

Learning Domain-Independent Planning Heuristics with Hypergraph Networks

William Shen¹, Felipe Trevizan², Sylvie Thiébaux²

^{1,2}The Australian National University

¹william.w.y.shen@gmail.com ²first.last@anu.edu.au

Abstract

We present the first approach capable of learning domain-independent planning heuristics entirely from scratch. The heuristics we learn map the hypergraph representation of the delete-relaxation of the planning problem at hand, to a cost estimate that approximates that of the least-cost path from the current state to the goal through the hypergraph. We generalise Graph Networks to obtain a new framework for learning over hypergraphs, which we specialise to learn planning heuristics by training over state/value pairs obtained from optimal cost plans. Our experiments show that the resulting architecture, STRIPS-HGNs, is capable of learning heuristics that are competitive with existing delete-relaxation heuristics including LM-cut. We show that the heuristics we learn are able to generalise across different problems and domains, including to domains that were not seen during training.

1 Introduction

Despite the prevalence of deep learning for perception tasks in computer vision and natural language processing, its application to problem solving tasks, such as planning, is still in its infancy. The majority of deep learning approaches to planning use conventional architectures designed for perception tasks, rely on hand-engineering features or encoding planning problems as images, and do not learn knowledge that generalises beyond planning with a different initial state or goal (Buffet and Aberdeen 2009; Arfae, Zilles, and Holte 2010; Groshev et al. 2018). One exception is Action Schema Networks (ASNs) (Toyer et al. 2018; 2020), a neural network architecture which exploits the relational structure of a given planning domain described in (P)PDDL, to learn generalised policies applicable to problems of any size within the domain.

The motivation of our work is to go even further than architectures such as ASNs, and learn to plan – or at least to guide the search for a plan – independently of the domain considered. In particular, we consider the problem of learning domain-independent heuristics that generalise not only across states, goals, and object sets, but also across domains.

We focus on the well-known class of delete-relaxation heuristics for propositional STRIPS planning (Bonet and

Geffner 2001; Helmert and Domshlak 2009), of which h^{max} , h^{add} , and LM-cut are popular examples. These heuristics can be seen as the least-cost path in the hypergraph representing the delete-relaxed problem for a suitable aggregation function. The vertices of this hypergraph represent the problem’s propositions and the hyperedges represent actions connecting their preconditions to their positive effects. We can therefore frame the problem of learning domain-independent heuristics as that of learning a mapping from the hypergraph representation of the delete-relaxed problem (and basic problem features) to a cost estimate. To develop and evaluate this hypergraph learning framework, we make three contributions:

1. Hypergraph Networks (HGNs), our novel framework which generalises Graph Networks (Battaglia et al. 2018) to hypergraphs. The HGN framework may be used to design new hypergraph deep learning models, and inherently supports combinatorial generalisation to hypergraphs with different numbers of vertices and hyperedges.

2. STRIPS-HGNs, an instance of a HGN which is designed to learn heuristics by approximating least-cost paths over the hypergraph induced by the delete relaxation of a STRIPS problem. STRIPS-HGNs use a powerful recurrent encode-process-decode architecture which allows them to incrementally propagate messages within the hypergraph in latent space.

3. A detailed empirical evaluation, which rigorously defines the Hypergraph Network configurations and training procedure we use in our experiments. We train and evaluate our STRIPS-HGNs on a variety of domains and show that they are able learn domain-specific, multi-domain and domain-independent heuristics which potentially outperform h^{max} , h^{add} , and LM-cut.

As far as we are aware, this is the first work to learn domain-independent heuristics completely from scratch. Our implementation of STRIPS-HGN along with the training/test problems we used are available online¹.

2 Related Work

There is a large body of literature on learning for planning. Jimenez et al. (2012) and Toyer et al. (2020) provide ex-

¹<https://github.com/williamshen-nz/STRIPS-HGN>

cellent surveys on these existing approaches. Due to space limitations, we focus on deep learning (DL) approaches to planning which differ in what they learn, the features and architectures they use, and the generality they confer.

What is learned? Existing DL approaches may be split into four categories: learning *domain descriptions* (Say et al. 2017; Asai and Fukunaga 2018), *policies* (Buffet and Aberdeen 2009; Toyer et al. 2018; Groshev et al. 2018; Issakkimuthu, Fern, and Tadepalli 2018; Garg, Bajpai, and Mausam 2019), *heuristics* (Samadi, Felner, and Schaeffer 2008; Arfaee, Zilles, and Holte 2010; Thayer, Dionne, and Ruml 2011; Garrett, Kaelbling, and Lozano-Pérez 2016), and *planner selection* (Sievers et al. 2019; Ma et al. 2020). Our work is concerned with learning heuristics. One of the key differences of our approach with the existing state-of-the-art is that we learn heuristics from scratch instead of improving or combining existing heuristics. That said, STRIPS-HGNS are also suitable to learn heuristic improvements or combinations, and with some adaptations, to learn actions rankings; however, we have not experimented with these settings.

Features and Architectures. Most existing DL approaches to planning use standard architectures, and rely on hand-engineered features or encodings of planning problems as images. For instance, Sievers et al. (2019) train Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) over graphical representations of planning problems converted into images, to determine which planner should be invoked for a planning task. Ma et al. (2020) show that Graph Neural Networks (GNNs) built from these graphical representations obviate the need for image conversion, provide better inference and further improve planner selection. We demonstrate that these advantages can also be obtained when learning heuristics.

For learning generalised policies and heuristics, Groshev et al. (2018) train CNNs and GNNs with images obtained via a domain-specific hand-coded problem conversion. In contrast, our approach does not require hand-coded features and instead learns latent features directly from a rich hypergraph representation of the planning problem.

Another approach is ASNets (Toyer et al. 2018), a neural network architecture dedicated to planning, composed of alternating action and proposition layers which are sparsely connected according to the relational structure of the action schemas in a (P)PDDL domain. A disadvantage of ASNets is its fixed receptive field which limits its capability to support long chains of reasoning. Our STRIPS-HGNS architecture does not have such an intrinsic receptive field limitation.

Generalisation. Existing approaches and architectures for learning policies and heuristics have limited generalisation capabilities. Many generalise to problems with different initial states and goals, but not to problems with different sets or numbers of objects. Exceptions include ASNets, whose weight sharing scheme allows generalisation to problems of any size from a given (P)PDDL domain, and TRAPSNET (Garg, Bajpai, and Mausam 2019), whose graph attention network can be transferred between different numbers of objects in an RDDDL domain. As our experiments show, not only does STRIPS-HGNS support generalisation across problem sizes, but it also supports learning domain-independent heuristics that generalise to domains that were not seen during training.

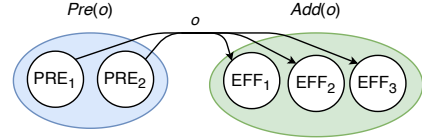


Figure 1: Our formulation of a hyperedge for an action $o \in O$ with 2 preconditions and 3 add-effects. The preconditions are the ‘senders’, while the add-effects are the ‘receivers’.

3 Planning Heuristics

We are concerned with classical planning problems represented in propositional STRIPS (Fikes and Nilsson 1971). Such a problem is a tuple $P = \langle F, O, I, G, c \rangle$ where F is the set of propositions; O is the set of actions; $I \subseteq F$ represents the initial state; $G \subseteq F$ represents the set of goal states; and $c(o)$ is the cost of action $o \in O$. Each action $o \in O$ is defined as a triple $\langle Pre(o), Add(o), Del(o) \rangle$ where the precondition $Pre(o)$ is the set of propositions which must be true in order for o to be applied, while the add- and delete-effects $Add(o)$ and $Del(o)$ are the sets of propositions which the action makes true and false, respectively, when applied.

A solution plan $\pi = o_1, \dots, o_n$ for a STRIPS problem is a sequence of applicable actions leading from the initial state to the goal, i.e., π induces a sequence of states s_1, \dots, s_{n+1} such that $s_1 = I$, $G \subseteq s_{n+1}$, and for all $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ $s_{i+1} = (s_i \setminus Del(o_i)) \cup Add(o_i)$ and $Pre(o_i) \subseteq s_i$. The cost of a plan is the sum of the costs of its actions $\sum_{i \in \{1, \dots, n\}} c(o_i)$. An optimal plan is a plan which has minimum cost.

Heuristics. Let $\mathcal{S} \subseteq 2^F$ be the state space. A heuristic function $h: \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ provides an estimate of the cost to reach a goal state from a state s , allowing a search algorithm to focus on promising parts of the state space. The perfect heuristic $h^*(s)$ is the heuristic that gives the cost of the optimal plan to reach a goal state from s . A heuristic h is admissible iff it never overestimates this optimal cost, i.e., $h(s) \leq h^*(s) \forall s \in \mathcal{S}$, and is inadmissible otherwise. Many heuristics are obtained by approximating the cost of the optimal plan for a relaxation of the original problem P . A well-known relaxation, the *delete-relaxation* P^+ of P is obtained by ignoring the delete-effects $Del(o)$ of all actions in P , i.e., $P^+ = \langle F, O', I, G, c \rangle$, where $O' = \{ \langle Pre(o), Add(o), \emptyset \rangle \mid o \in O \}$. This works considering three baseline domain-independent heuristics which are based on the delete-relaxation: h^{max} (admissible), h^{add} (inadmissible) (Bonet and Geffner 2001), and the Landmark-Cut heuristic (admissible) (Helmert and Domshlak 2009).

Hypergraph Induced by the Delete-Relaxation. A hypergraph is a generalisation of a graph in which a hyperedge may connect any number of vertices together. Clearly, a delete-relaxed problem P^+ induces a directed hypergraph, whose vertices represent the set of propositions F and whose hyperedges represent the set of delete-relaxed actions O' . Each hyperedge links the preconditions $Pre(o)$ of an action $o \in O'$ to its add-effects $Add(o)$. An example of a hyperedge for a delete-relaxed STRIPS action is depicted in Figure 1.

4 Hypergraph Networks

Hypergraph Networks (HGNs) is our generalisation of the Graph Networks (Battaglia et al. 2018) framework to hypergraphs. HGNs may be used to represent and extend existing DL models including CNNs, graph neural networks, and state-of-the-art hypergraph neural networks. We will not explore HGNs in great detail, as it is not the focus of this paper. We refer the reader to (Shen 2019) for more information.

Hypergraph Definition. A directed hypergraph in the HGN framework is defined as a triple $G = (\mathbf{u}, V, E)$ where: \mathbf{u} represents the hypergraph-level (global) features; $V = \{\mathbf{v}_i : i \in \{1, \dots, N^v\}\}$ is the set of N^v vertices where \mathbf{v}_i represents the i -th vertex’s features; and $E = \{(\mathbf{e}_k, R_k, S_k) : k \in \{1, \dots, N^e\}\}$ is the set of N^e hyperedges, where \mathbf{e}_k represents the k -th hyperedge’s features, R_k is the vertex set which contains the indices of the vertices that are in the head of the k -th hyperedge (i.e., receivers), and S_k is the vertex set which contains the indices of the vertices that are in the tail of the k -th hyperedge (i.e., senders). This is in contrast to Graph Networks, where R_k and S_k are singletons, i.e., $|R_k| = |S_k| = 1$. Note that the hypergraph itself is not an input feature: it is the structure over which information is propagated and over which we learn.

Hypergraph Network Block. A Hypergraph Network (HGN) block is a hypergraph-to-hypergraph function which forms the core building block of a HGN. The internal structure of a HGN block consists of a number of update and aggregation functions. Update functions are used to update the latent representation of vertices, hyperedges and global features from the features of the hypergraph elements connected to them, emulating message passing through the hypergraph. Aggregation functions are used to collect/pool features. This internal structure is identical to a Graph Network block (Battaglia et al. 2018), except now the hyperedge update function ϕ^e supports multiple receivers and senders. Formally, a *full* HGN block is composed of 3 update functions, ϕ^e , ϕ^v and ϕ^u , and 3 aggregation functions, $\rho^{e \rightarrow v}$, $\rho^{e \rightarrow u}$ and $\rho^{v \rightarrow u}$:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{e}'_k &= \phi^e(\mathbf{e}_k, \mathbf{R}_k, \mathbf{S}_k, \mathbf{u}) & \bar{\mathbf{e}}'_i &= \rho^{e \rightarrow v}(E'_i) \\ \mathbf{v}'_i &= \phi^v(\bar{\mathbf{e}}'_i, \mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{u}) & \bar{\mathbf{e}}' &= \rho^{e \rightarrow u}(E') \\ \mathbf{u}' &= \phi^u(\bar{\mathbf{e}}', \bar{\mathbf{v}}', \mathbf{u}) & \bar{\mathbf{v}}' &= \rho^{v \rightarrow u}(V') \end{aligned}$$

where $\mathbf{R}_k = \{\mathbf{v}_j : j \in R_k\}$ and $\mathbf{S}_k = \{\mathbf{v}_j : j \in S_k\}$ are the sets representing the vertex features of the receivers and senders of the k -th hyperedge, respectively. Additionally, for the i -th vertex, we define $E'_i = \{(\mathbf{e}'_k, R_k, S_k) : k \in \{1, \dots, N^e\} \text{ s.t. } i \in R_k\}$, $V' = \{\mathbf{v}'_i : i \in \{1, \dots, N^v\}\}$, and $E' = \bigcup_i E'_i = \{(\mathbf{e}'_k, R_k, S_k) : k \in \{1, \dots, N^e\}\}$. Essentially, E'_i represents the updated hyperedges where the i -th vertex is a receiver vertex, E' represents all the updated hyperedges, and V' represents all the updated vertices.

Computation Steps. In a single forward pass of a HGN block, the hyperedge update function ϕ^e is first applied to all hyperedges to compute per-hyperedge updates. Each updated hyperedge feature \mathbf{e}'_k is computed using the current hyperedge’s feature \mathbf{e}_k , the features of the receiver and sender vertices \mathbf{R}_k and \mathbf{S}_k , and the global features \mathbf{u} . Next, the vertex update function ϕ^v is applied to all vertices to compute per-vertex updates. Each updated vertex feature \mathbf{v}'_i is

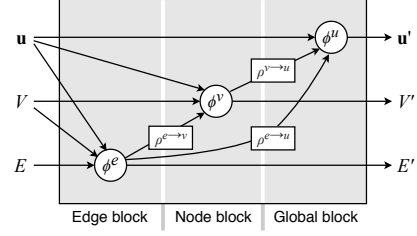


Figure 2: The full HGN block configuration which predicts global, vertex and hyperedge outputs based on the incoming global, vertex and hyperedge attributes (Figure 4a from Battaglia et al. 2018). The incoming arrows to an update function ϕ represent the inputs it receives.

computed using the aggregated information $\bar{\mathbf{e}}'_i$ from all the hyperedges the vertex ‘receives’ a signal from (i.e., of which it is a receiver), the current vertex’s feature \mathbf{v}_i , and the global features \mathbf{u} . Finally, the global update function ϕ^u is applied to compute the new global features using the aggregated information $\bar{\mathbf{e}}'$ and $\bar{\mathbf{v}}'$ from all the hyperedges and vertices in the hypergraph along with the current global features \mathbf{u} .

Configuring HGN Blocks. Each update function ϕ in a HGN block must be implemented by some function f , whose signature determines its inputs (Battaglia et al. 2018). For example, the function that implements ϕ^e in a full HGN block (Figure 2) is a function $f : (\mathbf{e}_k, \mathbf{R}_k, \mathbf{S}_k, \mathbf{u}) \mapsto \mathbf{e}'_k$ which accepts the global, vertex, and hyperedge attributes. Each function f may be implemented in any manner, as long as it accepts the input parameters and conforms to the required output. In our experiments, we implement our update functions as multilayer perceptrons (MLP). Since the input to the aggregation functions are essentially sets, each ρ must be permutation invariant to ensure that all permutations of the input give the same aggregated result. Hence ρ could, for example, be a function that takes an element-wise summation of the input, maximum, minimum, mean, etc. (Battaglia et al. 2018). In our experiments, we utilise element-wise summation.

5 STRIPS-HGNs

Given that HGN blocks are hypergraph-to-hypergraph functions, we may compose blocks sequentially and repeatedly apply them. STRIPS-HGNs is our instantiation of a HGN for learning heuristics, which composes several HGN blocks into a recurrent *encode-process-decode* architecture (Battaglia et al. 2018). In this architecture, which is detailed below, an encoder HGN block encodes the input features into latent space, a core/processing HGN block is recurrently applied to emulate ‘message passing’, and a decoder HGN block essentially performs regression to obtain a heuristic value from the latent features. The core processing block is applied recurrently, meaning the output of the block is fed in as the input to the block in the next step. That is, the same block is applied sequentially M times before being decoded. The HGN framework is used to more easily express the 3 blocks, making STRIPS-HGNs highly adaptable to different input features for each proposition and action, as well as being agnostic to the implementation of each update function.

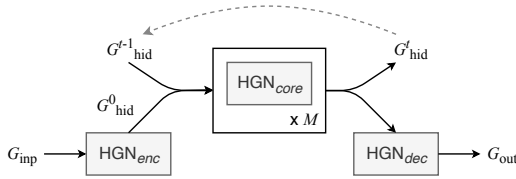


Figure 3: The recurrent encode-process-decode architecture of a STRIPS-HGN (modified from Figure 6c in Battaglia et al. 2018). The merging line for G_{hid}^0 and G_{hid}^{t-1} indicates concatenation, while the splitting lines that are output by the HGN_{core} block indicate copying (i.e., the same output is passed to different locations). The grey dotted line indicates that the output G_{hid}^t is used as input to the HGN_{core} block in the next time step $t + 1$.

Hypergraph Representation. The input to a STRIPS-HGN is a hypergraph $G_{\text{inp}} = (\mathbf{u}_{\text{inp}}, V_{\text{inp}}, E_{\text{inp}})$ which follows the hypergraph structure of the relaxed STRIPS problem $P^+ = \langle F, O', I, G, c \rangle$, and contains the input proposition and action features for the state s , where:

- $\mathbf{u}_{\text{inp}} = \emptyset$, as global features are not required as input to a STRIPS-HGN. Nevertheless, it is easy to adapt STRIPS-HGNs to support global features, e.g., we could supplement a STRIPS-HGN with a heuristic value $h(s)$ computed by another heuristic h such that the network learns an “improvement” on h .
- $V_{\text{inp}} = \{\mathbf{v}_i : i \in \{1, \dots, |F|\}\}$ contains the input features for the $|F|$ propositions in the problem. Features for a proposition could include whether it is true for the current state or goal state, and whether the proposition is a *fact landmark* for the state s (Richter and Westphal 2010).
- $E_{\text{inp}} = \{(\mathbf{e}_k, R_k, S_k) : k \in \{1, \dots, |O'|\}\}$ for the $|O'|$ actions in the relaxed problem P^+ . For an action $o \in O'$ represented by the k -th hyperedge, \mathbf{e}_k represents the input features for o (e.g., its cost $c(o)$ or whether it is in a *disjunctive action landmark* from state s) and $R_k = \text{Add}(o)$ (resp. $S_k = \text{Pre}(o)$) is the vertex set containing the indices of the vertices in the add-effects (resp. preconditions) of o .

The output of a STRIPS-HGN is a hypergraph $G_{\text{out}} = (\mathbf{u}_{\text{out}}, V_{\text{out}}, E_{\text{out}})$ where $\mathbf{u}_{\text{out}} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times 1}$ is a 1-dimensional vector representing the heuristic value for s , thus we enforce both V_{out} and E_{out} to be the empty set.

5.1 Architecture

A STRIPS-HGN is composed of three main HGN blocks: the encoding, processing (core), and decoding block. Our architecture follows a recurrent *encode-process-decode* design (Hamrick et al. 2018; Battaglia et al. 2018), as depicted in Figure 3. The input hypergraph G_{inp} is firstly encoded to a latent representation G_{hid}^0 by the encoder block HGN_{enc} at time step $t = 0$. This allows the network to operate on a richer representation of the input features in latent space.

Next, the initial latent representation of the hypergraph G_{hid}^0 is concatenated with the previous output of the processing block HGN_{core} . Initially, when HGN_{core} has not been called (i.e., at time step $t = 1$ just after G_{inp} has been

computed), G_{hid}^0 is concatenated with itself. Note that the hypergraph structure for G_{hid}^0 and G_{hid}^{t-1} is identical because the HGN blocks do not update the senders or receivers for a hyperedge. Implementation-wise, concatenating a hypergraph with another involves concatenating the features for each corresponding vertex \mathbf{v}_i together, and the features for each corresponding hyperedge \mathbf{e}_k together (the global features are not concatenated as they are not required as input to a STRIPS-HGN). This results in a broadened feature vector for each vertex and hyperedge.

The core processing block HGN_{core} , which outputs a hypergraph G_{hid}^t for each time step $t \in \{1, \dots, M\}$, is applied M times with the initial encoded hypergraph G_{hid}^0 concatenated with the previous output of HGN_{core} as the input (see Figure 3). Evidently, this results in $M - 1$ intermediate hypergraph outputs, one for each for time step $t \in \{1, \dots, M - 1\}$, and one final hypergraph for the time step $t = M$. The decoder block takes the hypergraph output by the HGN_{core} block and decodes it to the hypergraph G_{out} which contains the heuristic value for state s in the global feature \mathbf{u}_{out} . Observe that we can decode each latent hypergraph which is output by HGN_{core} to obtain a heuristic value for each time step $t \in \{1, \dots, M\}$. We use this fact to train a STRIPS-HGN by optimising the loss on the output of each time step.

Core Block Details. We can interpret a STRIPS-HGN as a message passing model which performs M steps of message passing (Gilmer et al. 2017), as the shared processing block HGN_{core} is repeated M times using a recurrent architecture. A single step of message passing is equivalent to sending a ‘signal’ from a vertex to its immediate neighbouring vertices. Although this means that a vertex only receives a ‘signal’ from other vertices at most M hops away, we theorise that this is sufficient to learn a powerful function which aggregates proposition and action features in the latent space.

In contrast to architectures such as ASNs and CNNs, which have a fixed receptive field that is determined by the number of hidden layers, the receptive field of a STRIPS-HGN is effectively determined by the number of message passing steps. Evidently, we can increase or decrease the receptive field of a STRIPS-HGN by scaling the number of message passing steps, hence providing a significant advantage over networks with fixed receptive fields.

Within-Block Design. The encoder block (Figure 4a) HGN_{enc} encodes the vertex and hyperedge input features independently of each other using its ϕ^v and ϕ^e , respectively.

The core processing block of a STRIPS-HGN (Figure 4b) takes the concatenated vertex and hyperedge features from the latent hypergraphs G_{hid}^0 and G_{hid}^{t-1} as input. ϕ^e computes per-hyperedge updates based on these hyperedge and vertex features. ϕ^v computes per-vertex updates based on the vertex features and the aggregated features of the hyperedges where the vertex is a receiver, which is computed using $\rho^{e \rightarrow v}$. Finally, ϕ^u uses the aggregated vertex and aggregated hyperedge features calculated with $\rho^{v \rightarrow u}$ and $\rho^{e \rightarrow u}$, respectively, to compute a latent representation for the heuristic value.

The decoder block (Figure 4c) takes the latent representation of the global features $\mathbf{u}_{\text{hid}}^t$ of the hypergraph returned by the core HGN block and uses its ϕ^u to decode it into a one-dimensional heuristic value. The vertex and hyperedge

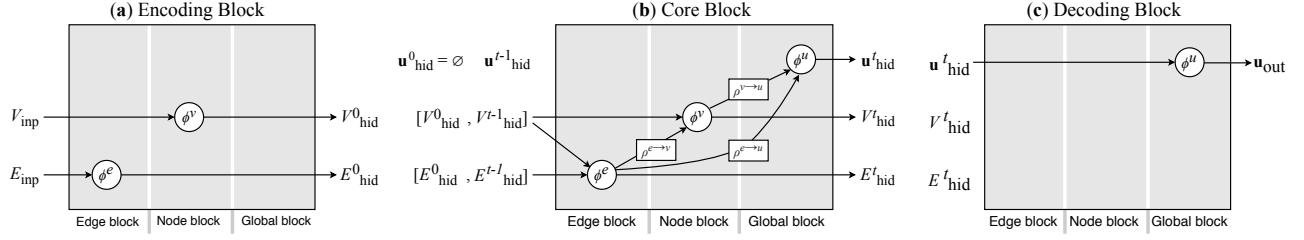


Figure 4: The encoding (a), core (b) and decoding (c) blocks of a STRIPS-HGN. The encoding block independently encodes the vertex and hyperedge features into latent space. The core block computes per-hyperedge and per-vertex updates using the concatenated input hypergraph, and additionally computes a latent heuristic feature $\mathbf{u}_{\text{hid}}^t$. The decoding block decodes the latent heuristic features $\mathbf{u}_{\text{hid}}^t$ into a single heuristic value.

features are not used as $\mathbf{u}_{\text{hid}}^t$ already represents an aggregation of these features as computed by HGN_{core} .

The choice of learning model for the update functions ϕ^e , ϕ^v and ϕ^u within each block is not strict, as long as the model conforms to the input and output requirements. The choice of aggregation functions $\rho^{e \rightarrow v}$, $\rho^{e \rightarrow u}$, and $\rho^{v \rightarrow u}$ should be permutation invariant to the ordering of the inputs, otherwise different heuristic values could be obtained for different permutations of the same STRIPS problem. We detail our choice of update and aggregation functions in Section 6.1, which describes our experimental setup.

5.2 Training Algorithm

We consider learning a heuristic function h as a regression problem, where h ideally provides near-optimal estimates of the cost to go. We train our STRIPS-HGNs with the values generated by the perfect heuristic h^* . Given a set of training problems $\mathcal{P} = \{P_1, \dots, P_n\}$, we run an optimal planner for each $P_i \in \mathcal{P}$ to obtain an optimal state-value pair $(s, h^*(s))$ for each state s encountered in the optimal plan. We then generate the delete-relaxed hypergraph G for P_i and the state s to get a training sample $(G, h^*(s))$. We denote by \mathcal{T} the set containing all training samples.

We train our networks on h^* rather than on the optimal delete-relaxed plan length h^+ , as we believe that STRIPS-HGNs may potentially learn a tighter value than h^+ . In particular, at least in the domain-specific setting, a network trained with h^* might be able to learn the offset between h^+ and h^* since the delete effects are always the same. However, it could be argued that learning from h^+ may be beneficial in the multi-domain and domain-independent settings as these offsets would be different for each domain. Our preliminary experiments found that learning with h^+ performs worse than learning from h^* , except for Blocksworld in the domain-independent setting, where it edges out over learning from h^* on the smaller test problems.

Weight Optimisation. We use supervised learning and assume that each update function in the encoder, core, and decoder blocks of a STRIPS-HGN has some weights that need to be learned. For simplicity, we aggregate these weights into a single variable θ . Let h^θ be the heuristic learned by a STRIPS-HGN which is parameterised by the weights θ .

Recall that we can decode the latent hypergraph that is output by the core HGN block at each time step $t \in \{1, \dots, M\}$

into a heuristic value h_t^θ . Our loss function averages the losses of these intermediate outputs at each time step to encourage a STRIPS-HGN to find a good heuristic value in the smallest number of message passing steps possible (Battaglia et al. 2018). We use the mean squared error (MSE) loss function:

$$\mathcal{L}_\theta(\mathcal{B}) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{B}|} \sum_{(G, h^*(s)) \in \mathcal{B}} \frac{1}{M} \sum_{t \in \{1, \dots, M\}} (h_t^\theta(G) - h^*(s))^2$$

where $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ is a minibatch within the entire training set \mathcal{T} , M is the number of message passing steps, and G is the input hypergraph for state s in a problem.

We use minibatch gradient descent to update the weights θ in the direction which minimises L_θ by using the gradient $d\mathcal{L}_\theta(\mathcal{B})/d\theta$. In a single epoch, we apply this update to every minibatch \mathcal{B} . We repeatedly apply more epochs until we reach a maximum number of epochs or exceed a fixed training time. During evaluation time, we use the heuristic value h_M^θ output at the last message step $t = M$.

5.3 Limitations of STRIPS-HGNs

Firstly, it is expensive to compute a single heuristic value using a STRIPS-HGN, given the computational cost of the matrix operations required for a single step of message passing; these costs scale with the number of vertices and hyperedges in the hypergraph. However, this cost may pay off if the learned heuristic provides very informative estimates near the perfect heuristic h^* , as it may reduce the total CPU time required to find a near-optimal solution.

The number of message passing steps M for the core HGN block is a hyperparameter which, in theory, should be adaptively selected based on how ‘far’ away the current state is from the goal. However, determining a good value for M is not trivial, and should ideally be automatically determined by a STRIPS-HGN by using its intermediate outputs. In practice, we found that setting $M = 10$ was sufficient to achieve promising results.

Finally, although we train STRIPS-HGNs on the perfect heuristic values, the heuristics they learn are typically not admissible. This can be seen in our experiments below, where A* guided by the learned heuristics frequently returns suboptimal plans. Moreover, it is unfeasible to analyse a network to understand what it is exactly computing, so that even if an admissible heuristic was learned, we would be unable to provide any formal guarantees that this is indeed the case.

6 Empirical Evaluation

Our experiments are aimed at showing the generalisation capability of STRIPS-HGNs to problems they were not trained on – including problems with a larger number of objects and actions, and even problems from *unseen* domains. For each experiment, we select a small pool of training problems (potentially from several domains) and train a STRIPS-HGN. We then evaluate the learned heuristic on a larger pool of testing problems with differing initial/goal states, problem sizes and even domains. We repeat each experiment for STRIPS-HGNs 10 times, resulting in 10 different trained networks, to measure the influence of the randomly generated problems and the training procedure.

6.1 Experimental Setup

Hardware. All experiments were conducted on an Amazon Web Services c5.2xlarge server with an Intel Xeon Platinum 8000 series processor running at 3.4Ghz. To ensure fairness between STRIPS-HGN and our baselines, each experiment was limited to a single core. We enforced a 16GB memory cutoff; however, only blind search reached this cutoff and the other planners never exceeded 2GB.

Search Configuration. We compare STRIPS-HGNs against the following baselines: no heuristic (i.e., blind), h^{max} , LM-cut, and h^{add} . These baselines all represent heuristics computable using the same input as used by STRIPS-HGNs—the delete-relaxation hypergraph — making this a fair comparison. We use A* search to compare the different heuristics, since STRIPS-HGNs are trained using perfect heuristic values and we believe that its estimates are sufficiently informative to find near-optimal solutions.

To generate the training data for each training problem, we used Fast Downward (Helmert 2006) configured with A* search and the LM-cut heuristic with a timeout of 2 minutes. As STRIPS-HGNs are implemented in Python, we used Pyperplan (Alkhazraji et al. 2011) for evaluation. Each heuristic is evaluated on each testing problem by running Pyperplan’s A* search once with a 5 minute timeout. Since the heuristic implementations in Pyperplan are much slower than in Fast Downward, our CPU times are preliminary.

STRIPS-HGNs Configuration. We generate the hypergraph of each planning problem from the delete-relaxed problem computed by Pyperplan. For a STRIPS problem $P = \langle F, O, I, G, c \rangle$ and a given state $s \subseteq F$, we encode the input features for each proposition (vertex) $p \in F$ as a vector $[x_s, x_g]$ of length 2 where: $x_s = 1$ (respectively $x_g = 1$) iff p is true in state s (respectively in the goal G), and 0 otherwise. The input feature for each action $o \in O$ represented by a hyperedge e is a vector $[w_e, r_e, s_e]$, where w_e is the cost $c(o)$ of o , and $r_e = |Add(o)|$ and $s_e = |Pre(o)|$ are the number of positive effects and preconditions for action o , respectively. r_e and s_e are used by a STRIPS-HGN to determine how much of a ‘signal’ it should send from a given hyperedge.

We set the number of message passing steps M for the recurrent core HGN block to 10, and implement each update function as a Multilayer Perceptron (MLP) with two sequential fully-connected (FC) layers, each with an output dimensionality of 32. We apply the LeakyReLU activation

function (Maas, Hannun, and Ng 2013) following each FC layer. We add an extra FC layer with an output dimensionality of 1 in ϕ^u of the decoding block. Since the input to a MLP must be a fixed-size vector, we concatenate each update function’s input features before feeding them into the MLP.

However, for the hyperedge update function ϕ^e in the core block, the number of receiver r_e and sender s_e vertices may vary with each hyperedge. For a given set of domains, we can compute the maximum number of preconditions N_{sender} and positive effects $N_{receiver}$ of each possible action by analysing their action schemas – this allows us to fix the size of the feature vectors for the receiver and sender vertices. We convert the set of input vertices \mathbf{R}_k (resp. \mathbf{S}_k) into a fixed-size vector determined by $N_{receiver}$ (resp. N_{sender}), by stacking each vertex feature $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbf{R}_k$ (resp. $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbf{S}_k$) in alphabetical order by their proposition names, and padding the vector with zeros if the required length is not reached. Due to the locality assumption underlying STRIPS, each action schema has a very small number of preconditions and effects, and our approach will work for any domain where these numbers are less than the maximums used. For the aggregation functions $\rho^{e \rightarrow v}$, $\rho^{e \rightarrow u}$ and $\rho^{v \rightarrow u}$ in the core block of a STRIPS-HGN, we use element-wise summation. We denote the heuristic learned by this configuration of STRIPS-HGN as h^{HGN} .

Training Procedure. We split the training data into n bins using quantile binning of the target heuristic values and use stratified k -fold to split the training set into folds $F = \{f_1, \dots, f_k\}$, with each fold containing approximately the same percentage of samples for each heuristic bin. For each fold $f \in F$, we train a STRIPS-HGN using $F \setminus f$ as the training set and f as the validation set, and select the network at the epoch which achieved the lowest loss on the validation set f . Since we train one STRIPS-HGN for each of the k folds, we are left with k separate networks. We select the network which performed best on its validation set as the single representative STRIPS-HGN for an experiment, which we then evaluate on a previously unseen test set.

Although k -fold is more commonly used for cross validation, we use it to reduce potential noise and demonstrate robustness over the training set used. Whilst this limits the training time per experiment, our training procedure lets us demonstrate the expected performance of STRIPS-HGNs.

We use the Adam optimiser with a learning rate of 0.001 and a L2 penalty of 0.00025 (Kingma and Ba 2014). We set the minibatch size to 1 as it resulted in a learned heuristic with the best performance and helped the loss function converge much faster despite the ‘noisier’ training procedure. This may be attributed to the small size of our training sets.

6.2 Domains and Problems Considered

The actions in the domains we consider have a unit cost. The problems we train and evaluate on are randomly generated and unique. The domains we consider are 8-puzzle, Matching Blocksworld, Sokoban (Fern, Kharden, and Tadepalli 2011), Blocksworld (Slaney and Thiébaux 2001), Zenotravel (Long and Fox 2003), Gripper, Ferry and Hanoi². Details regarding the domains and experiments are shown in Table 1.

²<https://fai.cs.uni-saarland.de/hoffmann/ff-domains.html>

	Domain(s)	Train time (per fold)	Hyperparams.	Training Set	Test Set
Domain-Specific	8-puzzle	10 min	Default	10 problems	50 problems
	Blocksworld (BW)	10 min	Default	$10 \times \{3, 4, 5 \text{ blocks}\} = 30 \text{ problems}$	$20 \times \{6, \dots, 10 \text{ blocks}\} = 100 \text{ problems}$
	Ferry	3 min	$k = 5 \text{ folds}$	$\{2, 3, 4 \text{ locations}\} \times \{1, 2, 3 \text{ cars}\} = 9 \text{ problems}$	$\{2, 3, \dots, 10 \text{ locations}\} \times \{5, 10, 15, 20 \text{ cars}\} = 36 \text{ problems}$
	Gripper	90 sec	$n = 3 \text{ bins}$	$\{1, 2, 3 \text{ balls}\} = 3 \text{ problems}$, resample 20 pairs to 60 samples	$\{4, \dots, 20 \text{ balls}\} = 17 \text{ problems}$
	Hanoi	5 min	$n = 3 \text{ bins}$	$\{3, 4 \text{ disks}\} = 2 \text{ problems}$, resample 24 pairs to 50 samples	$\{3, \dots, 10 \text{ disks}\} = 8 \text{ problems}$
	Matching BW	15 min	Default	$5 \times \{3, 4, 5 \text{ blocks}\} \times \{1, 2 \text{ towers}\} = 30 \text{ problems}$	$20 \times \{5, 6 \text{ blocks}\} + 25 \times \{7, 8 \text{ blocks}\} = 90 \text{ problems}$, varying 1, ..., 5 towers
	Sokoban	20 min	$n = 5 \text{ bins}$, $k = 5 \text{ folds}$	$10 \times \{5, 7 \text{ grid size}\} = 20 \text{ problems}$ 2 boxes and varying 3-5 walls	$20 \times \{5, 7 \text{ grid size}\} + 10 \times \{8 \text{ grid size}\} = 50 \text{ problems}$, 2 boxes and varying 3-5 walls
	Zenotravel (Zeno)	10 min	Default	$10 \times \{2, 3 \text{ cities}\} = 20 \text{ problems}$ Varying 1-4 planes and 2-5 people	$\{2, 3, 4 \text{ cities}\} \times \{2, 3, 4, 5 \text{ planes}\} \times \{3, 4, 5, 6, 7 \text{ passengers}\} = 60 \text{ problems}$
Multi-Domain	Blocksworld + Gripper + Zenotravel	15 min	Default	BW: $5 \times \{4, 5 \text{ blocks}\} = 10 \text{ problems}$ Gripper: training set for domain-specific Zeno: $5 \times \{2, 3 \text{ cities}\} = 10 \text{ problems}$ Varying 1-4 planes and 2-5 people	Respective test sets for domain-specific Blocksworld, Gripper and Zenotravel
	Gripper + Zenotravel Evaluate on Blocksworld	10 min	Default	Training sets for multi-domain Gripper and Zenotravel	Test set for domain-specific Blocksworld
Domain-Indep.	Blocksworld + Zenotravel Evaluate on Gripper	10 min	Default	Training sets for multi-domain Blocksworld and Zenotravel	Test set for domain-specific Gripper
	Blocksworld + Gripper Evaluate on Zenotravel	10 min	Default	Training sets for multi-domain Blocksworld and Gripper	Test set for domain-specific Zenotravel

Table 1: The configurations for our experiments. For each experiment, we depict the domains considered, training time per fold, hyperparameters and training/test set used. The default hyperparameters are $n = 4$ bins and $k = 10$ folds. We apply stratified sampling with replacement for resampling.

6.3 Experimental Results

Our experiments may be broken down into learning a domain-specific, *multi-domain* or domain-independent heuristic. A multi-domain heuristic is a generalisation of domain-specific heuristics to multiple domains, i.e., it can be applied to a set of predefined domains. For each of the experiments we describe below, we present the results for the number of nodes expanded, CPU time, and deviation from the optimal plan length when using A* (Figures 5, 6 and 8). For h^{HGN} , the results are presented as the average and 95% confidence interval over the 10 different experiments.

Additionally, the coverage ratio on the testing problems for each heuristic is shown in Table 2. For h^{HGN} , we calculate the average coverage for the 10 repeated experiments. Figure 7 depicts the proportional errors of the estimates given by h^{HGN} in the initial state s_0 over all test problems with known optimal plans. Only runs of h^{HGN} which achieved coverage on the respective test problems are considered.

Can we learn domain-specific heuristics? In order to evaluate this, we train and test STRIPS-HGNs separately on the domain-specific experiments described in Table 1. Figure 5 depicts the results of these experiments. Firstly, for 8-puzzle and Blocksworld, h^{HGN} expands fewer nodes than all the baselines including h^{add} , yet h^{HGN} deviates significantly less from the optimal plan. For Ferry, Matching Blocksworld and Zenotravel, h^{HGN} requires fewer node expansions than the admissible heuristics and is able to solve larger-sized problems. h^{HGN} also obtains a smaller deviation from the optimal than h^{add} . For Gripper, h^{HGN} requires remarkably fewer node expansions than the baselines and is able to find

	blind	h^{max}	h^{add}	LM-cut	h^{HGN}		
					spec.	multi	indep.
8-puzzle	1	1	1	1	1	–	–
Ferry	0.42	0.36	1	0.47	0.77	–	–
Hanoi	1	1	1	0.88	0.70	–	–
Mat. BW	0.85	0.85	1	0.98	0.83	–	–
Sokoban	1	1	1	0.96	0.91	–	–
BW	0.78	0.68	1	0.97	0.95	0.97	0.60
Gripper	0.71	0.59	0.59	0.41	0.95	0.69	0.29
Zeno	0.62	0.55	1	0.82	0.71	0.60	0.26

Table 2: Coverage Ratio (to 2 d.p.) on the test problems for each heuristic. The lower average coverage of h^{HGN} is attributed to our noisy training procedure, which leads to networks with varying performance across experiments.

solutions to the larger test problems within the limited search time (blind and LM-cut are occluded by h^{max} for the nodes expanded). For Sokoban, h^{HGN} expands marginally more nodes than h^{add} and LM-cut, but finds near-optimal plans. On the other hand, h^{HGN} is unable to outperform the baselines for Hanoi and scale up to larger problems – this may be due to the difficulty of learning the exponential plan length.

We may observe from the proportional errors in Figure 7 that h^{HGN} provides reasonably accurate estimates for all domain-specific experiments bar Gripper and Hanoi. The large overestimation of Gripper may be due to overtraining on problems with 1-3 balls, leading to numerical instability when scaling up to larger problems. Thus, we have shown that STRIPS-HGNs are able to learn domain-specific heuristics which potentially outperform our baseline heuristics.

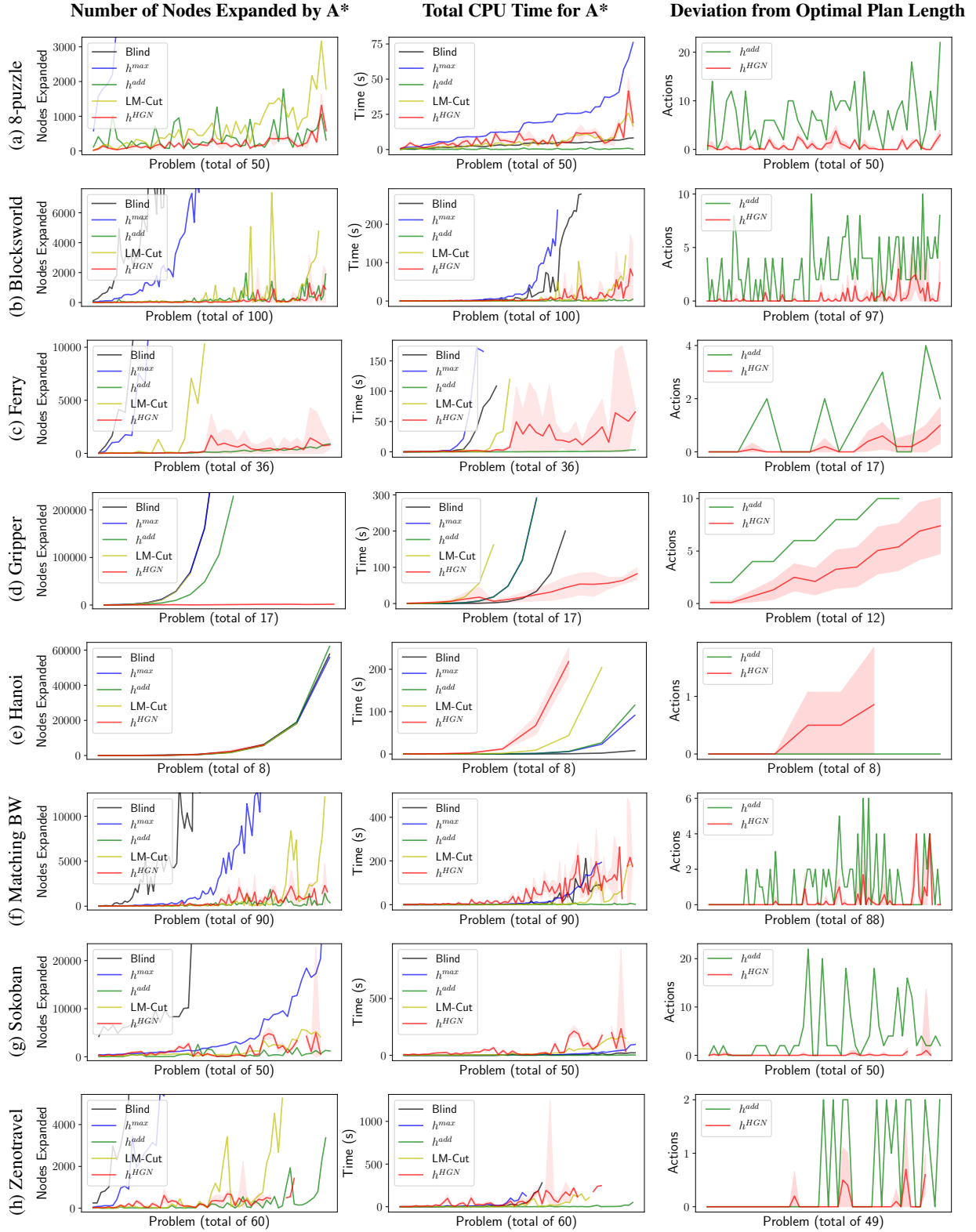


Figure 5: The plots for the results of our **domain-specific** experiments described in Section 6.3. The discontinuities in the curves indicate problems which could not be solved within the search time limit. The pale red area indicates the 95% confidence interval for h^{HGN} , which may be very large if our experiments achieved low coverage. Problems for which no optimal solver was able to find a solution are omitted from deviation from optimal plan length plots.

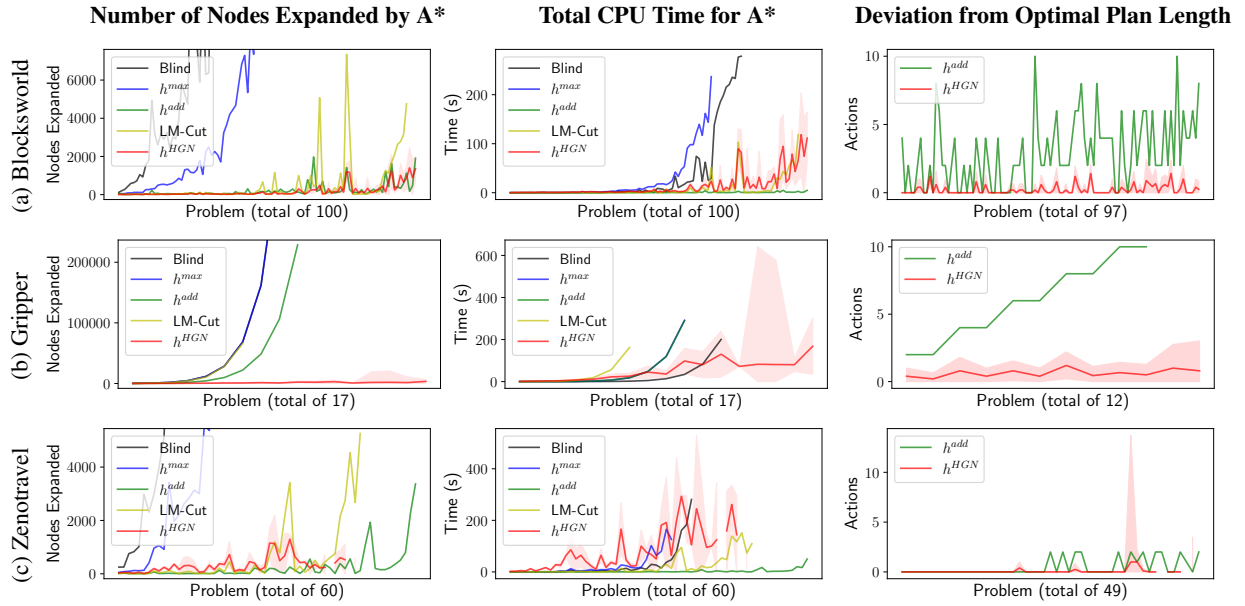


Figure 6: The plots for the results of our **multi-domain** experiments described in Section 6.3.

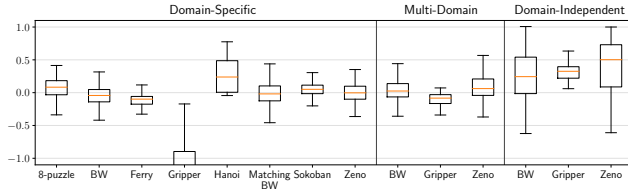


Figure 7: Proportional errors $\frac{h^*(s_0) - h^{HGN}(s_0)}{h^*(s_0)}$ of the estimates given by h^{HGN} in the initial state s_0 . Negative values correspond to inadmissible heuristic estimates. For Gripper the 1st, 2nd and 3rd quartiles are -37.11, -4.75 and -0.90.

Can we learn multi-domain heuristics? To determine whether this is feasible, we train a STRIPS-HGN using data from multiple domains at once: the training set of each domain is binned and stratified into k -folds then, for $i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$, the folds f_i of all considered domains are merged into a single fold \hat{f}_i and $\hat{F} = \{\hat{f}_1, \dots, \hat{f}_k\}$ is used as the training set. Using this procedure, we train and evaluate STRIPS-HGNs on Blocksworld, Gripper and Zenotravel together as detailed in Table 1. Notice that each testing domain has been **seen** by the network during training.

Figure 6 depicts our results. In general, multi-domain h^{HGN} performs marginally worse than the domain-specific h^{HGN} for each test domain in terms of node expansions and average coverage. Multi-domain h^{HGN} is able to match or outperform our baseline heuristics in terms of the number of node expansions on a large proportion of test problems, and also deviates significantly less from the optimal plan in comparison to h^{add} . Interestingly, the deviation from the optimal plan length for multi-domain Gripper is less than that for domain-specific Gripper. This is likely due to over-

training in domain-specific Gripper which has led to large overestimation, as indicated by the boxplot in Figure 7. In contrast, the boxplot for multi-domain Gripper shows that its heuristic estimations are far more accurate.

Evidently, STRIPS-HGNs are capable of learning multi-domain heuristics which generalise to problems from the domains a network has seen during training. This is a very powerful result, as existing approaches rely on features derived from existing heuristics, while we are able to learn heuristics from scratch.

Is h^{HGN} capable of learning domain-independent heuristics which generalise to unseen domains? To determine whether this is the case, we train STRIPS-HGNs on problems from a set of domains, and evaluate them on problems from a distinct **unseen** domain. We use the same training data generation procedure as described for learning multi-domain heuristics. Our experiments are detailed in Table 1.

Figure 8 depicts the results of our experiments. For Blocksworld, h^{HGN} outperforms h^{max} and blind search in terms of node expansions and deviates significantly less from the optimal plan length than h^{add} . This is despite the fact that the network did not see any Blocksworld problems during training. On the other hand, h^{HGN} is unable to outperform the baselines for Gripper (h^{HGN} is occluded by h^{max} for the nodes expanded), suggesting it has not learned any useful knowledge from the training domains Blocksworld and Zenotravel. h^{HGN} is also unable to scale up to larger problems (9+ balls), due to the large time required to compute a single heuristic estimate. For Zenotravel, h^{HGN} outperforms blind search and h^{max} but is unable to scale up to large problems. This suggests that STRIPS-HGNs has learned some form of informative knowledge from Blocksworld and Gripper that allows Zenotravel problems to be more readily solved.

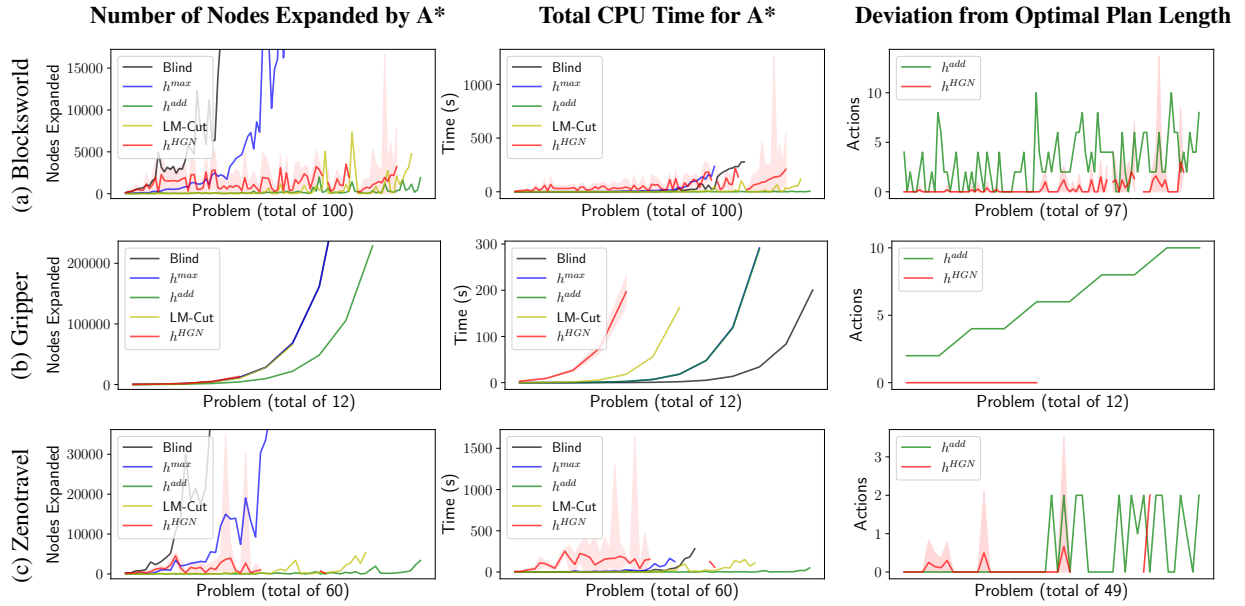


Figure 8: The plots for the results of our **domain-independent** experiments described in Section 6.3.

The results of our domain-independent experiments show that it is possible for h^{HGN} to generalise across to problems from domains it has not seen during training. Unsurprisingly, h^{HGN} suffers a loss in planning performance, both in terms of nodes expanded and average coverage, in comparison to STRIPS-HGNs trained directly on the unseen domain.

Why is h^{HGN} not competitive in terms of CPU time?

This may be attributed to our current sub-optimal implementation of STRIPS-HGNs, and the cost of evaluating the network (i.e., M message passing steps). Consequently, there is significant room for improvement in this regard. Despite this, our results show that STRIPS-HGNs is a feasible and effective approach for learning domain-specific, multi-domain and domain-independent heuristics.

7 Conclusion and Future Work

We have introduced STRIPS-HGNs, a recurrent encode-process-decode architecture which uses the Hypergraph Networks framework to learn heuristics which are able to generalise not only across states, goals, and object sets, but also across unseen domains. In contrast to existing work for learning heuristics, STRIPS-HGNs are able to learn powerful heuristics from scratch, using only the hypergraph induced by the delete-relaxation of the STRIPS problem. This is achieved by leveraging Hypergraph Networks, which allow us to approximate the perfect heuristic values by performing message passing on features in a rich latent space. Our experimental results show that STRIPS-HGNs are able to learn domain-specific, multi-domain and domain-independent heuristics which are competitive, in terms of the number of node expansions required by A*, with heuristics that are computed over the same hypergraph, namely h^{max} , h^{add} and LM-cut. This suggests that learning heuristics over hypergraphs is a promising approach, deserving investigation in further detail.

Potential future work includes using different hypergraph representations of STRIPS problems (e.g., hypergraph underlying h^2). Notice that our Hypergraph Networks framework already supports arbitrary hypergraphs. Another future work direction is to use a richer set input features, such as, *disjunctive action landmarks*, *fact landmarks*, and features related to the delete effects which can be automatically extracted from the STRIPS problems. These features may help the network learn a better heuristic estimate and reduce the number of message passing steps required to obtain an informative heuristic estimate. Moreover, the time required to compute a single heuristic value (≈ 0.01 to 0.02 seconds) could be reduced significantly by optimising our implementation (e.g., using multiple CPU cores or GPUs, optimising matrix operations and broadcasting), adapting the number of message passing steps in real time, or even pruning the vertices and hyperedges in the hypergraph of the relaxed problem. Other improvements could come from a careful study of the hyperparameter space, in the same vein as concurrent work by Ferber et al. (2020) on learning domain-specific heuristics with feed-forward neural nets.

We may also improve the generalisation performance and remove the need for zero padding in a STRIPS-HGN by using permutation invariant models, including Deep Sets (Zaheer et al. 2017), instead of MLPs as the update functions. This will ensure STRIPS-HGNs are permutation invariant to all changes in a planning problem, including the renaming of actions which is not supported when using MLPs.

Finally, we also plan to investigate how to adapt STRIPS-HGNs for Stochastic Shortest Path problems (SSPs). It may be possible to use Hypergraph Networks to learn an informative heuristic that preserves the probabilistic structure of actions (Trevizan, Thiébaux, and Haslum 2017) by deriving suitable hypergraphs from *factored* SSPs.

Acknowledgements

We thank Florian Geißer, Malte Helmert, and the anonymous reviewers for their useful comments. Sylvie Thiébaux and Felipe Trevizan are partially funded by Australian Research Council Discovery Project grant DP180103446 “Online Planning for Constrained Autonomous Agents in an Uncertain World”.

References

- Alkhazraji, Y.; Frorath, M.; Grütznert, M.; Liebetraut, T.; Ortlieb, M.; Seipp, J.; Springenberg, T.; Stahl, P.; and Wülfing, J. 2011. Pyperplan.
- Arfaee, S. J.; Zilles, S.; and Holte, R. C. 2010. Bootstrap Learning of Heuristic Functions. In *Symposium on Combinatorial Search*.
- Asai, M., and Fukunaga, A. 2018. Classical Planning in Deep Latent Space: Bridging the Subsymbolic-Symbolic Boundary. In *AAAI*.
- Battaglia, P. W.; Hamrick, J. B.; Bapst, V.; Sanchez-Gonzalez, A.; Zambaldi, V.; Malinowski, M.; Tacchetti, A.; Raposo, D.; Santoro, A.; Faulkner, R.; et al. 2018. Relational inductive biases, deep learning, and graph networks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1806.01261*.
- Bonet, B., and Geffner, H. 2001. Planning as heuristic search. *Artificial Intelligence* 129(1-2):5–33.
- Buffet, O., and Aberdeen, D. 2009. The factored policy-gradient planner. *Artificial Intelligence* 173(5-6):722–747.
- Ferber, P.; Helmert, M.; and Hoffmann, J. 2020. Neural Network Heuristics for Classical Planning: A Study of Hyperparameter Space. In *ECAI*.
- Fern, A.; Khordon, R.; and Tadepalli, P. 2011. The first learning track of the international planning competition. *Machine Learning* 84(1-2):81–107.
- Fikes, R. E., and Nilsson, N. J. 1971. STRIPS: A new approach to the application of theorem proving to problem solving. *Artificial Intelligence* 2(3-4):189–208.
- Garg, S.; Bajpai, A.; and Mausam. 2019. Size Independent Neural Transfer for RDDL Planning. In *ICAPS*.
- Garrett, C. R.; Kaelbling, L. P.; and Lozano-Pérez, T. 2016. Learning to rank for synthesizing planning heuristics. In *IJCAI*.
- Gilmer, J.; Schoenholz, S. S.; Riley, P. F.; Vinyals, O.; and Dahl, G. E. 2017. Neural Message Passing for Quantum Chemistry. In *ICML*.
- Groshev, E.; Tamar, A.; Goldstein, M.; Srivastava, S.; and Abbeel, P. 2018. Learning Generalized Reactive Policies using Deep Neural Networks. In *AAAI Spring Symposium*.
- Hamrick, J. B.; Allen, K. R.; Bapst, V.; Zhu, T.; McKee, K. R.; Tenenbaum, J. B.; and Battaglia, P. W. 2018. Relational inductive bias for physical construction in humans and machines. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1806.01203*.
- Helmert, M., and Domshlak, C. 2009. Landmarks, Critical Paths and Abstractions: Whats the Difference Anyway? In *ICAPS*.
- Helmert, M. 2006. The Fast Downward Planning System. *Journal of Artificial Intelligence Research* 26:191–246.
- Issakkimuthu, M.; Fern, A.; and Tadepalli, P. 2018. Training Deep Reactive Policies for Probabilistic Planning Problems. In *ICAPS*.
- Jiménez Celorrio, S.; de la Rosa, T.; Fernández, S.; Fernández, F.; and Borrajo, D. 2012. A Review of Machine Learning for Automated Planning. *Knowledge Eng. Review* 27(4):433–467.
- Kingma, D. P., and Ba, J. 2014. Adam: A Method for Stochastic Optimization. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1412.6980*.
- Long, D., and Fox, M. 2003. The 3rd international planning competition: Results and analysis. *Journal of Artificial Intelligence Research* 20:1–59.
- Ma, T.; Ferber, P.; Huo, S.; Chen, J.; and Katz, M. 2020. Online Planner Selection with Graph Neural Networks and Adaptive Scheduling. In *AAAI*.
- Maas, A. L.; Hannun, A. Y.; and Ng, A. Y. 2013. Rectifier Nonlinearities Improve Neural Network Acoustic Models. In *ICML*.
- Richter, S., and Westphal, M. 2010. The LAMA Planner: Guiding Cost-Based Anytime Planning with Landmarks. *Journal of Artificial Intelligence Research* 39:127–177.
- Samadi, M.; Felner, A.; and Schaeffer, J. 2008. Learning from Multiple Heuristics. In *AAAI*.
- Say, B.; Wu, G.; Zhou, Y. Q.; and Sanner, S. 2017. Nonlinear Hybrid Planning with Deep Net Learned Transition Models and Mixed-Integer Linear Programming. In *IJCAI*.
- Shen, W. 2019. Learning Heuristics for Planning with Hypergraph Networks. Honours Thesis, The Australian National University.
- Sievers, S.; Katz, M.; Sohrabi, S.; Samulowitz, H.; and Ferber, P. 2019. Deep Learning for Cost-Optimal Planning: Task-Dependent Planner Selection. In *AAAI*.
- Slaney, J., and Thiébaux, S. 2001. Blocks world revisited. *Artificial Intelligence* 125(1-2):119–153.
- Thayer, J. T.; Dionne, A. J.; and Ruml, W. 2011. Learning Inadmissible Heuristics During Search. In *ICAPS*.
- Toyer, S.; Trevizan, F. W.; Thiébaux, S.; and Xie, L. 2018. Action Schema Networks: Generalised Policies With Deep Learning. In *AAAI*.
- Toyer, S.; Trevizan, F. W.; Thiébaux, S.; and Xie, L. 2020. ASNets: Deep Learning for Generalised Planning. *Journal of Artificial Intelligence Research (JAIR)* (to appear).
- Trevizan, F.; Thiébaux, S.; and Haslum, P. 2017. Occupation measure heuristics for probabilistic planning. In *ICAPS*.
- Zaheer, M.; Kottur, S.; Ravanbakhsh, S.; Poczos, B.; Salakhutdinov, R. R.; and Smola, A. J. 2017. Deep Sets. In *NeurIPS*.