## Principles of AI Planning6. Planning as search: search algorithms

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November 6th, 2017



Nodes and states Search for planning Common procedures

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Heuristic search

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# Introduction to search algorithms for planning

Choices to make:

- search direction: progression/regression/both → previous chapter

- search control: heuristics, pruning techniques
   ~> next chapters



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#### Nodes and states

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- Search algorithms are used to find solutions (plans) for transition systems in general, not just for planning tasks.
- Planning is one application of search among many.
- In this chapter, we describe some popular and/or representative search algorithms, and (the basics of) how they apply to planning.
- Most of this is review of material that should be known (details: Russell and Norvig's textbook).

In search, one distinguishes:

- search states *s* → states (vertices) of the transition system
- search nodes  $\sigma \rightsquigarrow$  search states plus information on where/when/how they are encountered during search

## What is in a search node?

Different search algorithms store different information in a search node  $\sigma$ , but typical information includes:

- state( $\sigma$ ): associated search state
- **parent**( $\sigma$ ): pointer to search node from which  $\sigma$  is reached
- **action**( $\sigma$ ): action leading from *state*(*parent*( $\sigma$ )) to *state*( $\sigma$ )
- $g(\sigma)$ : cost of  $\sigma$  (length of path from the root node)

For the root node,  $parent(\sigma)$  and  $action(\sigma)$  are undefined.



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Search states  $\neq$  (planning) states:

- Search states don't have to correspond to states in the planning sense.
  - progression: search states  $\approx$  (planning) states
  - regression: search states  $\approx$  sets of states (formulae)
- Search algorithms for planning where search states are planning states are called state-space search algorithms.
- Strictly speaking, regression is not an example of state-space search, although the term is often used loosely.
- However, we will put the emphasis on progression, which is almost always state-space search.

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A general search algorithm can be applied to any transition system for which we can define the following three operations:

- init(): generate the initial state
- is-goal(s): test if a given state is a goal state
- succ(s): generate the set of successor states of state s, along with the operators through which they are reached (represented as pairs  $\langle o, s' \rangle$  of operators and states)

Together, these three functions form a search space (a very similar notion to a transition system).

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Let  $\Pi = \langle A, I, O, \gamma \rangle$  be a planning task. Search space for progression search states: all states of  $\Pi$  (assignments to A) init() = Iis-goal(s) =  $\begin{cases} true & \text{if } s \models \gamma \\ false & otherwise \end{cases}$ succ(s) = { $\langle o, s' \rangle$  | applicable  $o \in O, s' = app_o(s)$ } Let  $\Pi = \langle A, I, O, \gamma \rangle$  be a planning task.

Search space for regression search states: all formulae over *A* (how many?)



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uninformed search vs. heuristic search:

- uninformed search algorithms only use the basic ingredients for general search algorithms
- heuristic search algorithms additionally use heuristic functions which estimate how close a node is to the goal

systematic search vs. local search:

- systematic algorithms consider a large number of search nodes simultaneously
- local search algorithms work with one (or a few) candidate solutions (search nodes) at a time
- not a black-and-white distinction; there are crossbreeds (e.g., enforced hill-climbing)

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uninformed vs. heuristic search:

- For satisficing planning, heuristic search vastly outperforms uninformed algorithms on most domains.
- For optimal planning, the difference is less pronounced.

systematic search vs. local search:

- For satisficing planning, the most successful algorithms are somewhere between the two extremes.
- For optimal planning, systematic algorithms are required.



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Before we describe the different search algorithms, we introduce three procedures used by all of them:

- make-root-node: Create a search node without parent.
- make-node: Create a search node for a state generated as the successor of another state.
- extract-solution: Extract a solution from a search node representing a goal state.

make-root-node: Create a search node without parent.

Procedure make-root-node

**def** make-root-node(*s*):

```
\sigma := new node

state(\sigma) := s

parent(\sigma) := undefined

action(\sigma) := undefined

g(\sigma) := 0

return \sigma
```



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make-node: Create a search node for a state generated as the successor of another state.

## Procedure make-node

## **def** make-node( $\sigma$ , o, s):

state(
$$\sigma'$$
) := s  
parent( $\sigma'$ ) := s  
action( $\sigma'$ ) :=  $\sigma$   
 $g(\sigma')$  :=  $g(\sigma) + 1$   
return  $\sigma'$ 



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extract-solution: Extract a solution from a search node representing a goal state.

Procedure extract-solution def extract-solution( $\sigma$ ): solution := new list while parent( $\sigma$ ) is defined: solution.push-front(action( $\sigma$ ))  $\sigma$  := parent( $\sigma$ ) return solution



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## Uninformed search

Breadth-first w/o duplicate detection Breadth-first with duplicate detection Bandom walk

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# Uninformed search algorithms

## Uninformed search algorithms

- Uninformed algorithms are less relevant for planning than heuristic ones, so we keep their discussion brief.
- Uninformed algorithms are mostly interesting to us because we can compare and contrast them to related heuristic search algorithms.

Popular uninformed systematic search algorithms:

- breadth-first search
- depth-first search
- iterated depth-first search

Popular uninformed local search algorithms:

### random walk

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# Possible improvement: duplicate detection (see next slide). Another possible improvement: test if σ' is a goal node; if so, terminate immediately. (We don't do this because it obscures the similarity to some of the later algorithms.)

## Breadth-first search without duplicate detection

## Breadth-first search

```
\begin{array}{l} \textit{queue} := \texttt{new} \ \texttt{fifo-queue} \\ \textit{queue.push-back}(\texttt{make-root-node}(\texttt{init}())) \\ \texttt{while not} \ \textit{queue.empty}(): \\ \sigma = \textit{queue.pop-front}() \\ \texttt{if is-goal}(\texttt{state}(\sigma)): \\ \texttt{return} \ \texttt{extract-solution}(\sigma) \\ \texttt{for each} \ \langle o, s \rangle \in \texttt{succ}(\textit{state}(\sigma)): \\ \sigma' := \texttt{make-node}(\sigma, o, s) \\ \textit{queue.push-back}(\sigma') \\ \texttt{return} \ \texttt{unsolvable} \end{array}
```

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## Breadth-first search with duplicate detection

```
queue := new fifo-queue
queue.push-back(make-root-node(init()))
closed := 0
while not queue.empty():
     \sigma = queue.pop-front()
     if state(\sigma) \notin closed:
           closed := closed \cup {state(\sigma)}
           if is-goal(state(\sigma)):
                return extract-solution(\sigma)
           for each (o, s) \in \text{succ}(\text{state}(\sigma)):
                \sigma' := make-node(\sigma, o, s)
                queue.push-back(\sigma')
return unsolvable
```

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## Breadth-first search with duplicate detection

```
queue := new fifo-queue
queue.push-back(make-root-node(init()))
closed := 0
while not queue.empty():
     \sigma = queue.pop-front()
     if state(\sigma) \notin closed:
           closed := closed \cup {state(\sigma)}
           if is-goal(state(\sigma)):
                return extract-solution(\sigma)
           for each (o, s) \in \text{succ}(\text{state}(\sigma)):
                \sigma' := make-node(\sigma, o, s)
                queue.push-back(\sigma')
return unsolvable
```

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## Random walk

```
\sigma := make-root-node(init())
```

forever:

```
if is-goal(state(\sigma)):
```

```
return extract-solution(\sigma)
```

Choose a random element  $\langle o, s \rangle$  from succ(state( $\sigma$ )).

 $\sigma := \mathsf{make-node}(\sigma, o, s)$ 

- The algorithm usually does not find any solutions, unless almost every sequence of actions is a plan.
- Often, it runs indefinitely without making progress.
- It can also fail by reaching a dead end, a state with no successors. This is a weakness of many local search approaches.



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## Heuristic search algorithms

Heuristic search algorithms are the most common and overall most successful algorithms for classical planning.

Popular systematic heuristic search algorithms:

- greedy best-first search
- A\*
- weighted A\*
- IDA\*
- depth-first branch-and-bound search

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Heuristic search algorithms are the most common and overall most successful algorithms for classical planning.

Popular heuristic local search algorithms:

- hill-climbing
- enforced hill-climbing
- beam search
- tabu search
- genetic algorithms
- simulated annealing



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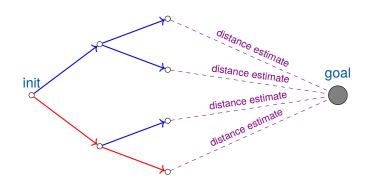
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## Heuristic search: idea





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A heuristic search algorithm requires one more operation in addition to the definition of a search space.

## Definition (heuristic function)

Let  $\Sigma$  be the set of nodes of a given search space. A heuristic function or heuristic (for that search space) is a function  $h: \Sigma \to \mathbb{N}_0 \cup \{\infty\}$ .

The value  $h(\sigma)$  is called the heuristic estimate or heuristic value of heuristic *h* for node  $\sigma$ . It is supposed to estimate the distance from  $\sigma$  to the nearest goal node.



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What does it mean that h "estimates the goal distance"?

- For most heuristic search algorithms, h does not need to have any strong properties for the algorithm to work (= be correct and complete).
- However, the efficiency of the algorithm closely relates to how accurately *h* reflects the actual goal distance.
- For some algorithms, like A\*, we can prove strong formal relationships between properties of h and properties of the algorithm (optimality, dominance, run-time for bounded error, ...)
- For other search algorithms, "it works well in practice" is often as good an analysis as one gets.

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Heuristics applied to nodes or states?

- Most texts apply heuristic functions to states, not nodes.
- This is slightly less general than our definition:
  - Given a state heuristic h, we can define an equivalent node heuristic as h'(σ) := h(state(σ)).
  - The opposite is not possible. (Why not?)
- There is good justification for only allowing state-defined heuristics: why should the estimated distance to the goal depend on how we ended up in a given state s?
- We call heuristics which don't just depend on *state*(σ) pseudo-heuristics.
- In practice there are sometimes good reasons to have the heuristic value depend on the generating path of σ (e.g., landmark pseudo-heuristic, Richter et al. 2008).

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Let  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$  be the set of nodes of a given search space.

## Definition (optimal/perfect heuristic)

The optimal or perfect heuristic of a search space is the heuristic  $h^*$  which maps each search node  $\sigma$  to the length of a shortest path from  $state(\sigma)$  to any goal state.

Note:  $h^*(\sigma) = \infty$  iff no goal state is reachable from  $\sigma$ .

### A heuristic h is called

- safe if  $h^*(\sigma) = \infty$  for all  $\sigma \in \Sigma$  with  $h(\sigma) = \infty$
- **goal-aware** if  $h(\sigma) = 0$  for all goal nodes  $\sigma \in \Sigma$
- admissible if  $h(\sigma) \le h^*(\sigma)$  for all nodes  $\sigma \in \Sigma$
- consistent if  $h(\sigma) \le h(\sigma') + 1$  for all nodes  $\sigma, \sigma' \in \Sigma$  such that  $\sigma'$  is a successor of  $\sigma$ .<sup>1</sup>

### **Relationships?**

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Summarv

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>or:  $h(\sigma) \le h(\sigma') + cost(\sigma, \sigma')$  for non-unit costs, where  $cost(\sigma, \sigma')$  is the cost of the transition from  $\sigma$  to  $\sigma'$ .

## Greedy best-first search (with duplicate detection)

```
open := new min-heap ordered by (\sigma \mapsto h(\sigma))
open.insert(make-root-node(init()))
closed := 0
while not open.empty():
      \sigma = open.pop-min()
     if state(\sigma) \notin closed:
            closed := closed \cup {state(\sigma)}
            if is-goal(state(\sigma)):
                  return extract-solution(\sigma)
            for each (o, s) \in \text{succ}(\text{state}(\sigma)):
                  \sigma' := \text{make-node}(\sigma, o, s)
                  if h(\sigma') < \infty:
                        open.insert(\sigma')
return unsolvable
```



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- one of the three most commonly used algorithms for satisficing planning
- complete for safe heuristics (due to duplicate detection)
- suboptimal unless h satisfies some very strong assumptions (similar to being perfect)
- invariant under all strictly monotonic transformations of *h* (e.g., scaling with a positive constant or adding a constant)

$$A^*$$

## A\* (with duplicate detection and reopening)

```
open := new min-heap ordered by (\sigma \mapsto q(\sigma) + h(\sigma))
open.insert(make-root-node(init()))
closed := \emptyset
distance := \emptyset
while not open.empty():
      \sigma = open.pop-min()
      if state(\sigma) \notin closed or q(\sigma) < distance(state(\sigma)):
            closed := closed \cup {state(\sigma)}
            distance(state(\sigma)) := g(\sigma)
            if is-goal(state(\sigma)):
                  return extract-solution(\sigma)
            for each (o, s) \in \text{succ}(\text{state}(\sigma)):
                  \sigma' := make-node(\sigma, o, s)
                  if h(\sigma') < \infty: open.insert(\sigma')
return unsolvable
```



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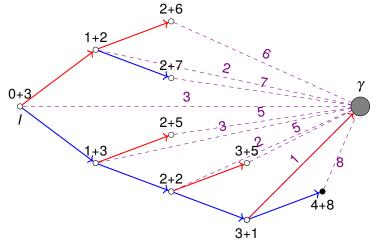
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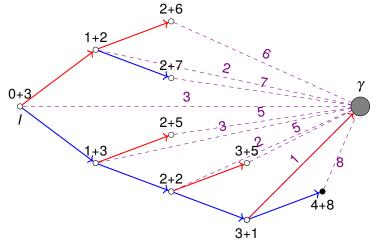
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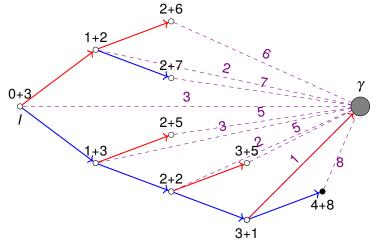
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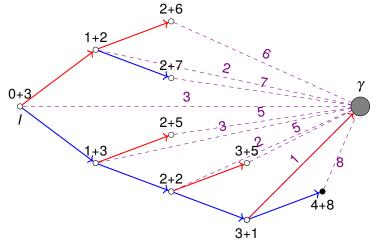
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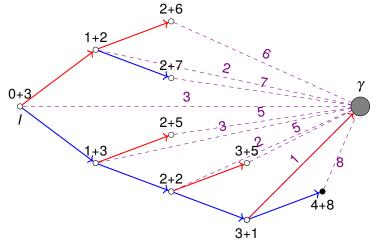
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- *f* value of a node: defined by  $f(\sigma) := g(\sigma) + h(\sigma)$
- generated nodes: nodes inserted into open at some point
- expanded nodes: nodes σ popped from open for which the test against closed and distance succeeds
- reexpanded nodes: expanded nodes for which  $state(\sigma) \in closed$  upon expansion (also called reopened nodes)

- the most commonly used algorithm for optimal planning
- rarely used for satisficing planning
- complete for safe heuristics (even without duplicate detection)
- optimal if h is admissible (even without duplicate detection)
- never reopens nodes if h is consistent

### Implementation notes:

- in the heap-ordering procedure, it is considered a good idea to break ties in favour of lower *h* values
- can simplify algorithm if we know that we only have to deal with consistent heuristics
- common, hard to spot bug: test membership in *closed* at the wrong time

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## Weighted A\*

## Weighted A\* (with duplicate detection and reopening)

```
open := new min-heap ordered by (\sigma \mapsto g(\sigma) + W \cdot h(\sigma))
open.insert(make-root-node(init()))
closed := \emptyset
distance := \emptyset
while not open.empty():
      \sigma = open.pop-min()
      if state(\sigma) \notin closed or g(\sigma) < distance(state(\sigma)):
            closed := closed \cup {state(\sigma)}
            distance(\sigma) := g(\sigma)
            if is-goal(state(\sigma)):
                  return extract-solution(\sigma)
            for each (o, s) \in \text{succ}(\text{state}(\sigma)):
                  \sigma' := make-node(\sigma, o, s)
                  if h(\sigma') < \infty: open.insert(\sigma')
return unsolvable
```

.....

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The weight  $W \in \mathbb{R}_0^+$  is a parameter of the algorithm.

- for W = 0, behaves like breadth-first search
- for W = 1, behaves like  $A^*$
- for  $W \to \infty$ , behaves like greedy best-first search

## Properties:

- one of the most commonly used algorithms for satisficing planning
- for W > 1, can prove similar properties to A\*, replacing optimal with bounded suboptimal: generated solutions are at most a factor W as long as optimal ones



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## Hill-climbing

 $\sigma := make-root-node(init())$ 

### forever:

- $\begin{array}{l} \text{if is-goal(state(\sigma)):} \\ \text{return } \text{extract-solution}(\sigma) \\ \Sigma' := \{ \text{make-node}(\sigma, o, s) \mid \langle o, s \rangle \in \texttt{succ}(\text{state}(\sigma)) \} \\ \sigma := \text{an element of } \Sigma' \text{ minimizing } h \text{ (random tie breaking)} \end{array}$
- can easily get stuck in local minima where immediate improvements of  $h(\sigma)$  are not possible
- many variations: tie-breaking strategies, restarts

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## Enforced hill-climbing: procedure improve

```
def improve(\sigma_0):
      queue := new fifo-queue
      queue.push-back(\sigma_0)
      closed := \emptyset
      while not queue.empty():
            \sigma = queue.pop-front()
            if state(\sigma) \notin closed:
                  closed := closed \cup {state(\sigma)}
                  if h(\sigma) < h(\sigma_0):
                        return \sigma
                  for each (o, s) \in \text{succ}(\text{state}(\sigma)):
                        \sigma' := \text{make-node}(\sigma, o, s)
                        queue.push-back(\sigma')
```

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### fail

 $\rightsquigarrow$  breadth-first search for more promising node than  $\sigma_0$ 

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## Enforced hill-climbing

 $\sigma := make-root-node(init())$ while not is-goal(state( $\sigma$ )):  $\sigma := improve(\sigma)$ return extract-solution( $\sigma$ )

- one of the three most commonly used algorithms for satisficing planning
- can fail if procedure improve fails (when the goal is unreachable from  $\sigma_0$ )
- complete for undirected search spaces (where the successor relation is symmetric) if  $h(\sigma) = 0$  for all goal nodes and only for goal nodes



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### distinguish: planning states, search states, search nodes

planning state: situation in the world modelled by the task
 search state: subproblem remaining to be solved

- In state-space search (usually progression search), planning states and search states are identical.
- In regression search, search states usually describe sets of states ("subgoals").

search node: search state + info on "how we got there"

search algorithms mainly differ in order of node expansion

- uninformed vs. informed (heuristic) search
- local vs. systematic search

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Summary

- heuristics: estimators for "distance to goal node"
  - usually: the more accurate, the better performance
  - desiderata: safe, goal-aware, admissible, consistent
  - the ideal: perfect heuristic h\*
- most common algorithms for satisficing planning:
  - greedy best-first search
  - weighted A\*
  - enforced hill-climbing
- most common algorithm for optimal planning:

■ A\*