

# Machine Intelligence

## Lecture 2: Search

Thomas Dyhre Nielsen

*Aalborg University*

## Topics:

- Introduction
- **Search-based methods**
- Constrained satisfaction problems
- Logic-based knowledge representation
- Representing domains endowed with uncertainty.
- Bayesian networks
- Machine learning
- Planning
- Multi-agent systems

# Problem Solving as Search

We consider problems where an agent

- has a state-based representation of its environment
- can observe with certainty which state it is in
- has a certain goal it wants to achieve
- can execute actions that have definite effects (no uncertainty)

The agent needs to find a sequence of actions that lead it to a **goal state**: a state in which its goal is achieved.

# Example: 8 Puzzle

Problem: re-arrange tiles into goal configuration:

	1	4
5	3	8
2	6	7

1		2
3	4	5
6	7	8

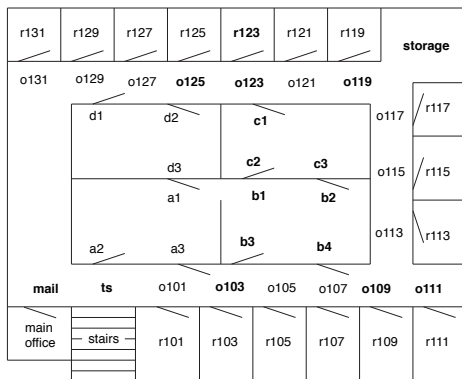
Goal

2	8	
6	1	7
3	4	5

1	2	3
4		5
6	7	8

Goal

- There are 362880 states
- Actions: *move\_up*, *move\_down*, *move\_left*, *move\_right*



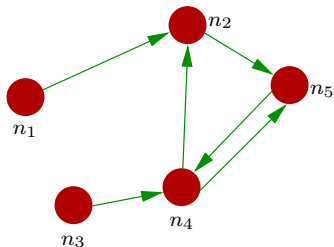
- States: locations, e.g. **r131**, **storage**, **o117**, **c3**,...
- Actions: move to neighboring locations, e.g. *move\_r131\_o131*, *move\_o119\_storage*, *move\_b2\_c3*,...

A **State-Space Problem** consists of

- A set of states
- A subset of **start states**
- A set of actions (not all actions available at all states)
- An **action function** that for a given state  $s$  and action  $a$  returns the state reached when executing  $a$  in  $s$
- A **goal test** that for any state  $s$  returns the boolean value  $goal(s)$  (true if  $s$  is a goal state)
- (optional) a **cost function** on actions
- (optional) a **value function** on goal states

A **Solution** consists of

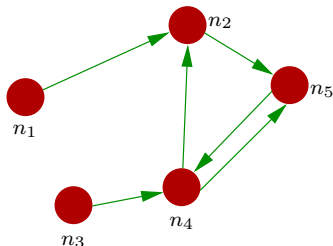
- For any given start state, a sequence of actions that lead to a goal state
- (optional) a sequence of actions with minimal cost
- (optional) a sequence of actions leading to a goal state with maximal value



A **directed graph** consists of

- a set of **nodes**
- a set of **arcs** (ordered pairs of nodes)





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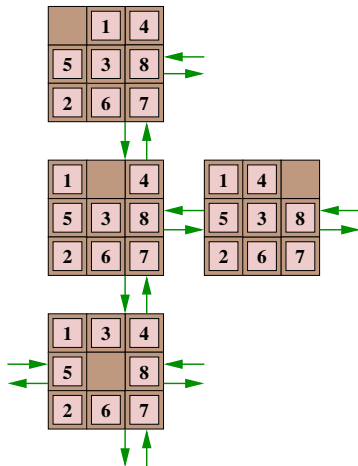
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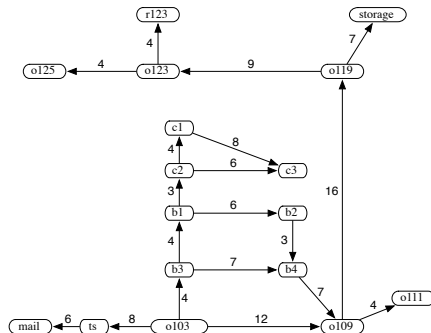
Further terminology:

- $n_2$  is a **neighbor** of  $n_4$  (not the other way round!).
- $n_3, n_4, n_2, n_5$  is a **path** from  $n_3$  to  $n_5$ .
- $n_2, n_5, n_4, n_2$  is a path that is a **cycle**.
- a graph is **acyclic** if it has no cycles.

- Nodes: states
- Arcs: possible state-transitions from actions (arcs can be labeled with actions)

## 8 puzzle graph (part)



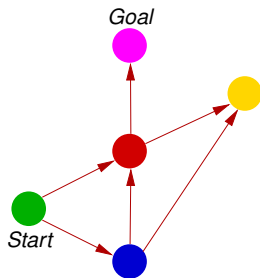


- Arcs labeled with costs (time to travel, fuel costs, ...)
- *Forward branching factor* of a node = number of arcs leaving that node.
- *Backward branching factor* of a node = number of arcs entering that node.

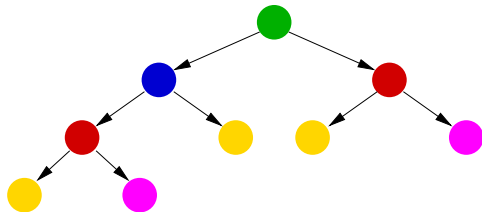
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- This does not require the whole graph at once: search may only locally generate neighbors of currently visited node.

State-space graph

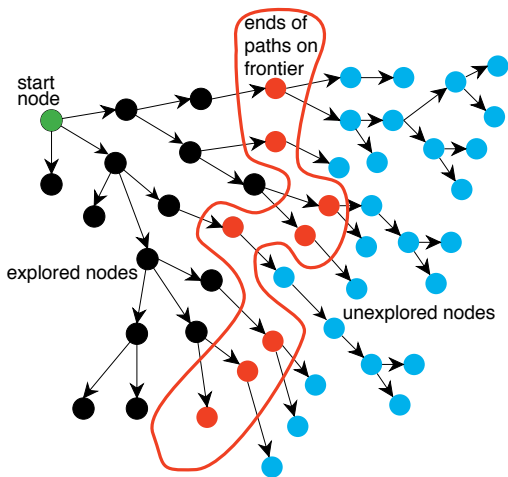


Search tree



- Tree: special graph with
  - exactly one node that has no incoming arc (the **root**)
  - all other nodes have exactly one incoming arc (may have 0,1,2,3,... outgoing arcs)
- Nodes in the search tree correspond to paths in the graph beginning in the start state
- Nodes in the search tree also are labeled with states: the last state of the path

# Snapshot of Search Tree Construction



**Input:** a graph,  
a set of start nodes,  
Boolean procedure  $goal(n)$  that tests if  $n$  is a goal node.

$frontier := \{ \langle s \rangle : s \text{ is a start node} \} ;$

**while**  $frontier$  is not empty:

**select and remove** path  $\langle n_0, \dots, n_k \rangle$  from  $frontier$ ;

**if**  $goal(n_k)$

**return**  $\langle n_0, \dots, n_k \rangle$ ;

**for every** neighbor  $n$  of  $n_k$

**add**  $\langle n_0, \dots, n_k, n \rangle$  to  $frontier$ ;

**end while**



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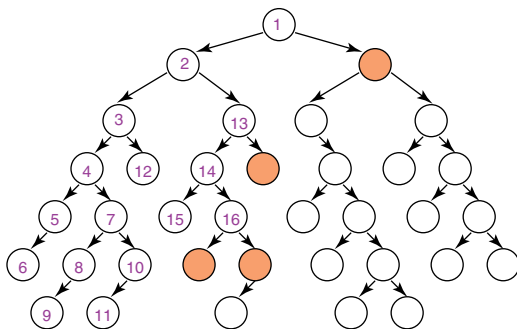
The algorithm does not require the complete graph as input: only needed are:

- List of start nodes (often only one)
- Boolean function  $goal(Node\ n)$
- Function  $get\_neighbors(Node\ n)$  returning list of neighbors of  $n$ .

- Select from the frontier that path that was most recently added to the frontier (frontier implemented as **stack**).

## Example

- Explored nodes with order of exploration
- Frontier (colored)
- Unexplored nodes



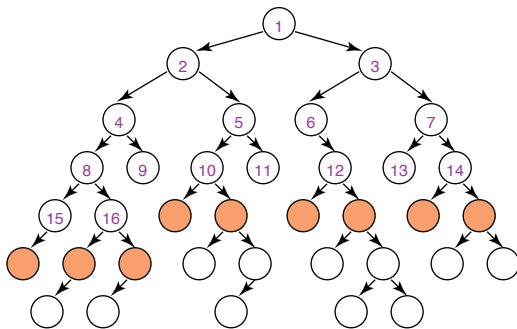
## Properties

- Space used is linear in the length of the current path.
- May not terminate if state-space graph has cycles
- With a forward branching factor bounded by  $b$  and depth  $n$ , the worst-case time complexity of a finite tree is  $b^n$ .

- Select from the frontier that path that was earliest added to the frontier (frontier implemented as **queue**).

### Example

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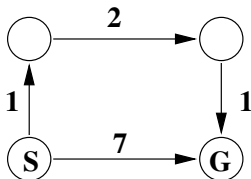
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- Can be adapted to find a minimum cost path.

## Problem

- Assume that for each action at each state we have an associated **cost**
- The cost of a solution is the sum of the costs of all actions on the path from start to goal state.
- A **minimum cost solution** is a solution with minimal cost.

## Example



- Breadth first search will find the *shortest*, but not the *cheapest* solution.
- Depth first search may find either solution, depending on order of neighbor enumeration

Simple modification of generic search algorithm:

- with each path in *frontier* store the cost of the path
- Modify one line of code:  
**select** and **remove** path  $\langle n_0, \dots, n_k \rangle$  **with minimal cost** from *frontier*;

## Properties

- If all actions have non-zero cost, and solution exists, then a minimal cost solution will be found.
- Space requirement depends on cost structure, but usually similar to breadth-first search.



## Goal

- Termination guarantee of breadth-first search
- Space efficiency of depth-first search

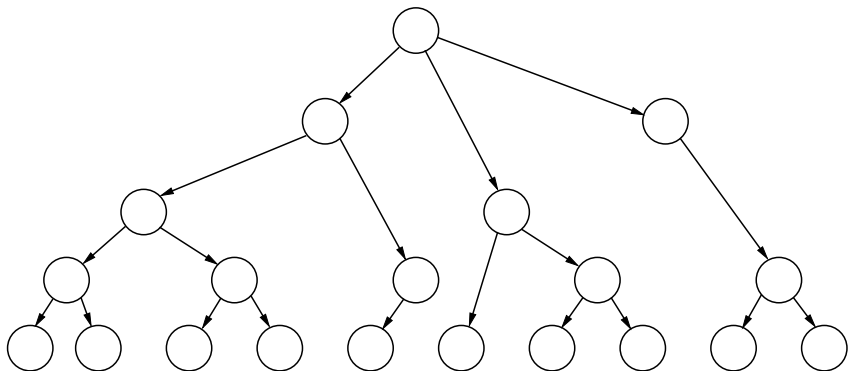
## Algorithm

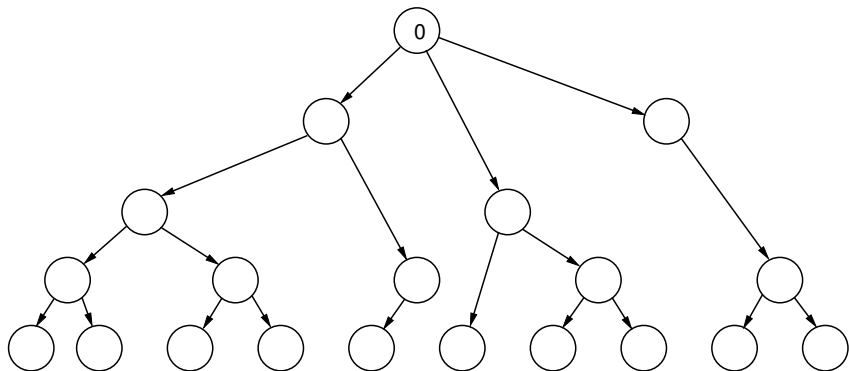
### Depth-bounded search $k$

- As depth-first search, but
- do not add neighbors of selected node to frontier if selected node has depth  $k$ .

### Iterative deepening search

- For  $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$  perform depth-bounded search  $k$ .

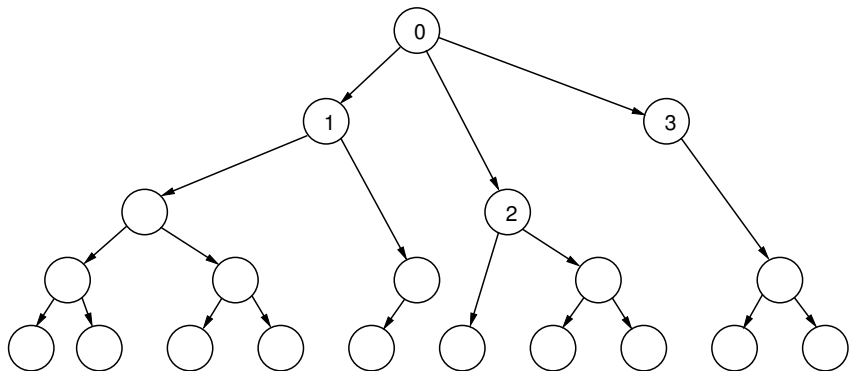




Perform depth-bounded search to level  $k = 1$ .

**NB:** The node numbering corresponds to when the states are first visited.

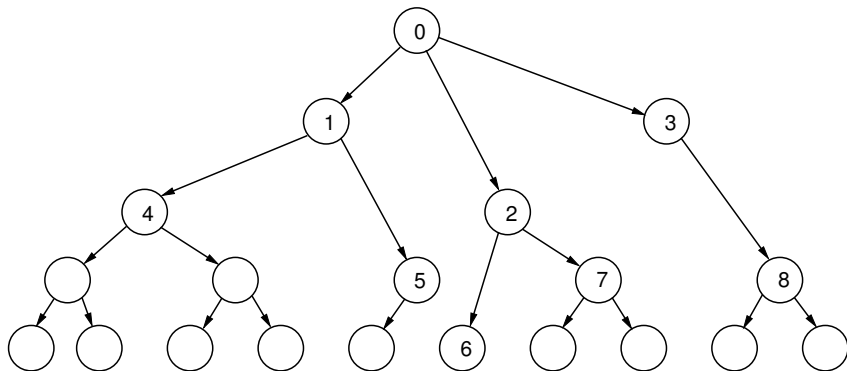
# Iterative deepening: an example



Perform depth-bounded search to level  $k = 2$ .

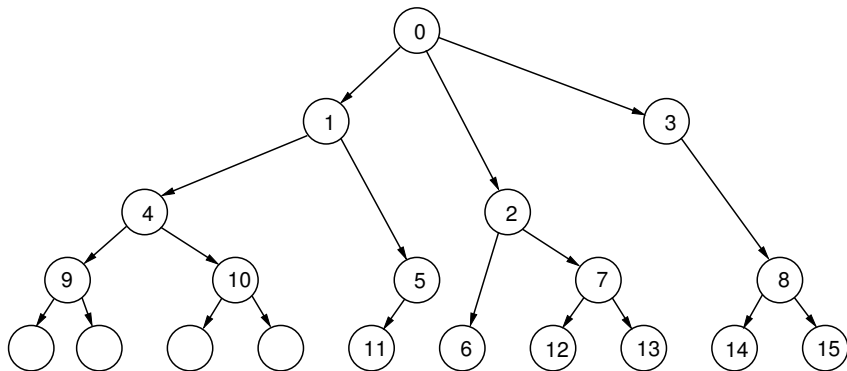
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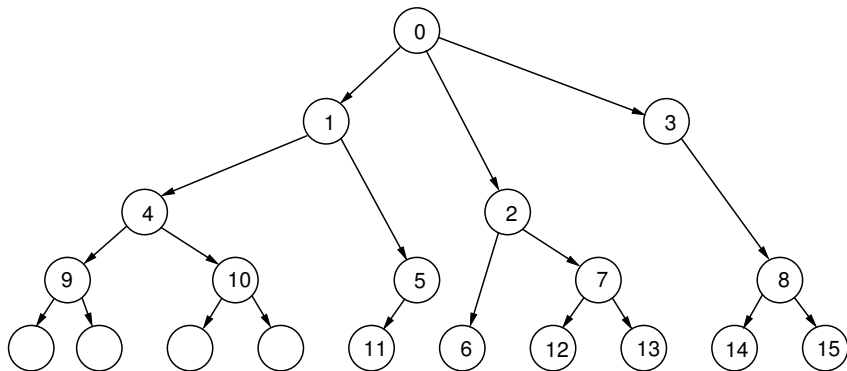
# Iterative deepening: an example



Perform depth-bounded search to level  $k = 3$ .

**NB:** The node numbering corresponds to when the states are first visited.





## Properties

- Has desired termination and space efficiency properties
- Duplicates computations (depth-bounded search  $k$  repeats computations of depth-bounded search  $k - 1$ ). Not as problematic as it looks: constant overhead of  $(b/(b - 1))$ .

Depth-first, Breadth-first and Iterative deepening are **uninformed** search strategies: they do not assume/use any knowledge of the search space except the pure graph structure.



## Informed Search

## Idea

- Lowest-Cost-First Search only considers cost of already constructed partial solution.
- Idea: Try to estimate the cost of optimal path from current state to goal.

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## Actual Cost

Given a cost function on actions, can define for any node  $n$  in the search tree:

*$opt(n)$  = cost of optimal (minimal cost) path from  $n$  to a goal state (infinite if no path to goal exists).*

- The  $opt$  function can usually not be computed
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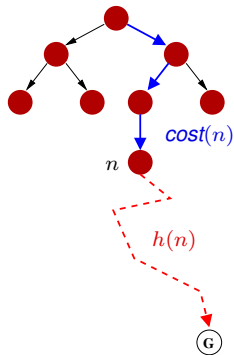
## Heuristic Function

$h(n)$  (non-negative number): estimate of  $opt(n)$ .  $h(n)$  is an **underestimate** if for all nodes  $n$ :

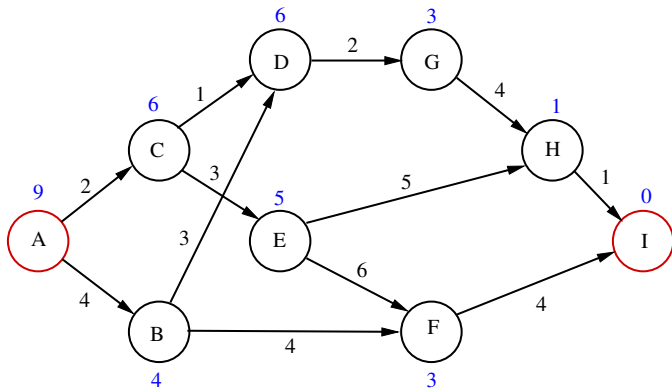
$$h(n) \leq opt(n)$$

For any node  $n$  in the search tree we have:

- $cost(n)$  : (true) cost of reaching  $n$  from the root node.
- $h(n)$  : a heuristic function
- $f(n) := cost(n) + h(n)$



A\* search: always expand fringe node with minimal  $f$ -value.



For node D:

- $cost(D) = 3$
- $h(D) = 6$
- $f(D) := cost(D) + h(D) = 3 + 6 = 9$

## Admissibility

For finite state space graphs: if

- all actions have cost  $> 0$
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## Special Cases

- $h(n) = 0$  for all  $n$ :  $A^*$  becomes lowest-cost-first search
- $h(n) = \text{opt}(n)$ :  $A^*$  directly constructs the optimal path

$\leadsto$  should find heuristic functions  $h(n)$  that are “close underestimates” of  $\text{opt}(n)$ .



General strategy to design underestimates:

- define a simplified (easier) problem
  - add arcs, states to the state space graph
  - reduce cost of existing arcs
- use the exact function *opt* in the simplified problem as the heuristic function for the original problem
- requires: *opt* in the simplified problem must be easily computable

**Simplified Problem 1:** Can move any tile to any square (more states: can have several tiles on one square). Then

$h_1(n) = opt_1(n) :=$  Number of tiles that are not in their goal position.

7	2	4
5		6
8	3	1

$n$

	1	2
3	4	5
6	7	8

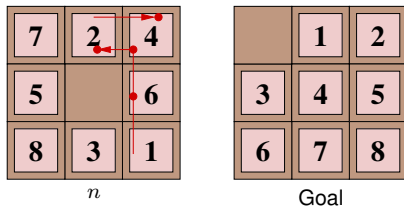
Goal

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$$h_1(n) = opt_1(n) := \text{Number of tiles that are not in their goal position.}$$

**Simplified Problem 2:** Can move any tile to an *adjacent* square.

$$h_2(n) = opt_2(n) := \text{Sum of Manhattan distances of all tiles to their goal position.}$$



$$h_1(n) = 8$$

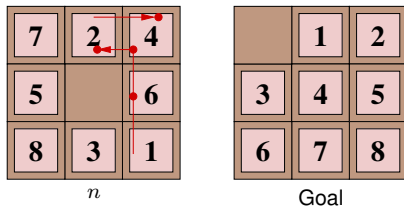
# Heuristic functions for 8-puzzle

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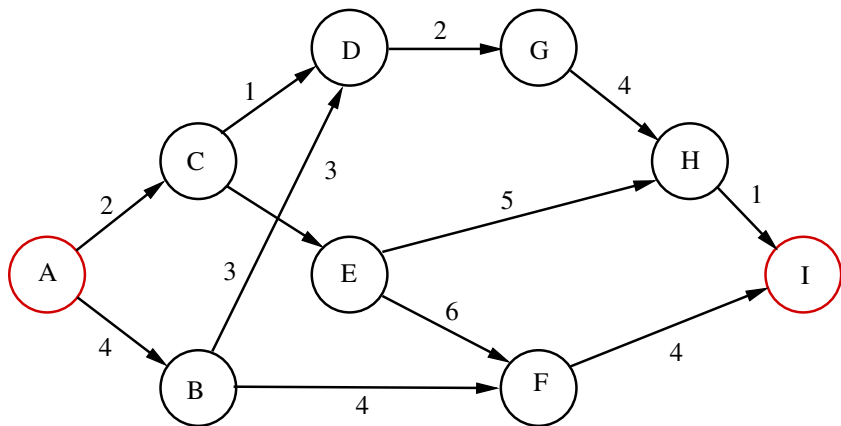
$$h_2(n) = 3 + 1 + 2 + 2 + 2 + 3 + 3 + 2 = 18$$

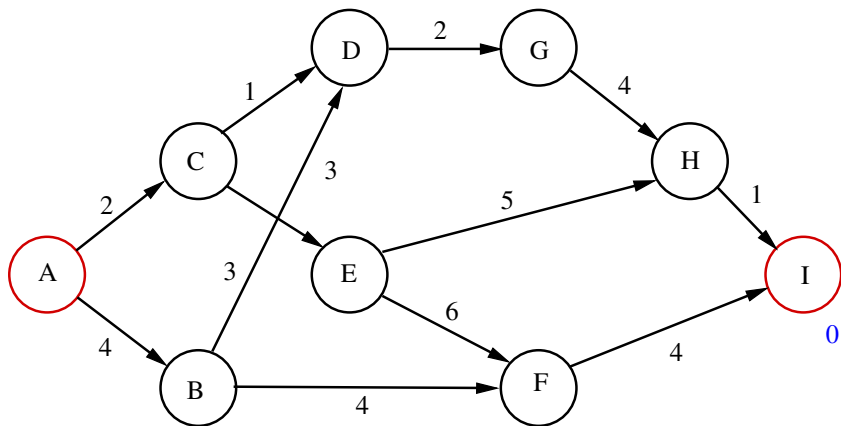
**Idea:** for statically stored graphs, build a table of  $dist(n)$  the actual distance of the shortest path from node  $n$  to a goal.

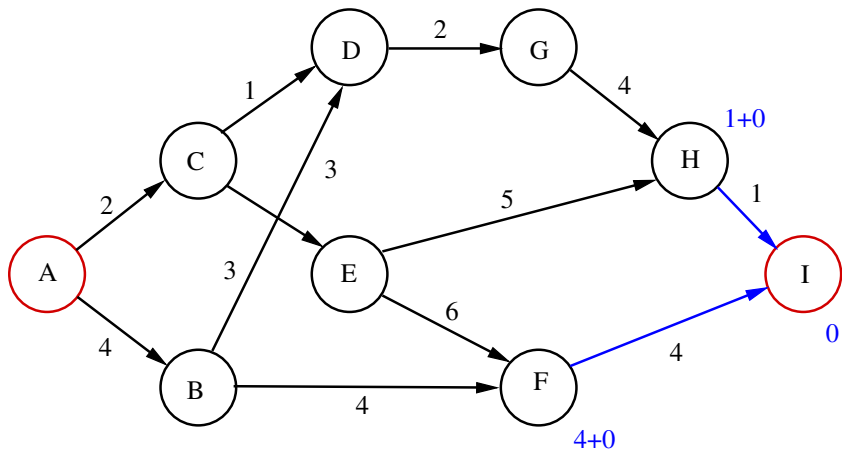
This can be built backwards from the goal:

$$dist(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } is\_goal(n), \\ \min_{\langle n, m \rangle \in A} (|\langle n, m \rangle| + dist(m)) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

This can be used locally to determine what to do.

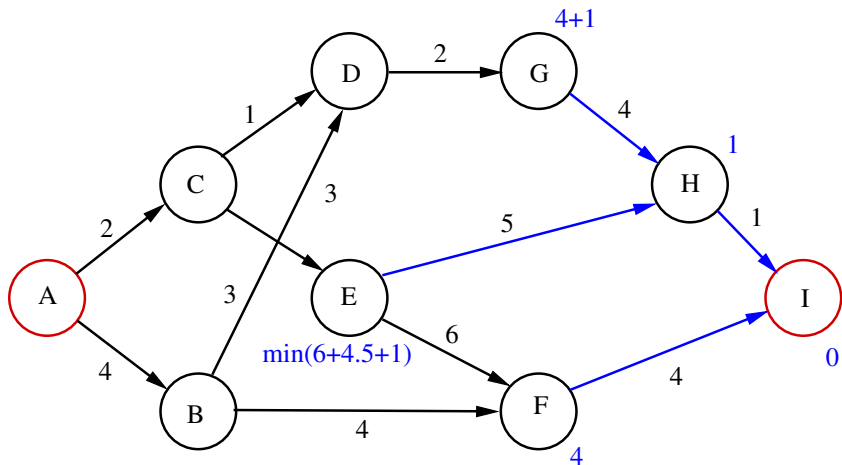




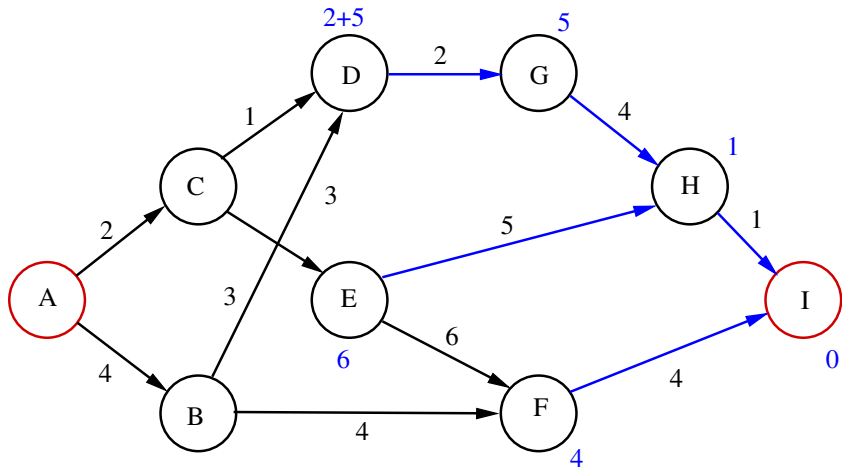


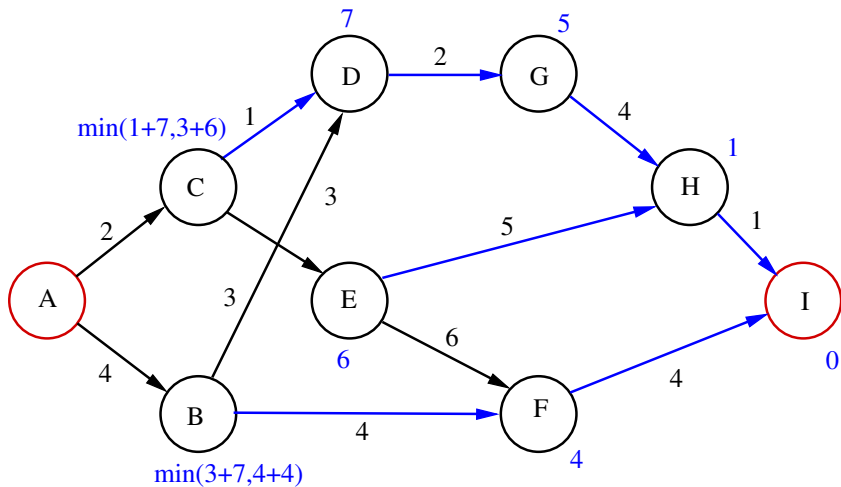


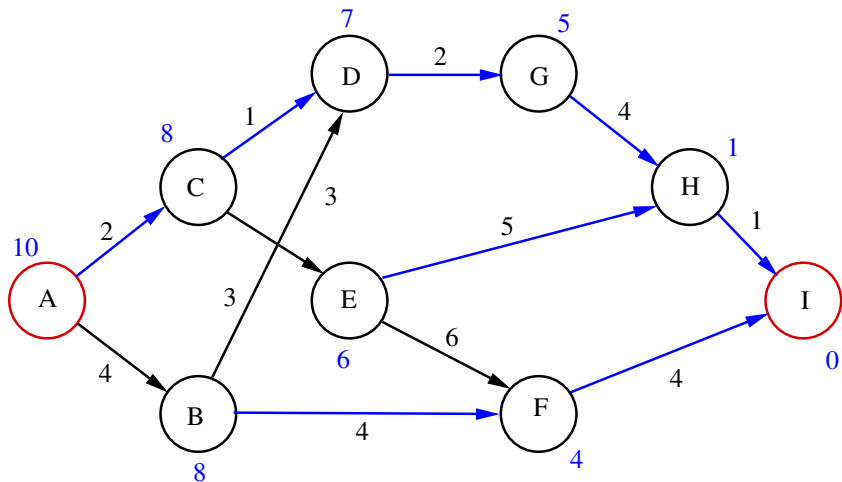
# Dynamic programming: Example

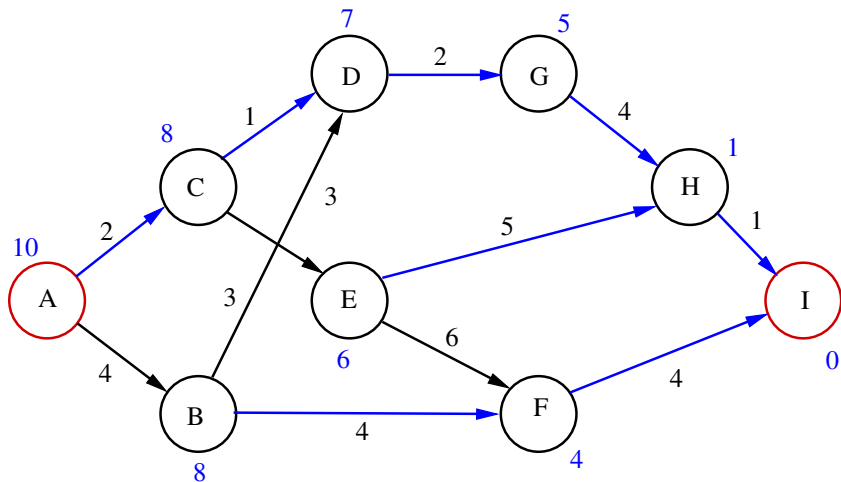


# Dynamic programming: Example









There are two main problems:

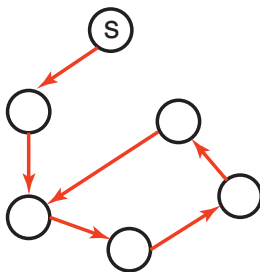
- You need enough space to store the graph.
- The *dist* function needs to be recomputed for each goal.

- The definition of searching is symmetric: find path from start nodes to goal node or from goal node to start nodes.
- Search complexity is  $b^n$ . Should use forward search if forward branching factor is less than backward branching factor, and vice versa.
- Note: sometimes when graph is dynamically constructed, you may not be able to construct the backwards graph.

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## Bi-directional search

- You can search backward from the goal and forward from the start simultaneously.
- This wins as  $2b^{k/2} \ll b^k$ . This can result in an exponential saving in time and space.
- The main problem is making sure the frontiers meet.
- This is often used with one breadth-first method that builds a set of locations that can lead to the goal. In the other direction another method can be used to find a path to these interesting locations.



- A searcher can prune a path that ends in a node already on the path, without removing an optimal solution.
- Using depth-first methods, with the graph explicitly stored, this can be done in constant time.
- For other methods, the cost is linear in path length.