expand all of the nodes in the rightmost column and then go below the obstacle directly to $s$. BOXA* (and any other algorithm with no preprocessing) will not be able to prune any node and will do the exact same work as A*. In general BOXA* will be most efficient if $s$ and $g$ are blocked by a long obstacle, but this is not known a priori to the solver without any preprocessing.

## Enhancements of BOXA*

We next cover two enhancements for BOXA*.

## Lazy Expansion of Nodes

We note that when $x$ is chosen for expansion, we can optionally re-calculate $f(x)$ based on the new shape of the rectangles in the $R_{D}$ lists of the relevant directions. If this increases $f(x)$ above the minimal $f$-value in OPEN then $x$ may remain in OPEN with its new $f$-value along the same principle used by Lazy A* (Tolpin et al. 2013). Therefore, we call this variant $\mathrm{BOXA}_{l}^{*}$. This change-priority() operation is lighter than a full expansion. In change-priority() we re-insert a node $x$ with its new $f$-value. In a standard heap implementation of a priority queue this incurs $O(\log (M))$ time where $M$ is the number of nodes in Open. By contrast, expansion of a node is removing it from Open and adding $b$ children. This incurs a larger overhead than changepriority () because it involves $b+1$ (one deletion and $b$ additions) operations on OPEN, each of them takes $O(\log (M))$ time. In addition, it involves the generation of $b$ new nodes. Therefore, change-priority() is a lighter operation. However, as shown by Tolpin et al. (2013), change-priority(x) will only be beneficial if $x$ remains in OPEN and is never expanded. This will happen if the new $f(x)$ is larger than $C^{*}$, the cost of the optimal solution. In this case, the expansion of $x$ is saved. If, however, it turns out that $x$ will be expanded in later stages then change-priority $(x)$ is redundant and only incurs extra overhead. Thus, activating change-priority $(x)$ is helpful only for some of the nodes.

Consider the example in Figure 2(e). The left side shows the grid after expanding node $s$. The number in each cell is its $f$-value. There is only one closed rectangle and it contains $s$ only. For node $c, g(c)=1$ and $h(c)=5$ because it needs to go around the rectangle to reach $g$. In the next two steps nodes $a$ and $b$ are expanded and the rectangle is updated to contain $\{\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}\}$ as shown in Figure 2(e) on the right. Now the best node in OPEN will be $c$. When extracting node $c$ its heuristic is re-evaluated to $h(c)=7$ and therefore we have that $f(c)=8$. There are now two options. The first is to expand $c$ right away and generate its children. However, since we have nodes in OPEN with $f(n)=6$, the second option is to choose not to expand $c$ but place it in open with $f(c)=8$ via the change-priority() function. In fact, in this example, $c$ might never be expanded.

## Recursive $h_{B O X}$

In Definition 1 (of $h_{B O X}$ ), the $h$-value of reaching from a pivot $q$ to the goal is MD ( $h_{\text {base }}$ ). However, instead of using MD, $h_{B O X}$ can be recursively applied on the pivots as well. Thus, we define $h_{B O X_{r}}$, a recursive version of $h_{B O X}$, as follows:
$h_{B O X_{r}}(x, r)=\min _{q \in P V_{r}(x)}\left(h_{\text {base }}(x, q)+h_{\text {base }}\left(q, q^{\prime}\right)+h_{B O X_{r}}\left(q^{\prime}\right)\right)$
where $q^{\prime}$ is the other corner of $r$ that is adjacent to $q$ in the cordiality opposite of $x$. For example, if $x$ is north to $r$ and $q$ is the northwest corner of $r$, then $q^{\prime}$ is the southwest corner of $r$. The full (single-parameter) version of $h_{B O X_{r}}$ is thus defined:

$$
h_{B O X_{r}}(x)=\max _{r_{d} \in R_{D} \text { s.t. } r_{d} \text { blocks } x \text { from } g} h_{B O X_{r}}\left(x, r_{d}\right)
$$



Figure 4: isound1. Left: scenarios 1, 2. Right: scenario 3

Figure 2(f) demonstrates the contribution of $h_{B O X_{r}}$ when $h(x)$ is computed. The north rectangle blocks $x$ from $g$. There is only one pivot $q$ as the other corner is outside of the map. Since $h_{B O X}$ applies MD on the pivot nodes, $h_{B O X}(x, r)=h_{\text {base }}(x, q)+h_{\text {base }}(q, g)=3+7=10$. In contrast, when computing $h_{B O X_{r}}(x), h_{B O X_{r}}$ is applied recursively on $q^{\prime}$, thus $h_{B O X_{r}}(x)=h_{\text {base }}(x, q)+h_{\text {base }}\left(q, q^{\prime}\right)+$ $h_{B O X_{r}}\left(q^{\prime}\right)$. When computing $h_{B O X_{r}}\left(q^{\prime}\right)$, the west rectangle is considered and $q^{\prime \prime}$ becomes the new pivot, thus $h_{\text {BOX }_{r}}\left(q^{\prime}\right)=h_{\text {base }}\left(q^{\prime}, q^{\prime \prime}\right)+h_{\text {base }}\left(q^{\prime \prime}, q^{\prime \prime \prime}\right)+h_{\text {BOX }_{r}}\left(q^{\prime \prime \prime}\right)$. Finally, $h_{B O X}\left(q^{\prime \prime \prime}\right)=h_{\text {base }}\left(q^{\prime \prime \prime}, g\right)=1$, as it is not bounded by any rectangle. Therefore, $h_{B O X_{r}}\left(q^{\prime}\right)=1+4+$ $1=6$. As a result, $h_{B O X_{r}}(x)=3+3+6=12$. We use $\mathrm{BOXA}_{r}^{*}$ to denote the recursive variant of BOXA* (that uses $h_{B O X}{ }_{r}$ instead of $h_{B O X}$ ), and $\mathrm{BOXA}_{l r}^{*}$ to denote the variant that is both lazy and recursive.

## Experimental Results

We compared all our variants on maps from Dragon Age: Origins (DAO) (all brc maps and the isoundl map) and on Mazes with different corridor widths (1, 2, 4); all are from the movingai repository (Sturtevant 2012). The improvement of the BOXA* variants over A* varies dramatically along different maps and scenarios. In some cases, for example, when there is a line-of-sight between the start and the goal, A* cannot be improved. However, in other cases there is almost quadratic improvement in the number of node expansions, as explained above. We demonstrate this trend on three scenarios of the isound1 map. The start and goal cells of Scenario 1 are labeled $S_{1}$ and $G_{1}$ in Figure 4 (left). These cells have line-of-sight and thus all algorithms proceed directly to the goal. Scenario $2\left(S_{2}\right.$ and $\left.G_{2}\right)$ is also shown in Figure 4 (left). The light green cells are those that were expanded by $\mathrm{A}^{*}$ and the dark green cells are those expanded by both $\mathrm{BOXA}_{l r}^{*}$ and A*. Clearly, a large improvement is observed. A* expanded 214 nodes while $\mathrm{BOXA}_{l r}^{*}$ expanded 40 nodes, an improvement factor of 5.4. Another major improvement is also evident for Scenario 3 (shown in Figure 4 (right)). Here, A* expanded 1,058 nodes while $\mathrm{BOXA}_{l r}^{*}$ expanded 363 nodes, a larger reduction in expansions compared to Scenario 2, but a smaller improvement ratio of 2.9 .

Table 1 reports the number of node expansions and gener-

|  | Type | Best improvement factor |  |  |  | Average node expansions |  |  |  |  | Average node generations |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | BOXA* | BOXA ${ }_{l}^{*}$ | $\mathrm{BOXA}_{r}^{*}$ | $\mathrm{BOXA}_{l r}^{*}$ | A* | BOXA* | $\mathrm{BOXA}_{l}^{*}$ | $\mathrm{BOXA}_{r}^{*}$ | $\mathrm{BOXA}_{l r}^{*}$ | A* | BOXA* | BOXA ${ }_{l}^{*}$ | $\mathrm{BOXA}_{r}^{*}$ | $\mathrm{BOXA}_{l r}^{*}$ |
| DAO | brc | 3.3 | 3.9 | 3.3 | 4.0 | 6,796 | 5,931 | 5,808+427 | 5,902 | 5,605+673 | 12,655 | 7,958 | 7,834 | 7,970 | 7,637 |
|  | isound | 3.0 | 3.2 | 3.1 | 5.4 | 235 | 197 | $186+25$ | 195 | $178+28$ | 490 | 330 | 321 | 329 | 312 |
| Mazes | w=1 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 24,673 | 23,280 | $23,265+23$ | 23,119 | 22,996 + 64 | 24,709 | 23,317 | 23,302 | 23,156 | 23,033 |
|  | $\mathrm{w}=2$ | 2.0 | 2.1 | 2.0 | 3.2 | 27,088 | 24,767 | 24,722+103 | 24,526 | 23,808+174 | 40,677 | 26,285 | 26,217 | 26,030 | 25,250 |
|  | $\mathrm{w}=4$ | 2.2 | 2.2 | 2.2 | 2.7 | 31,276 | 29,298 | 29,244+257 | 29,120 | 28,638+404 | 54,804 | 33,931 | 33,842 | 33,701 | 33,137 |

Table 1: Best improvement factor and average node expansions and generations for the different BOXA* variants
ations for all our variants on all map types. The first columns present the improvement factor over $\mathrm{A}^{*}$ of the best scenario on each map type. Basic BOXA* reduced the number of node expansions by a factor that ranges from 1.6 to 3.3 while $\mathrm{BOXA}_{l r}^{*}$ further increased the improvement factor up to 5.4 (as shown in Figure 4(right) for scenario 2). The following columns show the average number of node expansions and node generations over all maps and scenarios. For $\mathrm{BOXA}_{l}^{*}$ and $\mathrm{BOXA}_{l r}^{*}$ the number of change-priority calls of lazy expansion is shown after the plus sign ( + ). Since in many scenarios there was a line-of-sight between the start and the goal, the average improvement is relatively modest. BOXA* resulted in an average reduction of $9.3 \%$ in node expansions and $29 \%$ in node generations. Each of the BOXA* enhancements further improve the results and $\mathrm{BOXA}_{l r}^{*}$ resulted in an average reduction of $13.3 \%$ in node expansions and $33.1 \%$ in node generation. Importantly, all BOXA* variants were never worse than $A^{*}$ in any map and scenario in terms of node expansions/generations. Thus there is no risk in using BOXA* and its enhancements in terms of node counts.

While the BOXA* variants are never worse in terms of node expansions, this is not the case in terms of runtime. The operations that maintain the rectangles and calculate $h_{B O X}$ are asymptotically constant, but they incur a larger CPU overhead compared to $\mathrm{A}^{*}$. This is especially evident in small maps, where the overhead of node-insertions is small due to the small size of the open-list (heap). Therefore, the runtime of all BOXA* variants was larger than $\mathrm{A}^{*}$ on average. Nonetheless, BOXA* can still be better in terms of runtime for larger maps. For example, when multiplying size of the isound 1 map by 10, all BOXA* variants had a better runtime than $\mathrm{A}^{*}$ on average, and in some scenarios the improvement was by up to a factor of 4 . Finally, our implementation of BOXA* is relatively basic, but more low-level implementation optimizations are likely to speed up the runtime significantly. Meanwhile, we only recommend using BOXA* and its variants for domains that 1 ) have many obstacles, thus the start and the goal are not likely to share a line-of-sight; and 2) the maps in the domain are either large or the cost of node generations is high (e.g. if it requires a physical sensing).

## Conclusions

We presented an effective method to strengthen MD on 2D grids without preprocessing and without significant additional memory. In terms of node expansions and generations, all BOXA* variants are never worse than $\mathrm{A}^{*}$ and in many scenarios they might provide a significant improvement even in time. Improvements vary by instance based on the shapes of the obstacles and the relative locations of start and goal.

We believe that this work is mainly a proof of concept for a much larger research. First, BOXA* can be combined with other orthogonal approaches, especially those that do not need preprocessing nor significant additional memory such as jump point search (Harabor and Grastien 2011). Then, BOXA* can be generalized to 3D grids where boxes will replace the rectangles and to 8 -connected grids where polygons will replace the rectangles. Finally, we believe that the idea of using the closed-list to improve the heuristic for generated nodes can be applied to other polynomial domains (e.g. roadmaps) and even to exponential domains (e.g. puzzles). For example, one way to generalize to other domains (e.g., exponential domains) is to embed them (e.g., by fastmap (Cohen et al. 2018)) into a Euclidean, even 2D, domain and then use our heuristics there.

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ If the smallest edge cost is $\epsilon>0$ then $c\left(P^{\prime}\right)<c(P)$ and $g(c)<g(x)+d(x, c)$.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ In theory, if a node which borders two rectangles in the same direction is expanded, these rectangles can be merged. However, this never happened in our experiments.

