COMP3411/9414: Artificial Intelligence Module 2

Solving problems by searching

Russell & Norvig, Chapter 3.

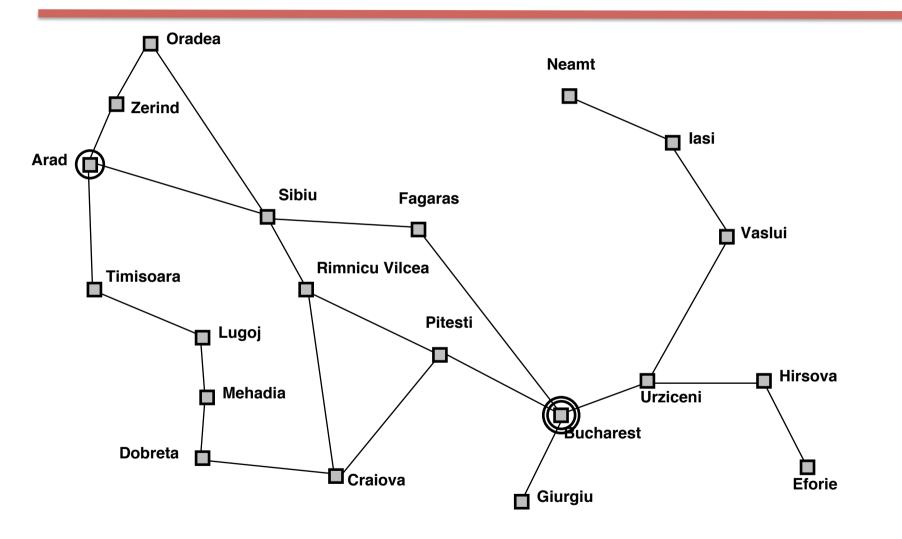
Outline

- Problem-solving agents
- Problem types
- Problem formulation
- Example problems
- Basic search algorithms

Motivation

- Reactive and Model-Based Agents choose their actions based only on what they currently perceive, or have perceived in the past.
- A Planning Agent can use Search techniques to plan several steps ahead in order to achieve its goal(s).
- Two classes of search strategies:
 - Uninformed search strategies can only distinguish goal states from non-goal states
 - Informed search strategies use heuristics to try to get "closer" to the goal

Example: Romania



Example: Romania

On holiday in Romania; currently in Arad. Flight leaves tomorrow from Bucharest: non-refundable ticket.

- Step 1 Formulate goal:
 - be in Bucharest on time

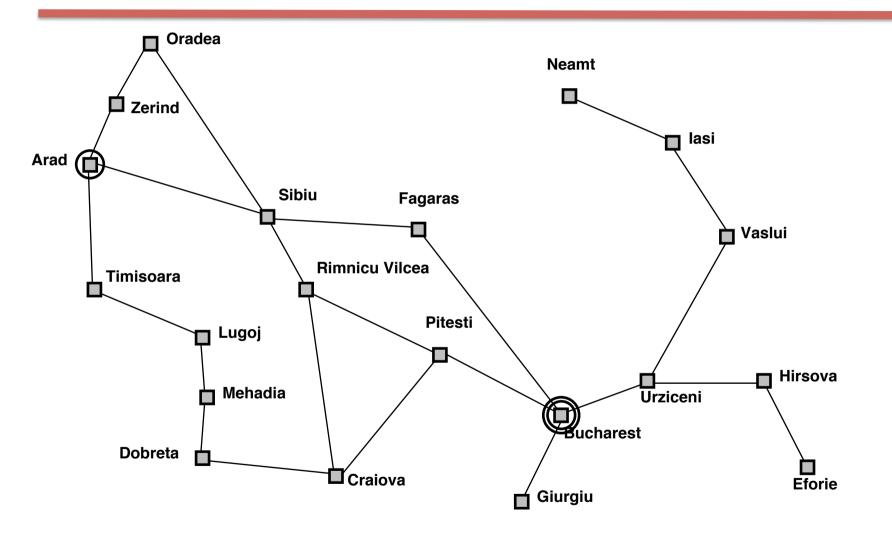
Example: Romania

On holiday in Romania; currently in Arad. Flight leaves tomorrow from Bucharest: non-refundable ticket.

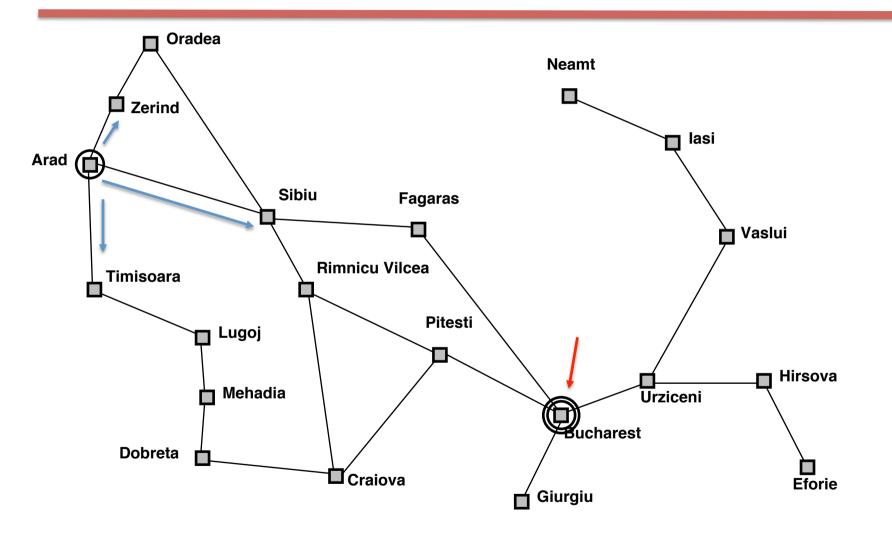
- Step 1 Formulate goal:
 - be in Bucharest on time
- Step 2 Formulate problem Specify task
 - states: various cities
 - actions (operators) (= transitions between states): drive between cities

An agent with several immediate options of unknown value can decide what to do by first examining future actions that eventually lead to states of known value.

Example: Romania



Example: Romania

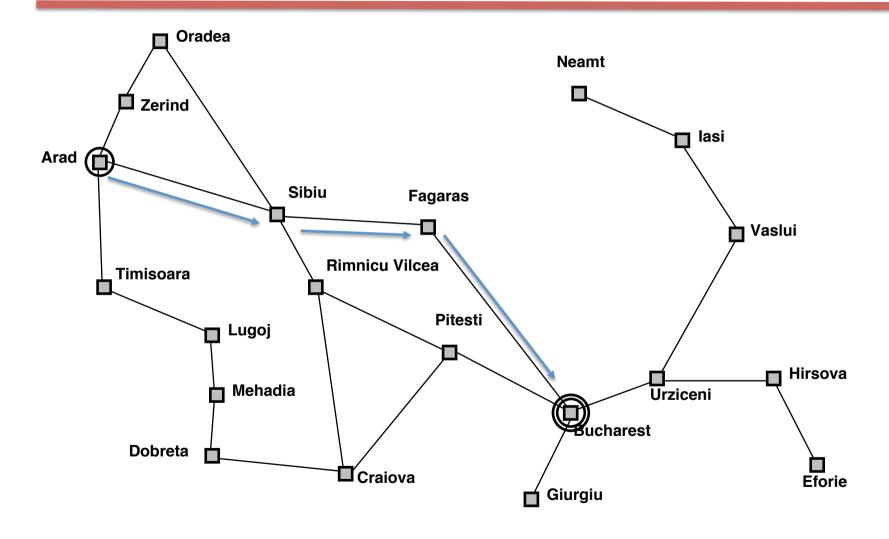


Example: Romania

On holiday in Romania; currently in Arad. Flight leaves tomorrow from Bucharest: non-refundable ticket.

- Step 1 Formulate goal:
 - be in Bucharest on time
- Step 2 Formulate problem Specify task:
 - > states: various cities
 - > actions (operators) (= transitions between states): drive between cities
- Step 3 Find solution (= action sequences): sequence of cities, e.g.
 Arad, Sibiu, Fagaras, Bucharest
- Step 4 Execute: drive through all the cities given by the solution.

Example: Romania



Single-state Task Specification

A task is specified by states and actions: :

- state space e.g. other cities
- initial state e.g., "at Arad"
- **actions or operators (or successor function** S(x)) = set of action—state pairs e.g. Arad \rightarrow Zerind Arad \rightarrow Sibiu etc.
- goal test, check if a state is goal state In this case, there is only one goal specified ("at Bucharest")
- path cost e.g. sum of distances, number of actions etc.
- A solution is a sequence of actions leading from the initial state to a goal state

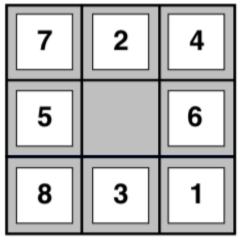
Choosing States and Actions

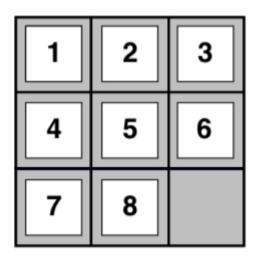
- Real world is absurdly complex
 - > state space must be abstracted for problem solving
- (abstract) state = set of real states
- (abstract) action = complex combination of real actions
 - ▶ e.g., "Arad → Zerind" represents a complex set of possible routes, detours, rest stops, etc.
 - For guaranteed realizability, any real state "in Arad" must get to some real state "in Zerind"
- (abstract) solution = set of real paths that are solutions in the real world
 - > Each abstract action should be "easier" than the original problem

Example Problems

- Toy problems: concise exact description
- Real world problems: don't have a single agreed description

Example: The 8-puzzle



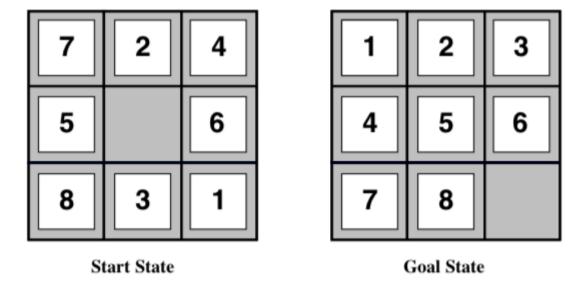


Start State

Goal State

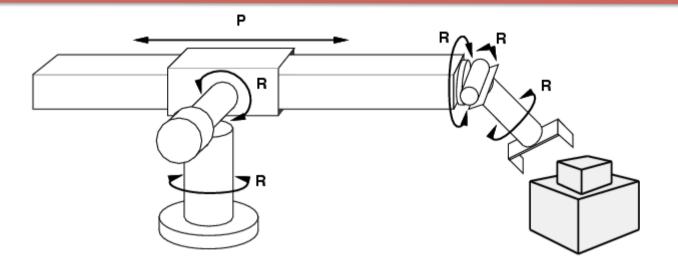
- states?
- actions?
- goal test?
- path cost?

Example: The 8-puzzle



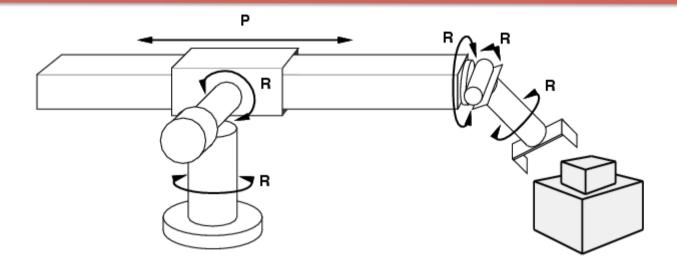
- states? integer locations of tiles (ignore intermediate positions)
- actions? move blank left, right, up, down (ignore unjamming etc.)
- goal test? = goal state (given)
- path cost? 1 per move

Example: robotic assembly



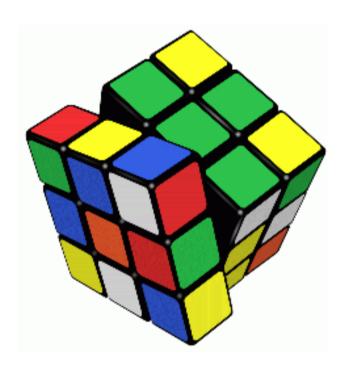
- states?
- actions?
- goal test?
- path cost?

Example: robotic assembly



- states?: real-valued coordinates of robot joint angles parts of the object to be assembled
- actions?: continuous motions of robot joints
- goal test?: complete assembly with no robot included
- path cost?: time to execute

Rubik's Cube



- states?
- actions?
- goal test?
- path cost?

Path Search Algorithms

Search: Finding state-action sequences that lead to desirable states. Search is a function

solution search(task)

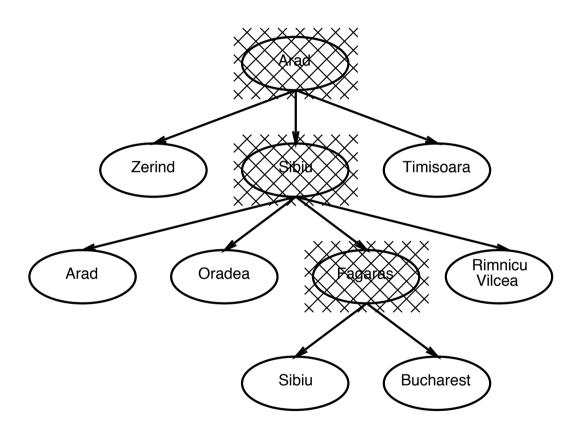
Basic idea:

Offline, simulated exploration of state space by generating successors of already-explored states (i.e. "expanding" them)

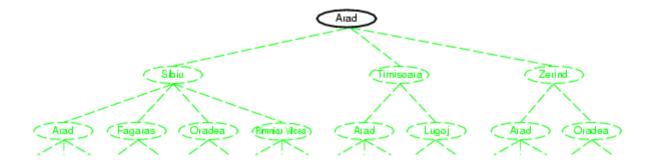
Generating Action Sequences

- Start with a priority queue consisting of just the initial state.
- 2. Choose a state from the queue of states which have been generated but not yet expanded.
- 3. Check if the selected state is a Goal State. If it is, STOP (solution has been found).
- 4. Otherwise, expand the chosen state by applying all possible transitions and generating all its children.
- 5. If the queue is empty, Stop (no solution exists).
- 6. Otherwise, go back to Step 2.

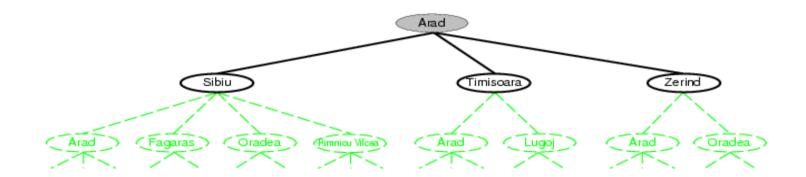
General Search Example



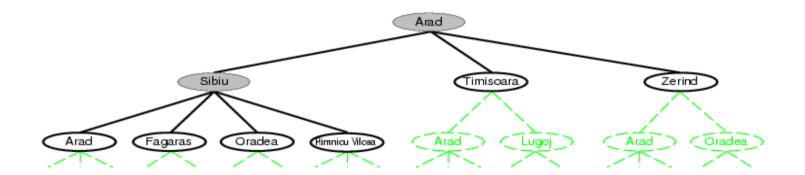
Tree search example



Tree search example



Tree search example



Search Tree

- Search tree: superimposed over the state space.
- Root: search node corresponding to the initial state.
- Leaf nodes: correspond to states that have no successors in the tree because they were not expanded or generated no new nodes.
- state space is not the same as search tree
 - > there are 20 states = 20 cities in the route finding example
 - but there are infinitely many paths!

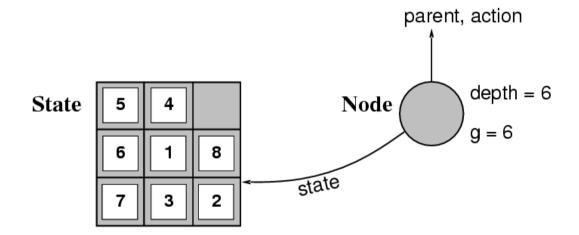
Data Structures for a Node

One possibility is to have a node data structure with five components:

- 1. Corresponding state
- 2. Parent node: the node which generated the current node.
- 3. Operator that was applied to generate the current node.
- 4. Depth: number of nodes from the root to the current node.
- Path cost.

Implementation: states vs. nodes

- A state is a (representation of) a physical configuration
- A node is a data structure constituting part of a search tree includes parent node, children, depth, path cost g(x)



- Note: two different nodes can contain the same state.
- The Expand function creates new nodes, filling in the various fields and using the SuccessorFn of the problem to create the corresponding states.

Data Structures for Search Trees

- Frontier: collection of nodes waiting to be expanded It can be implemented as a *priority queue* with the following operations:
- MAKE-QUEUE (ITEMS) creates queue with given items.
- Boolean EMPTY (QUEUE) returns TRUE if no items in queue.
- REMOVE FRONT (QUEUE) removes the item at the front of the queue and returns it.
- QUEUEING-FUNCTION (ITEMS, QUEUE) inserts new items into the queue.

Search Strategies

- A strategy is defined by picking the order of node expansion
- Strategies are evaluated along the following dimensions:
 - completeness does it always find a solution if one exists?
 - time complexity number of nodes generated/expanded
 - space complexity maximum number of nodes in memory
 - optimality does it always find a least-cost solution?
- Time and space complexity are measured in terms of
 - \rightarrow b maximum branching factor of the search tree

 - \rightarrow m maximum depth of the state space (may be ∞)

How Fast and How Much Memory?

How to compare algorithms? Two approaches:

- 1. Benchmarking: run both algorithms on a computer and measure speed
- 2. Analysis of algorithms: mathematical analysis of the algorithm

Benchmarking

- Run two algorithms on a computer and measure speed.
 - Depends on implementation, compiler, computer, data, network ...
- Measuring time
- Processor cycles
- Counting operations
- Statistical comparison, confidence intervals

Analysis of Algorithms

- T(n) is O(f(n)) means $\exists n_0, k : \forall n > n_0 \ T(n) \le kf(n)$
 - n = input size
 - T(n) = total number of step of the algorithm
- Independent of the implementation, compiler, ...
- Asymptotic analysis: For large n, an O(n) algorithm is better than an $O(n^2)$ algorithm.
- O() abstracts over constant factors e.g. $T(100 \cdot n + 1000)$ is better than $T(n^2 + 1)$ only for n > 110.
- O() notation is a good compromise between precision and ease of analysis.

UNSW

Informed search strategies

Uninformed (or "blind") search strategies use only the information available in the problem definition (can only distinguish a goal from a non-goal state):

- ■Breadth First Search
- Uniform Cost Search
- ■Depth First Search
- ■Depth Limited Search
- Iterative Deepening Search

Strategies are distinguished by the order in which the nodes are expanded.

Informed search strategies

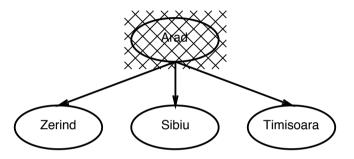
Informed (or "heuristic") search strategies use task-specific knowledge.

- ■Example of task-specific knowledge: distance between cities on the map.
- ■Informed search is more efficient than Uninformed search.
- ■Uninformed search systematically generates new states and tests them against the goal.

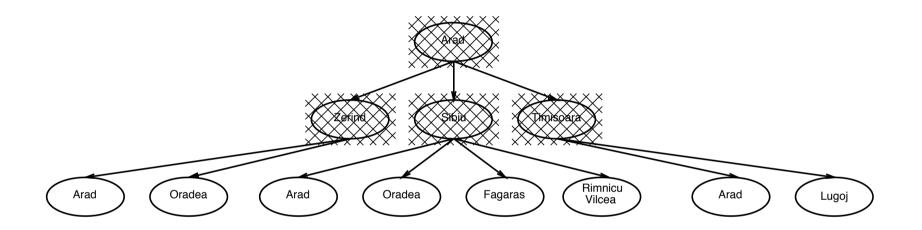
Breadth-First Search

- All nodes are expanded at a given depth in the tree before any nodes at the next level are expanded
- Expand root first, then all nodes generated by root, then All nodes generated by those nodes, etc.
- Expand shallowest unexpanded node
- implementation: QUEUEING-FUNCTION = put newly generated successors at end of queue
- Very systematic
- Finds the shallowest goal first

Breadth-First Search

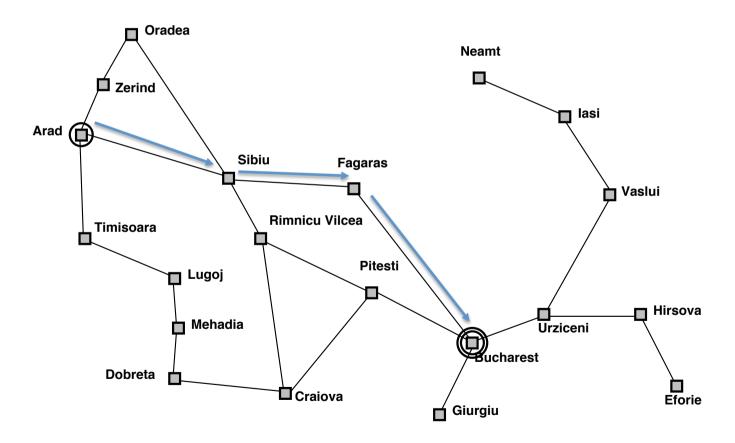


Breadth-First Search



Breadth-First Search

Demo – Video https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=aJnDZscuoj8



Properties of breadth-first search

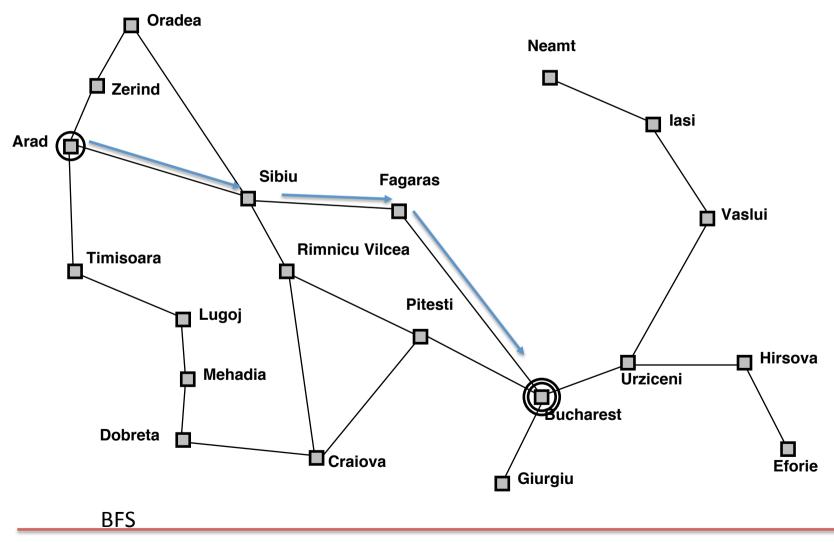
Complete? Yes (if b is finite the shallowest goal is at a fixed depth d and will be found before any deeper nodes are generated)

Time?
$$1+b+b^2+b^3+\ldots+b^d=\frac{b^{d+1}-1}{b-1}=\mathcal{O}(b^d)$$

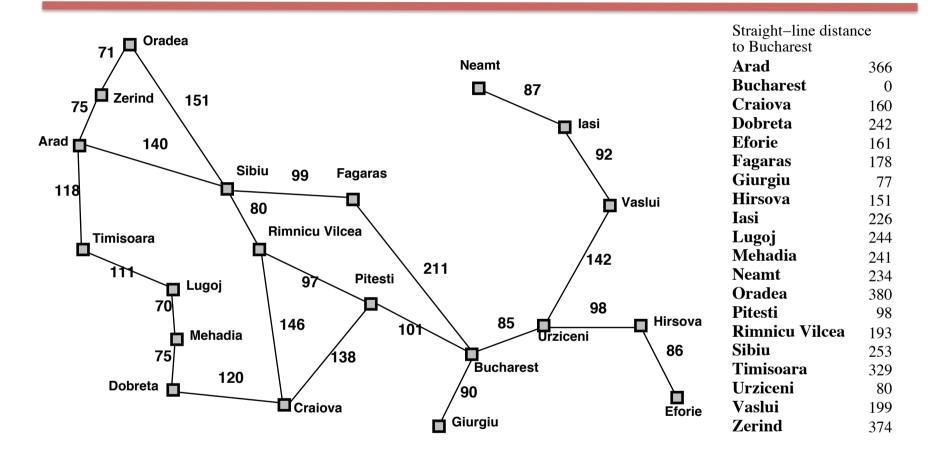
- Space? $O(b^d)$ (keeps every node in memory; generate all Nodes up to level d)
- Optimal? Yes, but only if all actions have the same c

Space is the big problem for BFS; it grows exponentially with depth!

Example: Romania



Romania with step costs in km

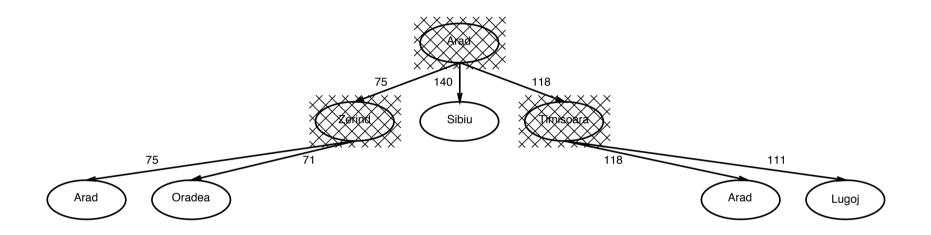


However, we are often looking for the path with the shortest total distance rather than the number of steps.

Uniform-Cost Search

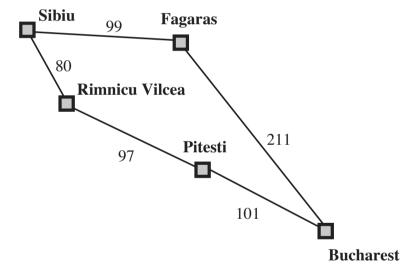
- Expand root first, then expand least-cost unexpanded node
- Implementation: QUEUEING FUNCTION = insert nodes in order of increasing path cost - (lowest path cost g(n)).
- Reduces to Breadth First Search when all actions have same cost
- Finds the cheapest goal provided path cost is monotonically increasing along each path (i.e. no negative-cost steps)

Uniform-Cost Search



Uniform-Cost Search

Demo - PPT



Part of the Romania state space, selected to illustrate uniform-cost search.

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Properties of Uniform-Cost Search

- **■**Complete? Yes, if *b* is finite and if step cost $\geq \varepsilon$ with $\varepsilon > 0$
- Time? $O(b^{\lceil C^*/\epsilon \rceil})$ where C^* = cost of the optimal solution and assume every action costs at least ϵ
- ■Space? $O(b^{\lceil C^*/\epsilon \rceil})$ $(b^{\lceil C^*/\epsilon \rceil} = b^d)$ if all step costs are equal
- **Optimal?** Yes nodes expanded in increasing order of g(n)

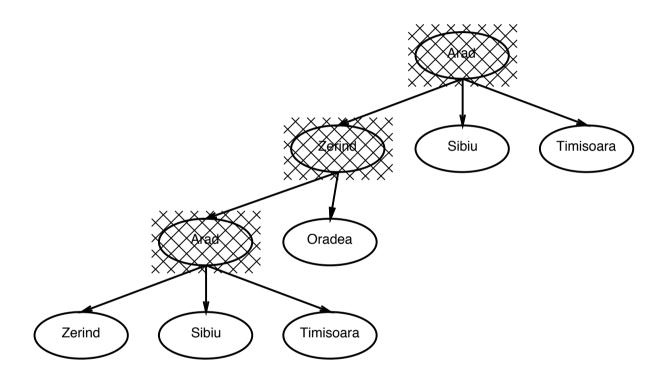
Depth First Search

Expands one of the nodes at the deepest level of the tree

Implementation:

- > QUEUEING FUNCTION = insert newly generated states at the front of the queue (thus making it a stack)
- can alternatively be implemented by recursive function calls

Depth First Search



Depth First Search

Demo – Video https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=fKcXyDMHxRw

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Properties of depth-first search

- Complete? No! fails in infinite-depth spaces, spaces with loops
 - ➤ Modify to avoid repeated states along path → complete in finite spaces
- Time? $O(b^m)$ (terrible if m is much larger than d
 - but if solutions are dense, may be much faster than breadth-first
- Space? *O(bm),* i.e., linear space!
- Optimal? No, can find suboptimal solutions first.

Depth Limited Search

Expands nodes like Depth First Search but imposes a cutoff on the maximum depth of path.

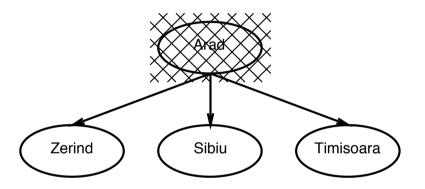
- Complete? Yes (no infinite loops anymore)
- Time? $O(b^k)$ where k is the depth limit
- Space? *O(bk),* i.e., linear space similar to DFS!
- Optimal? No, can find suboptimal solutions first.

Problem: How to pick a good limit?

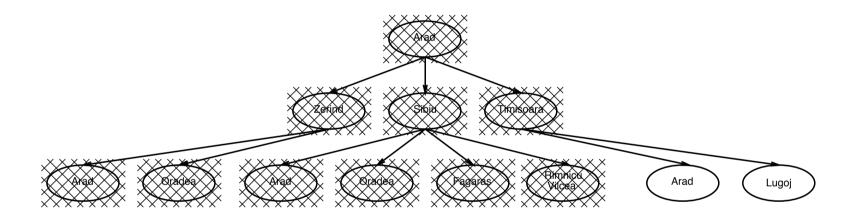
Iterative Deepening Search

- Tries to combine the benefits of depth-first (low memory) and breadth-first (optimal and complete) by doing a series of depth-limited searches to depth 1, 2, 3, etc.
- Early states will be expanded multiple times, but that might not matter too much because most of the nodes are near the leaves.

Iterative Deepening Search



Iterative Deepening Search



Iterative Deepening Search

Demo - PPT

Properties of Iterative Deepening Search

- Complete? Yes.
- Time: nodes at the bottom level are expanded once, nodes at the next level twice, and so on:
 - ➤ depth-limited: $1+b+b^2+b^3+...+b^d=\frac{b^{d+1}-1}{b-1}=\mathcal{O}(b^d)$
 - Iterative deepening:

$$(d+1)b^0 + db^1 + (d-1)b^2 + \dots + 2 \cdot b^{d-1} + 1 \cdot b^d = O(b^d)$$

(We assume b > 1)

Properties of Iterative Deepening Search

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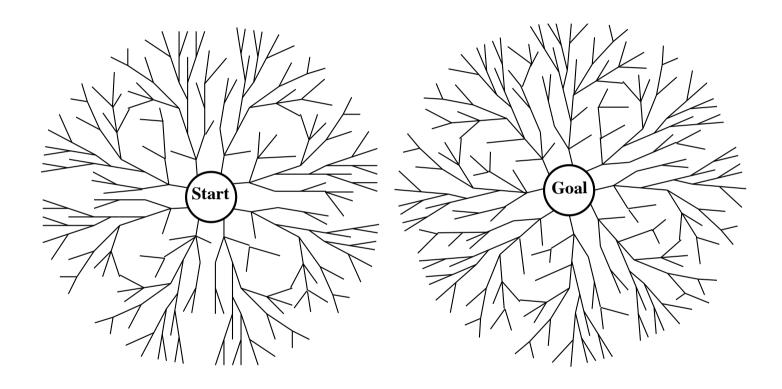
- > Example b=10, d=5:
 - depth-limited: 1 + 10 + 100 + 1,000 + 10,000 + 100,000 = 111,111
 - iterative-deepening: 6 + 50 + 400 + 3,000 + 20,000 + 100,000 = 123,456
 - only about 11% more nodes (for b = 10).

Properties of Iterative Deepening Search

- Complete? Yes.
- Time: $O(b^d)$
- Space? O(bd)
- Optimal? Yes, if step costs are identical.

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Bidirectional Search



Bidirectional Search

- Idea: Search both forward from the initial state and backward from the goal, and stop when the two searches meet in the middle.
- We need an efficient way to check if a new node already appears in the other half of the search. The complexity analysis assumes this can be done in constant time, using a Hash Table.
- Assume branching factor = b in both directions and that there is a solution at depth = d. Then bidirectional search finds a solution in $O(2b^{d/2}) = O(b^{d/2})$ time steps.

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Bidirectional Search – Issues

- searching backwards means generating predecessors starting from the goal, which may be difficult
- there can be several goals e.g. chekmate positions in chess
- Space complexity : $O(b^{d/2})$ because the nodes of at least one half must be kept in memory.

Summary

- Problem formulation usually requires abstracting away realworld details to define a state space that can feasibly be explored.
- Variety of Uninformed search strategies
- Iterative Deepening Search uses only linear space and not much more time than other Uninformed algorithms.

Complexity Results for Uninformed Search

	Breadth-	Uniform-	Depth-	Depth-	Iterative
Criterion	First	Cost	First	Limited	Deepening
Time	$O(b^d)$	$\mathcal{O}(b^{\lceil C^*/\epsilon ceil})$	$O(b^m)$	$O(b^k)$	$\mathcal{O}(b^d)$
Space	$\mathcal{O}(b^d)$	$\mathcal{O}(b^{\lceil C^*/\epsilon ceil})$	O(bm)	O(bk)	O(bd)
Complete?	Yes ¹	Yes ²	No	No	Yes ¹
Optimal ?	Yes ³	Yes	No	No	Yes ³

b = branching factor, d = depth of the shallowest solution,

m = maximum depth of the search tree, k = depth limit.

1 =complete if b is finite.

 $2 = \text{complete if } b \text{ is finite and step costs} \ge \varepsilon \text{ with } \varepsilon > 0.$

3 =optimal if actions all have the same cost.