| Where Do Heuristics Come From ? |
| :---: |
| (Using Abstraction to Speed Up Search) |

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Full set of slides and list of papers referenced is available at: http://www.cs.ualberta.ca/~holte/Heuristics

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## The Big Idea

Create a simplified version of your problem.
Use the exact distances in the simplified version as heuristic estimates in the original.


## Puzzles

- Rubik's Cube (Korf, 1997)
- $10^{19}$ states
- First random problems ever solved optimally by a general-purpose search algorithm
- Hardest took 17 CPU-days
- Best known MD-like heuristic would have taken a CPU-century
- 15-puzzle
- $10^{13}$ states
- Average solution time 0.021 seconds, with only 36,000 nodes expanded


## Parsing

- Klein \& Manning (2003)
- Used $\mathrm{A}^{*}$ to find the most probable parse of a sentence.
- A "state" is a partial parse, $\mathrm{g}(\mathrm{s})$ is the "cost" of the parsing completed in $\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{h}(\mathrm{s})$ estimates the "cost" of completing the parse.
- The heuristic is defined by simplifying the grammar, and is precomputed and stored in a lookup table.
- Special purpose code was written to compute the heuristic.
- Eliminates $96 \%$ of the work done by exhaustive parsing.


## Dynamic Programming - SSR

- State Space Relaxation = mapping a state space onto another state space of smaller cardinality.
- Christofides, Mingozzi, and Toth (1981)
- Abstraction: very general definition and several different examples of abstractions for TSP and routing problems.
- Implemented but not thoroughly tested.
- Noted that the effectiveness of this method depends on how the problem is formulated.
- Did not anticipate creating a hierarchy of abstractions.


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## Weighted Logic Programs

- Felzenszwalb \& McAllester (unpublished)
- Generalizes the statistical parsing and dynamic programming methods to the problem of finding a least-cost derivation of a set of statements (the "goal") given a set of weighted inference rules.
- Inference at multiple levels of abstraction is interleaved.
- Application: finding salient contours in an image. MACHINE LEARNING


## QoS Network Routing

- Li, Harms \& Holte (2005)
- Find a least-cost path from start to goal subject to resource constraints.
- Each edge in the network has a cost and consumes some amount of resources.
- There are separate $h(s)$ functions for the cost and for each type of resource.
- $h_{r}(s)$ is defined as the minimum cost of reaching the goal from state s subject only to constraints on resource $r$.


## Sequential Ordering Problem

- Hernadvolgyi (2003)
- S.O.P. is the Travelling Salesman Problem with:
- Asymmetric costs
- Precedence constraints (must visit city A before city B)


## Co-operative Pathfinding

- Silver (2005)
- Many agents, each trying to get from its current position to its goal position.
- Co-operative = agents want each other to succeed and will plan paths accordingly.
- Need a very efficient algorithm (because in computer games very little CPU time is allocated to pathfinding).



## Vertex Cover

- Felner, Korf \& Hanan (2004)
- fastest known algorithm for finding the smallest subset of vertices that includes at least one endpoint for every edge in the given graph .


## Multiple Sequence Alignment

- Korf \& Zhang (2000)
- McNaughton, Lu, Schaeffer \& Szafron (2002)
- Zhou \& Hansen (AAAI, 2004)
- Sets of $N$ sequences are optimally aligned according to a mismatch scoring matrix.
- The heuristic is to find optimal matches of disjoint subsets of size $\mathrm{k}<\mathrm{N}$ and add their scores.


## Building Macro-Tables

- Hernadvolgyi (2001)
- A macro-table is an ultra-efficient way of constructing suboptimal solutions to problems that can be decomposed into a sequence of subgoals.
- For the $\mathrm{j}^{\text {th }}$ subgoal, and every possible state that satisfies subgoals $1 \ldots(\mathrm{j}-1)$, the macro-table has an entry - a sequence of operators that maps the state to a state satisfying subgoals $1 \ldots . . j$.
- Solutions are built by concatenating entries from the macro-table.
- Constructing the table is the challenge. Each entry is found by search. Heuristics are needed to find optimal entries in reasonable time.


## Planning

- Edelkamp, 2001
- Bonet \& Geffner, 2001
- Haslum \& Geffner, 2000
- Abstraction is computed automatically given a declarative state space definition.
- Has been used successfully with a variety of different abstraction methods and search techniques. Some guarantee optimal solutions, many do not.

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## Constrained Optimization

- Kask \& Dechter (2001)
- Mini-bucket elimination (MBE) provides an optimistic bound on solution cost, and therefore can be used to compute an admissible heuristic for $\mathrm{A}^{*}$, branch-and-bound, etc.
- MBE relaxes constraints. The objective function $\min _{\{\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{c},\{ }\{\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b})+\mathrm{g}(\mathrm{b}, \mathrm{c})\}$ is relaxed to $\left.\min _{\{a, b\}\}}\{\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b})\right\}+\min _{\{\mathrm{b}, \mathrm{c}\}}\{\mathrm{g}(\mathrm{b}, \mathrm{c})\}$, in effect dropping the constraint that the two values of $b$ be equal.
- Applications include max-CSP and calculating the most probable explanation of observations in a Bayesian network.


## Prehistory: Two Key Ideas

## Using Lower Bounds to Prune Search

1958: branch-and-bound
1966 (Doran \& Michie): Graph Traverser, first use of estimated distance-to-goal to guide state space search.
1968 (Hart, Nilsson, Raphael): A*
Using Abstraction to Guide Search
1963 (Minsky): abstraction=simplified problem

> + refinement

1974 (Sacerdoti): ABSTRIPS
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## Somalvico \& colleagues (1976-79)

- Brought together the two key ideas.
- Proposed mechanically generating an abstract space by dropping preconditions.
- Proved this would produce admissible, monotone heuristics.
- Envisaged a hierarchy of abstract levels, with search at one level guided by a heuristic defined by distances at the level above.



## Edge Supergraph



- Relaxing preconditions introduces additional edges between states and might add new states (by making a state reachable that is not reachable with the original preconditions).
- e.g. there is no edge from $X$ to $Y$ because of a precondition. If it is relaxed, there is an edge.


## Gaschnig (1979)

- Proposed that the cost of solutions in space $S$ could be estimated by the exact cost of solutions in auxiliary space T .
- Estimates are admissible if $T$ is an edge supergraph of $S$.
- Observes: "If T is solved by searching this could consume more time than solving in S directly with breadth-first search."
- T should be supplied with an efficient solver


## Valtorta $(1980,1984)$

- Proved that Gaschnig was right!
- Theorem: If T is an edge supergraph of S, and distances in T are computed by BFS, and $\mathrm{A}^{*}$ with distances in T as its heuristic is used to solve problem $P$, then for any $s \in S$ that is necessarily expanded if BFS is used to solve $P$, either:
$-s$ is expanded by $A^{*}$ in $S$, or
$-s$ is expanded by BFS in $T$


## Pearl (1984)

- Famous book, Heuristics
- Popularized the idea that heuristics could very often be defined as exact costs to "relaxed" versions of a problem.
- To be efficiently computable, the heuristics should be semi-decomposable.
- Proposed searching through the space of relaxations for semi-decomposable ones.


## Mostow \& Prieditis (1989)

- ABSOLVER, implemented the idea of searching through the space of abstractions AND speed-up transformations.
- Reiterated that computing a heuristic by search at the abstract level is generally ineffective.
- Had a library with a variety of abstractions and speedups, not just "relax" and "factor".
- First successful automatic system for generating effective heuristics.
- Emphasized that success depends on having the right problem formulation to start with.


## Mostow \& Prieditis cont'd

- When a good abstraction is found, ABSOLVER calls itself recursively to create a hierarchy of abstractions, in order to speedup the computation of the heuristic.

Added in 1993 (Prieditis):
To make a heuristic "effective" precompute all the heuristic values before base-level search begins and store them in a hash table (today called a "pattern database").

## Hansson, Mayer, Valtorta (1992)

- Generalized Valtorta's theorem to show that a hierarchy of abstractions created by relaxing preconditions was no use.
- Pseudocode for Hierarchical A*.


## Using Memory to Speed Up Search

- 1985 (Korf): IDA*
- 1989 (Chakrabarti et al.): MA*
- 1992 (Russell): IE, SMA*
- 1994 (Dillenburg \& Nelson): Perimeter Search
- 1994 (Reinefeld \& Marsland): Enhanced IDA*
- 1994 (Ghosh, Mahanti \& Nau): ITS


## Culberson \& Schaeffer (1996)

- 1994: technical report with full algorithm and results for pattern databases (PDB)
- 1996: first published account of PDBs
- Impressive results: 1000x faster than Manhattan Distance on the 15-puzzle.
- Several good ideas:
- A general and effective type of abstraction
- Efficiently precomputing and storing all the abstract distances
- Exploiting problem symmetry
- "Dovetailing" two PDBs


## Holte (1996)

- 1994: published the Hierarchical $\mathrm{A}^{*}$ idea.
- 1996: published working HA* algorithm, generalized Valtorta's Theorem to all kinds of abstractions, and showed (theoretically and experimentally) that speedup was possible with Hierarchical Heuristic Search if homomorphic abstractions are used.



## Finer-grained Domain Abstraction



## Possible Domain Abstractions

- Easy to enumerate all possible domain abstractions

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Domain = blank } 1 \begin{array}{llllllll}
2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\
\text { Abstract = blank }
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
$$

- They form a lattice, e.g.

```
Domain= blank 12 345678
Abstract = blank प| | प प| प व
```

is "more abstract" than the domain abstraction above

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## The Arrow Puzzle


operator A: flip Arrow1, flip Arrow2 operator B: flip Arrow2, flip Arrow3 operator C: flip Arrow3, flip Arrow4 operator D: flip Arrow4, flip Arrow5

## Solve a Subproblem

Solve any 4-arrow subproblem, e.g.


For many problems this will reduce the state space exponentially while only reducing the solution lengths linearly, so heuristics are accurate and quick to calculate.

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## Projection

Towers of Hanoi puzzle
Remove all references to Arrow4

operator A: flip Arrow1, flip Arrow2 operator B: flip Arrow2, flip Arrow3 operator C: flip Arrow3 operator D:
flip Arrow5


## 3-disk TOH State Space



## Spoiled for Choice

- Any way of doing any of these methods produces an admissible and consistent heuristic.
- Moreover, domain abstraction and


## Choosing Good Abstractions

## Abstract State $=$ Group of States

 projection produce different heuristics when applied to different encodings of the search space.

- And, the techniques can be used in combination with one another.



## Korf \& Reid (1998)

- Total nodes expanded $=\sum_{N(j)}{ }^{*} \mathrm{P}(\mathrm{j}, \mathrm{d}-\mathrm{j})$
$-N(j)=\#$ nodes at level $j$ in the brute-force tree
- $P(j, x)=\%$ of nodes, $n$, at level $j$ with $h(n) \leq x$
- $N(j) \approx b^{j}$
( b is the branching factor in the brute force tree)
- $\quad \mathrm{P}(\mathrm{j}, \mathrm{d}-\mathrm{j}) \approx$ ???
- for a pattern database (defined in a few slides) this can be computed exactly*

> | * assuming every entry in the PDB represents the same number of states |
| :--- |
| and that $j$ can be ignored |

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## Prediction of Search Time (A*)



## Good, Easy-to-Compute Measures

- average value in a Pattern Database
- the value of $h($ start $)$
- When there are non-identical edge costs:

Aim to minimize the discrepancy of the costs of edges that get merged.


## Two Main Approaches

- Pattern Databases
- all possible h(s) values calculated in advance, in a preprocessing step
- Culberson \& Schaeffer (1996)
- Hierarchical Heuristic Search
- $h(s)$ values calculated on demand
- Holte et al. (1996), Hierarchical A*
- Holte et al. (2005), Hierarchical IDA*

Calculating h(s)

Given a state, s | 8 | 1 | 4 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3 |  | 5 |
| 6 | 7 | 2 |

Compute the corresponding abstract state, $\varphi(\mathrm{s})$

$\mathrm{h}(\mathrm{s})=\operatorname{distance}(\varphi(\mathrm{s}), \varphi($ goal $))=2$
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## Pattern Databases

- Enumerate the entire abstract space as a preprocessing step (e.g. by breadth-first search backwards from $\varphi$ (goal)).
- Store distance-to-goal for every abstract state in a lookup table (PDB).
- During search in the original state space, $\mathrm{h}(\mathrm{s})$ is computed by a lookup in the PDB.


## Hierarchical Heuristic Search

## Code Comparison

PDB has this line:

$$
\mathrm{h}(\mathrm{~s})=\operatorname{PDB}[\varphi(\mathrm{s})]
$$

Hierarchical Heuristic Search has:

- Need to cache all information about abstract distance-to-goal and reuse, otherwise this will be hopelessly inefficient.

$$
h(s)=\operatorname{search}(\varphi(s), \varphi(\text { goal }))
$$

Hierarchical Heuristic Search


## Comparison - Time

- Pattern Databases
- Large preprocessing time
- 15-puzzle: 3 hours*
- TopSpin: 50 minutes*
- Very fast h(s) computation during search - 15-puzzle instance solved in 0.028 seconds (avg)
- Hierarchical Heuristic Search
- No preprocessing time
- Relatively slow $h(s)$ computation

Times are for the best-performing PDBs. Smaller PDBs take less time to build but take correspondingly longer to solve problems.

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## Comparison - Memory

- Pattern Databases
- Perfect hash function
- No empty hash table entries
- Each entry stores only a distance (15-puzzle: 1 byte)
- Only a tiny fraction of entries are needed to solve an individual search problem
- Hierarchical Heuristic Search
- Imperfect hash function (15-puzzle: 8 bytes)
- Multiple levels of abstraction, not just one
- Only store entries needed to solve the given problem


## \%PDB Entries Actually Needed

| State Space | PDB size <br> (000s) | \#needed <br> $(000 \mathrm{~s})$ | $\%$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | :---: |
| 15-puzzle | $4,151,347$ | 2,657 | 0.06 |
| Macro-15 | $4,151,347$ | 787 | 0.02 |
| (17,4)-TopSpin | 57,657 | 3,423 | 5.9 |
| 14-Pancake | 17,297 | 229 | 1.3 |

## When to Use Each Approach?

- If the same abstraction can be used to solve many problems, use PDB.
- If there is only one problem to solve, or a small batch of problems, use Hierarchical Heuristic Search.


# Implementation Issues 

## Pattern Databases

- Ideally, use a perfect hashing function.
- More memory is needed to create the PDB than to store it, because of the Open and Closed lists needed for breadth-first search.
- may need to use a disk-based implementation of breadth-first search (Korf's DDD) and other space-saving measures such as Frontier search.


## Perfect Hashing Function

- Every time a state, s, is generated need to lookup $\mathrm{h}(\mathrm{s})$ in the pattern database.
- $\operatorname{PDB}[\varphi(\mathrm{s})]$ really is

PDB[hash $(\varphi(\mathrm{s}))]$
where hash( x ) maps an abstract state, x , to an integer in the range $0 \ldots$ (PDBsize-1).

- Because it is used so often, hash(x) needs to be as efficient as possible.
- We also want it to be perfect so that PDBsize can equal the number of abstract states with no collisions.


## Perfect Hashing of Permutations

- Often a state (base-level, not abstract) is a permutation, e.g. the 15-puzzle*.
- Myrvold \& Ruskey (2001) give an algorithm for mapping a permutation on N values to an integer $0 \ldots(\mathrm{~N}!-1)$ and the inverse mapping.
- Both are $\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{N})$. (for the 15 -puzzle, $\mathrm{N}=16$ ).
- Their mapping does not give lexicographic order (see Korf 2005 if you want this).
Only half of the 16 ! states of the 15 -puzzle are reachable so for a truly perfect hash function the last two constants have to be treated as justone.

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## Myrvold \& Ruskey Hash Function

given state S , an array indexed by $0 \ldots(\mathrm{~N}-1)$ containing the values $0 \ldots(\mathrm{~N}-1)$.

1. initialize array $\mathrm{W}^{*}, \mathrm{~W}[\mathrm{~S}[\mathrm{i}]]=\mathrm{i}$ for $0 \leq i \leq(\mathrm{N}-1)$
2. perfect hash index for $S=$ HASH ( $\mathbf{N}, \mathbf{S}, \mathrm{W}$ )

## HASH (N, S, W) :

1. IF ( $\mathrm{N}==1$ ) RETURN ( 0 )
2. $D=S[N-1]$
3. SWAP ( $S[N-1], S[W[N-1]])$
4. SWAP ( W[N-1], W[D] )
5. RETURN ( $\mathrm{D}+\mathrm{N} * \mathrm{HASH}(\mathrm{N}-1, \mathrm{~S}, \mathrm{~W})$ )

* W stands for "where". W[v] is the location of $v$ in $S$

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## Hashing Abstract States

- An abstract state has the same number of locations ( N ) as a state but only K of them contain distinct values $\mathrm{V}_{1} \ldots \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{K}}$, the rest of the locations contain "don't care".
- The array $S$, in this case, is indexed by $0 \ldots(\mathrm{~N}-1)$, and $\mathrm{S}[\mathrm{N}-\mathrm{a}]$ contains the location of value $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{a}}$ when $1 \leq a \leq K$. $\mathrm{S}[0] \ldots \mathrm{S}[\mathrm{N}-\mathrm{K}-1]$ contain the locations of the "don't cares".
- Use the Myrvold \& Ruskey hash function but stop the recursion after K iterations.



## Hierarchical Heuristic Search

- To get high performance, the Hierarchical Search algorithm is more complex than the naïve version described earlier.
- "optimal path caching"
- "P-g caching"
- Various code \& data structure optimizations
- Selecting abstractions and cache sizes is not automatic, and is non-trivial



## Optimal Path Caching



## P-g Caching



[^0]
## Max'ing Multiple Heuristics

- Given heuristics h1 and h2 define
h(s) = max (h1(s), h2(s) )
- Preserves key properties:
- lower bound
- consistency
- Given a fixed amount of memory, M, which gives the best heuristic?
- 1 pattern database (PDB) of size M
- max'ing 2 PDBs of size M/2
- max'ing 3 PDBs of size M/3
- etc.


## Question

## Rubik's Cube*

| PDB Size | $\mathbf{n}$ | Nodes Generated |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $13,305,600$ | 8 | $2,654,689$ |
| $17,740,800$ | 6 | $\mathbf{2 , 6 3 9}, 969$ |
| $26,611,200$ | 4 | $3,096,919$ |
| $53,222,400$ | 2 | $5,329,829$ |
| $106,444,800$ | 1 | $\mathbf{6 1 , 4 6 5 , 5 4 1}$ |

## Rubik's Cube CPU Time

| \#PDBs | Nodes Ratio | Time Ratio |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 8 | 23.15 | 12.09 |
| 6 | 23.28 | 14.31 |
| 4 | 19.85 | 13.43 |
| 2 | 11.53 | 9.87 |
| 1 | 1.00 | 1.00 |

time/node is 1.67 x higher using six PDBs

## Why Does Max'ing Speed Up Search ?



## Example of Max Failing

| Depth Bound | h1 | h2 | $\boldsymbol{m a x}(\mathbf{h 1 , h 2})$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 8 | 19 | 17 | 10 |
| 9 |  | 36 | 16 |
| 10 | 59 | 78 | 43 |
| 11 |  | 110 | 53 |
| 12 | 142 | 188 | 96 |
| 13 |  | 269 | 124 |
| 14 | 440 | 530 | 314 |
| 15 |  | 801 | 400 |
| 16 | 1,045 | 1,348 | 816 |
| 17 |  | 1,994 | 949 |
| 18 | 2,679 | 3,622 | 2,056 |
| 19 |  | 5,480 | 2,435 |
| 20 | 1,197 | $\mathbf{1 , 8 3 9}$ | $\mathbf{8 2 0}$ |
| TOTAL | $\mathbf{5 , 5 8 1}$ | $\mathbf{1 6 , 3 1 2}$ | $\mathbf{8 , 1 3 2}$ |

## Squeezing More into Memory

## Approaches

- Compress an individual Pattern Database
- Lossless compression
- Lossy compression must maintain admissibility
- Allows you to
- use a PDB bigger than will fit in memory
- use multiple PDBs instead of just one
- Merge two PDBs into one the same size - Culberson \& Schaeffer's dovetailing

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## Compression Results

- 16-disk 4-peg TOH, PDB based on 14 disks - No compression: 256Megs memory, 14.3 secs
- lossless compression: 256k memory, 23.8 secs


## Additive Pattern Databases

- 15-puzzle, additive PDB triple (7-7-1)
- No compression: 537Megs memory, 0.069 secs
- Lossy compression, two PDB triples

537Megs memory, 0.021 secs

## Adding instead of Max'ing

- Under some circumstances it is possible to add the values from two PDBs instead of just max'ing them and still have an admissible heuristic.
- This is advantageous because*

$$
h_{1}(s)+h_{2}(s) \geq \max \left(h_{1}(s), h_{2}(s)\right)
$$



## Manhattan Distance Heuristic

For a sliding-tile puzzle, Manhattan Distance looks at each tile individually, counts how many moves it is away from its goal position, and adds up these numbers.


## M.D. as Additive PDBs (1)

$\varphi_{1}(x)=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}x & \text { if } x=1 \\ \text { blank } & \text { otherwise }\end{array}\right.$

$\varphi_{1}$ (goal)

$\varphi_{1}(\mathrm{~s})$

```
PD\mp@subsup{B}{1}{}[\mp@subsup{\varphi}{1}{}(\mathbf{s})]=2
```

$\mathrm{MD}(\mathrm{s})=\mathrm{PDB}_{1}\left[\varphi_{1}(\mathrm{~s})\right]$ $+\operatorname{PDB}_{2}\left[\varphi_{2}(\mathrm{~s})\right]$
$+\operatorname{PDB}_{3}\left[\varphi_{3}(\mathrm{~s})\right]$

## Korf \& Felner's Method

Partition the tiles in groups, $G_{1}, G_{2}, \ldots G_{k}$

$$
\varphi_{i}(x)=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
x & \text { if } x \in G_{i} \\
\text { blank } & \text { if } x=\text { blank } \\
\square & \text { otherwise }
\end{array}\right.
$$

Moves of $\quad \square$ cost zero

## Compared to Max'ing

- If the PDBs were going to be max'd instead of added, we would count all the moves in all the PDBs.
- Therefore the PDBs for adding have


## Customized PDBs

 smaller entries than the corresponding PDBs for max'ing.- In initial experiments on the 15-puzzle, max'ing returns a higher value than adding for about $12 \%$ of the states.


## Space-Efficient PDBs

- Zhou \& Hansen (AAAI, 2004)
- Do not generate PDB entries that are provably not needed to solve the given problem.
- Prune abstract state $A$ if $f(A)>U$, where $U$ is an upper bound on the solution cost at the base level.
- To work well, needs a heuristic to guide the abstract search and a fairly tight $U$.
- Even then requires significantly more memory than Hierarchical IDA*.


## Reverse Resumable A*

- Silver, 2005
- Aims to minimize the number of PDB entries
- Backward search from abstract goal stops when abstract start is reached
- If $h(x)$ is needed and has not been computed, resume the abstract search until you get it.
- Requires abstract Open and Closed lists.


## Super-Customization

- If customizing an abstraction for a given start state is a good idea, wouldn't it be even better to change abstractions in the middle of


## Related Algorithm - CFPD

 the search space to exploit local properties ?- This does pay off sometimes, even for PDBs:
- Felner, Korf \& Hanan (2004)
- Hernadvolgyi (2003; also PhD thesis, chapter 5)


## CFDP

- Coarse-to-Fine Dynamic Programming
- Works on continuous or discrete spaces.
- Most easily explained if space is a trellis (level structure).
- Abstraction = grouping states on the same level.
- Multiple levels of abstraction.
- Resembles refinement, but guaranteed to find optimal solution.
- Application: finding optimal convex region boundaries in an image.


## CFDP - Example




## CFDP - Abstract Edges




## CFDP - Refine Optimal Path



## CFDP - Refine Again



## CFDP - Final Iteration




[^0]:    P = solution length
    $\mathrm{g}=$ distance from S to X .
    P-g never overestimates distance from $X$ to $G$
    cache $[\mathrm{X}]=\max ($ cache $[\mathrm{X}], \mathrm{P}-\mathrm{g})$

