DATA130008 Introduction to Artificial Intelligence



魏忠钰

Search I

September 14th, 2021

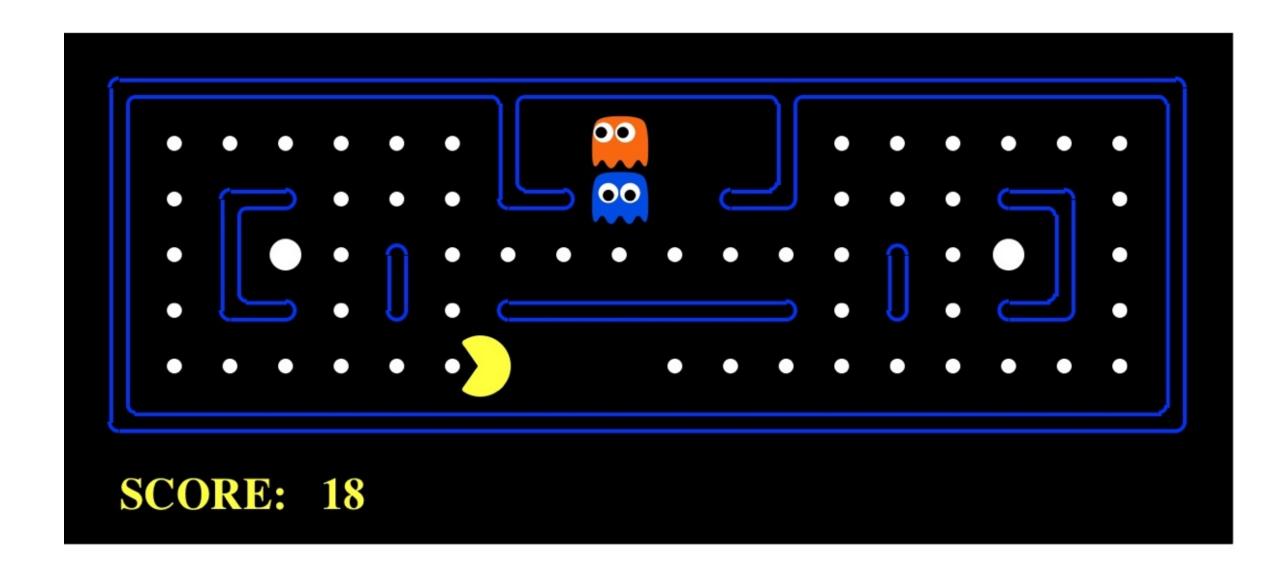
Outline

Search Problems

Search Problems

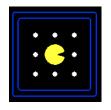
- A search problem consists of:
 - A state space
 - State describes the status of a piece of situation
 - A successor/result function (with actions, costs)
 - Actions are choices an agent could take in each state
 - A start state
 - Where the game starts
 - A goal test
 - When the game ends

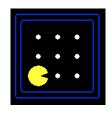
Real world task - Pac-man

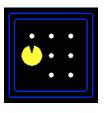


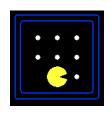
Search problem formulation - Pac-man

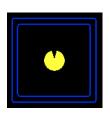
- A search problem consists of:
 - A state space



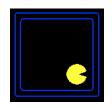










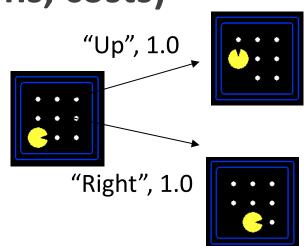


- A successor/result function (with actions, costs)
 - Actions: Up, Down, Left, Right
 - Cost: 1 for each step
- A start state



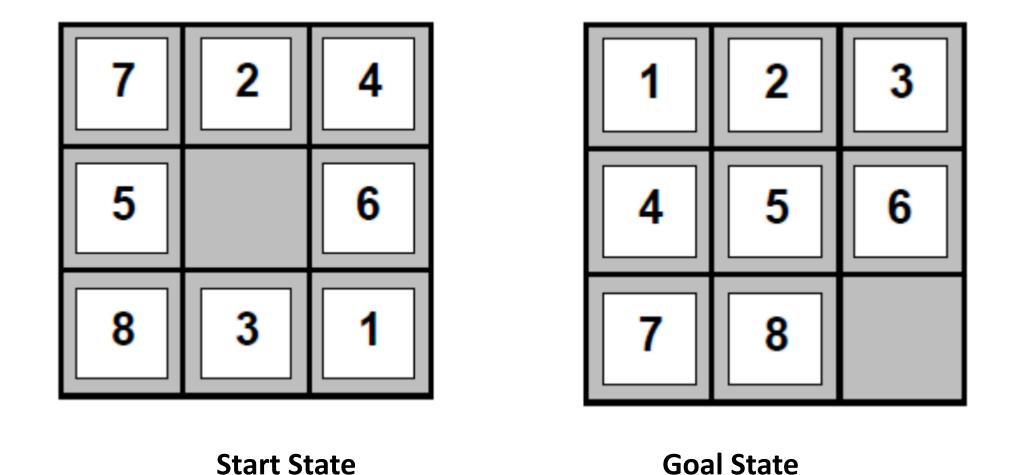


- A goal test
 - Move to a specific position

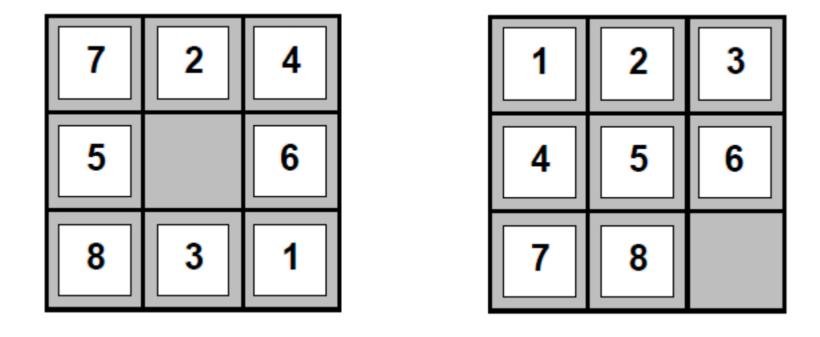


Real world task: the 8-puzzle

You can move each tile to the neighbor position if it is blank



Search problem formulation: the 8-puzzle



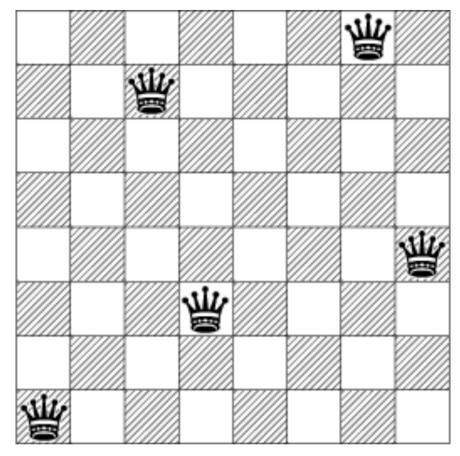
Goal State

- State space
 - Locations of 8 tiles. Each element contains a (x,y).

Start State

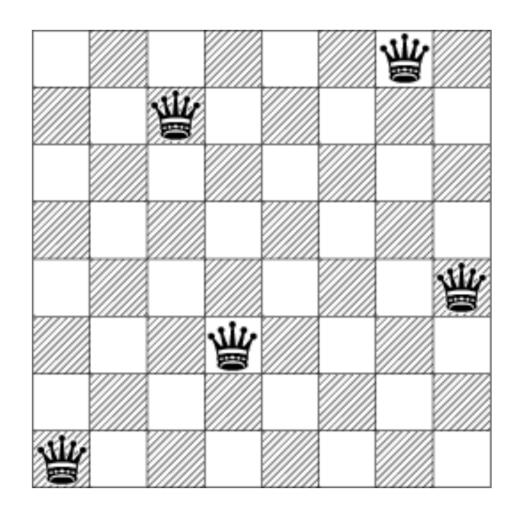
- Successor function:
 - Move blank (up, down, right, left)

Real Task: 8-Queens Puzzle



- Place 8 queens on a chessboard and ensure no two queens attack each other.
- A queen attacks any piece in the same row, column or diagonal.
- In this case, 3 more queens missing

<u>Search problem formulation: 8-Queens Puzzle</u>



State space

any arrangement of 0 to 8 queens on board. A vector a 8X8 elements, 0/1.

Successor function

add a queen to any square

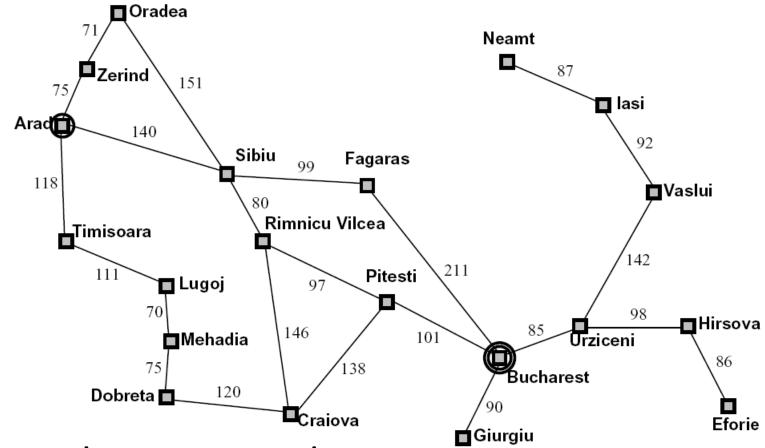
Start state

blank board

Goal test

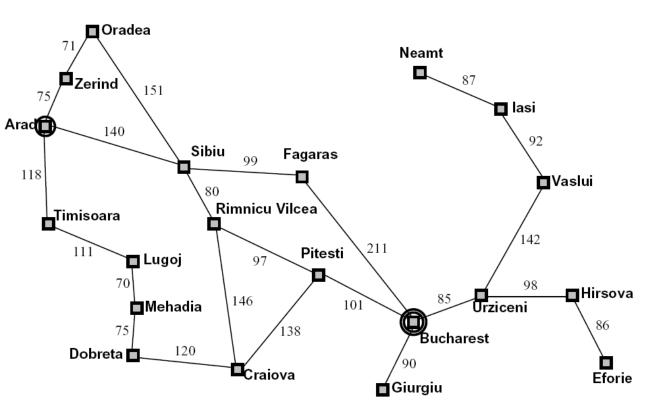
8 queens on board, non attacked

Real world task: Traveling in Romania



- Travel from one city to a target city.
- Each node stands for a city. Numbers on edges are distances.
- Identify a shortest path from origin city to target city.
- In this case from Arad to Bucharest.

Search problem formulation: Traveling in Romania



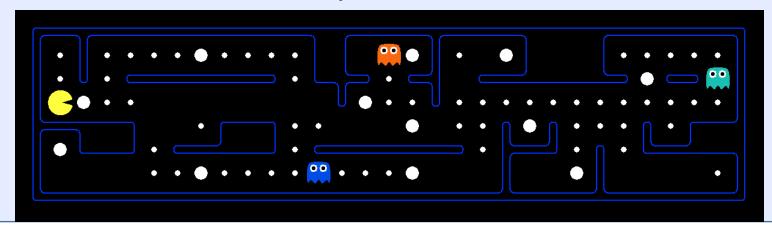
- State space
 - Cities
- Successor function:
 - Action: Go to adjacent city
 - Cost: distance
- Start state:
 - Arad
 - Goal test:
 - Is state == Bucharest?

Outline

- Search Problems
- State Spaces

What is in a State Space?

The world state includes every last detail of the environment



A search state keeps only the details needed for solving a specific problem

Problem: Path-Finding

■ States: (x,y) *location*

Actions: NSEW

Successor: update location following an action

Goal test: is (x,y)=END

■ Problem: Eat-All-Dots

States: { (x,y), dot map}

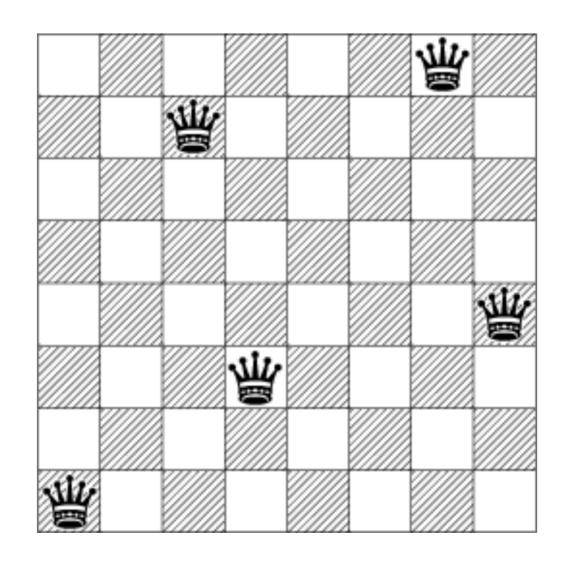
Actions: NSEW

Successor: update location and dot distribution

Goal test: dots all false

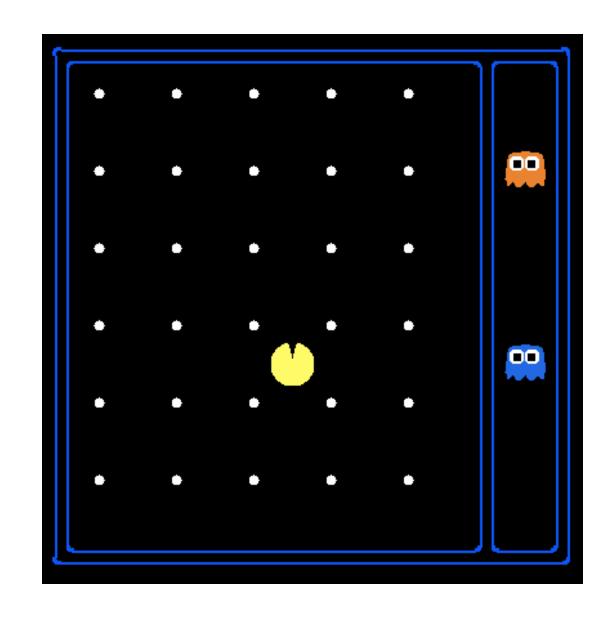
State Space Sizes?

- World state:
 - Board blanks: 64
 - Queen number: 8
- How many
 - World states?
 - **■** 64⁸



State Space Sizes?

- World state:
 - Agent positions: 120
 - Food count: 30
 - Ghost positions: 12
 - Agent facing: NSEW
- How many
 - World states?120x(2³⁰)x(12²)x4
 - States for path-finding?120
 - States for eat-all-dots? 120x(2³⁰)



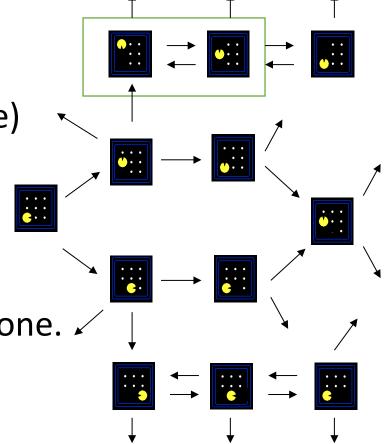
Outline

- Search Problems
- State Spaces
- State Space Representation

State Space Graph

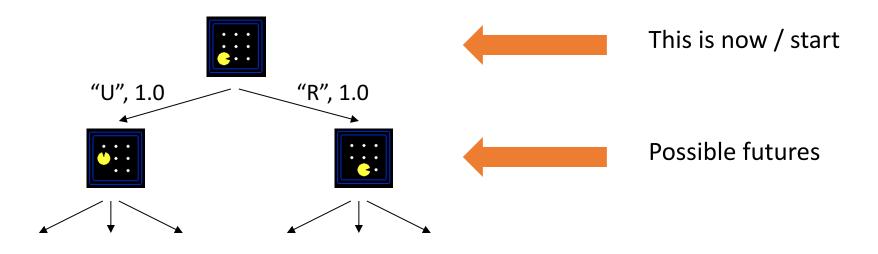
- State space graph: A mathematical representation of a search problem
 - Nodes are (abstracted) states
 - Arcs represent successors (action results)
 - The goal test is a set of goal nodes (maybe only one)

- In a state space graph, each state occurs only once.
- Nodes corresponds to states in the state space one to one.



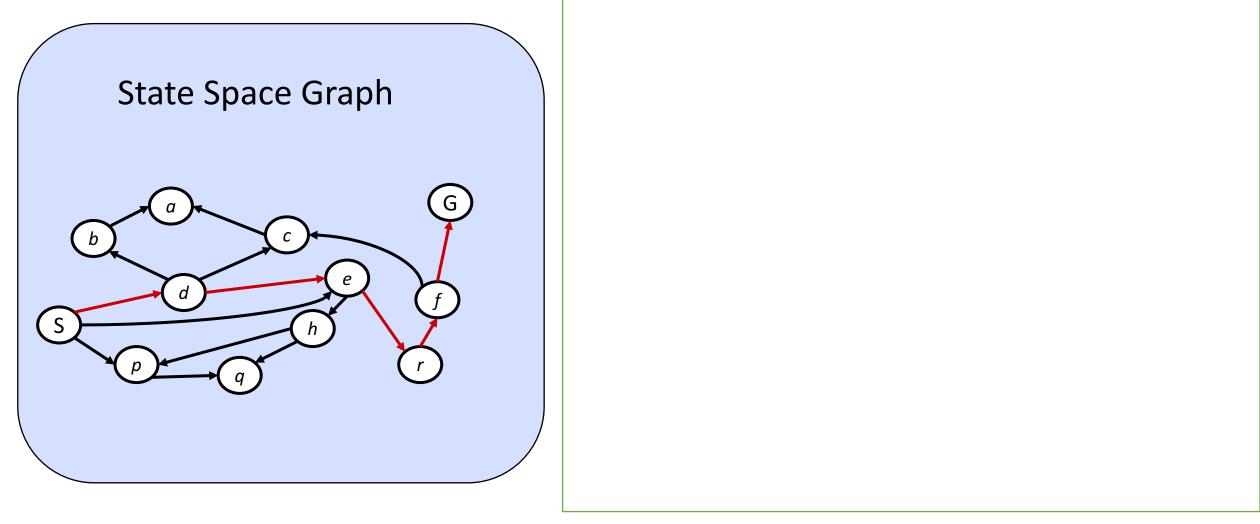
Search Trees

- The start state is the root node
- Children correspond to successors
- Nodes show states, but correspond to PLANS that achieve those states



PLAN means a series of actions.

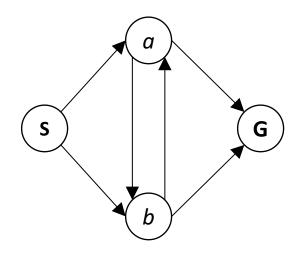
Transforms this State Space Graph to a Search Tree



- Each NODE in the search tree is an entire PATH in the state space graph.
- Each state can can be corresponded to multiple nodes in the tree.

State Space Graphs vs. Search Trees

Consider this 4-state graph:



How big is its search tree (from S)?

Important: Lots of repeated structure in the search tree! For most problems, we can never actually build the whole tree.

Outline

- Search Problems
- State Spaces
- State Space Representation
- Solve a Search Problem

Solving a Search Problem

- A search problem consists of:
 - A state space
 - A successor/result function (with actions, costs)
 - A start state
 - A goal test
- Problem Representation
 - State Space Graph
 - State Search Tree
- Solving a search problem is to identify a sequence of actions from start state to goal state.
- Also known as planning

Standard Search Setup

- Process
 - Start at the initial state from the search tree
 - Expand an un-visited but observed node
 - Generate neighbors of current state (observe new nodes)
 - Test whether the state matches the goal configuration
- Implementation Components
 - Fringe: store those nodes expanded but not visited
 - Expand: numerate neighbors of a node
 - Generate: add a node into fringe
 - Search strategy: choose a node from fringe to visit

Pseudo-Code for Tree Search Paradigm

```
function Tree-Search(problem, fringe) return a solution, or failure fringe \leftarrow Insert(make-node(initial-state[problem]), fringe) loop do

if fringe is empty then return failure

node \leftarrow remove-front(fringe)

if Goal-test(problem, state[node]) then return node

for child-node in expand(state[node], problem) do

fringe \leftarrow insert(child-node, fringe)

end

end
```

Fringe: store those nodes expanded but not visited

Expand: EXPAND

Generate: INSERT

Search strategy: REMOVE-FRONT

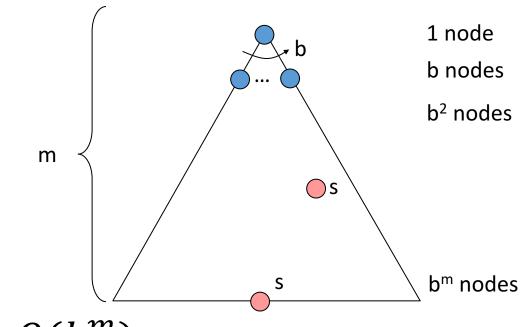
Goal test is performed when the node is removed from the fringe.

Evaluation of Search Algorithm

- Some symbolic of search tree:
 - b is the branching factor
 - m is the maximum depth
 - s are the solutions at various depths
- Number of nodes in entire tree?

$$-1 + b + b^2 + \dots bm = \frac{1-b^{m+1}}{1-b} = O(b^m)$$

- Complete: guaranteed to find a solution if one exists?
- Optimal: guaranteed to find the least cost path?
- Time complexity: # of nodes generated
- Space complexity: # of nodes stored (size of fringe)



Outline

- Search Problems
- State Spaces
- State Space Representation
- Solve a Search Problem
- Uninformed Search Algorithms
 - Depth-First Search
 - Breadth-First Search
 - Iterative Deepening
 - Uniform-Cost Search

Depth-First Search

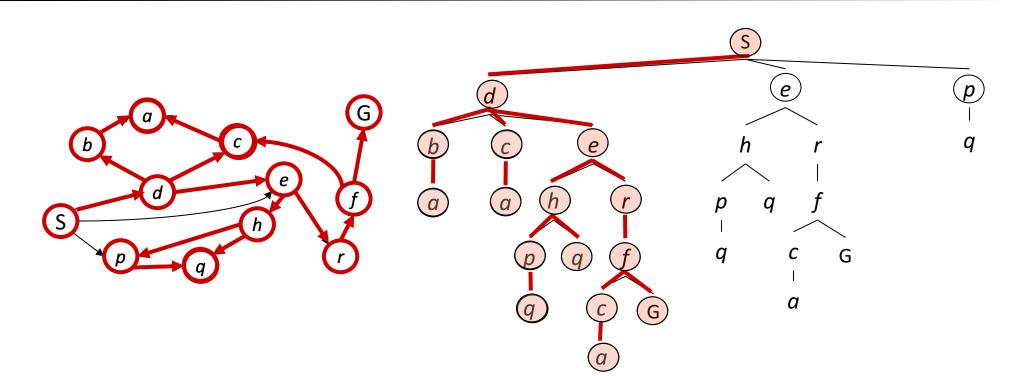
Fringe: A data structure to store nodes observed but not visited

Expand: pop a node from the fringe

Generate: get neighbors of the expanded node and insert them into the fringe

Strategy: expand a deepest node first (number of steps to the root)

Implementation: Fringe is a LIFO stack



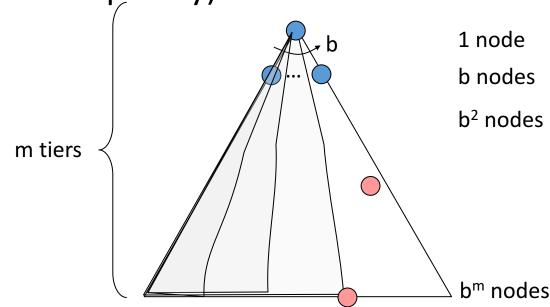
Depth-First Search (DFS) Properties

- How many nodes does DFS generate (Time Complexity)?
 - If m is finite, takes time O(b^m)

• How much space does the fringe take (Space Complexity)?

b nodes in each layer, O(bm)

- Is it complete?
 - No, m can be infinite
- Is it optimal?
 - No, it finds the "leftmost" solution, regardless of depth or cost



Breadth-First Search (BFS)

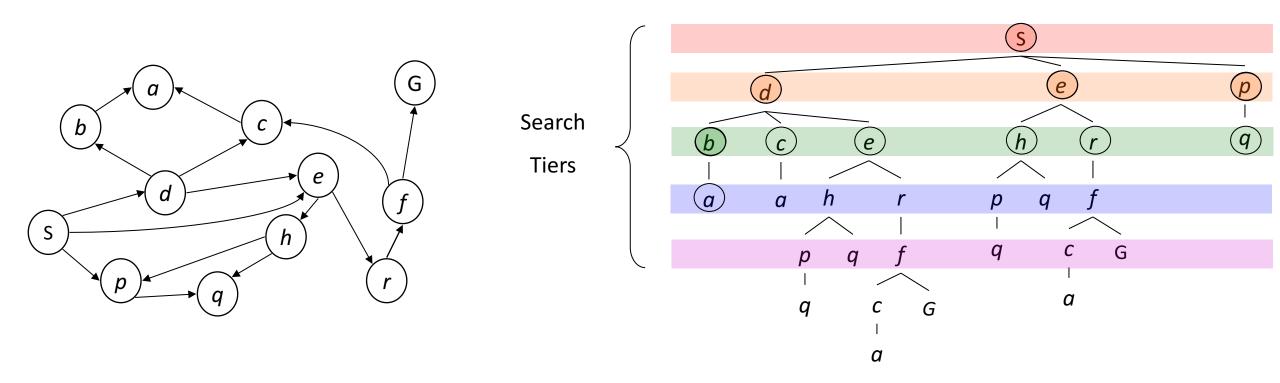
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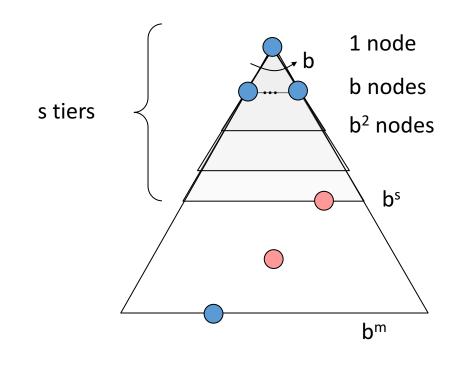
Strategy: expand a shallowest node first (number of steps to the root)

Implementation: Fringe is a FIFO queue



Breadth-First Search (BFS) Properties

- How many nodes does BFS expand (Time Complexity)?
 - Processes all nodes above shallowest solution
 - Let depth of shallowest solution be s
 - Search takes time O(b^{s+1}). Why s+ 1?
- How much space does the fringe take?
 - Has roughly the last tier, so O(b^{s+1})
- Is it complete?
 - yes
- Is it optimal?
 - Yes (if the cost is equal per step)



DFS vs BFS

DFS requires smaller storage

■ BFS is robust (complete and optimal) but needs more space for storage

How bad is BFS?

Depth	Nodes	Time	Memory	
2	110	.11 milliseconds	107 kilobytes	
4	11,110	11 milliseconds	10.6 megabytes	
6	10^{6}	1.1 seconds	1 gigabyte	
8	10^{8}	2 minutes	103 gigabytes	
10	10^{10}	3 hours	10 terabytes	
12	10^{12}	13 days	1 petabyte	
14	10^{14}	3.5 years	99 petabytes	
16	10^{16}	350 years	10 exabytes	

Figure 3.13 Time and memory requirements for breadth-first search. The numbers shown assume branching factor b=10; 1 million nodes/second; 1000 bytes/node.

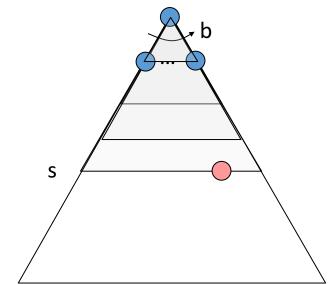
Iterative Deepening

- Idea: get DFS's space advantage with BFS's time / shallow-solution advantages
 - Run a DFS with depth limit 1. If no solution...
 - Run a DFS with depth limit 2. If no solution...
 - Run a DFS with depth limit 3.
- How many nodes does BFS generate?
 - \bullet O(bs+1)
- How much space does the fringe take?
 - O(bs)
- Although the time complexity of IDS is in the same order as BFS, it generates many more nodes.

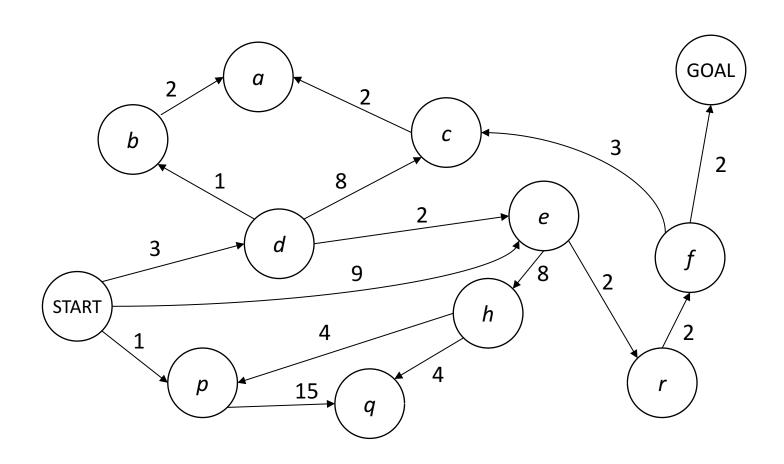
```
b + (b + b<sup>2</sup>) + (b+ b<sup>2</sup>+b<sup>3</sup>)...

= sb^{1} + (s-1)b^{2} + (s-2)b^{3} + (s-3)b^{4}... + b^{s+1}

= O(sb^{1} + (s-1)b^{2} + (s-2)b^{3} + (s-3)b^{4}... + b^{s+1}) = O(b^{s+1})
```



Cost-Sensitive Search



- BFS finds the shortest path in terms of number of actions. It does not find the least-cost path.
- We will now cover a similar algorithm which does find the least-cost path.

Uniform Cost Search

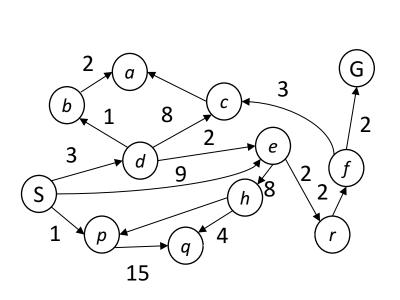
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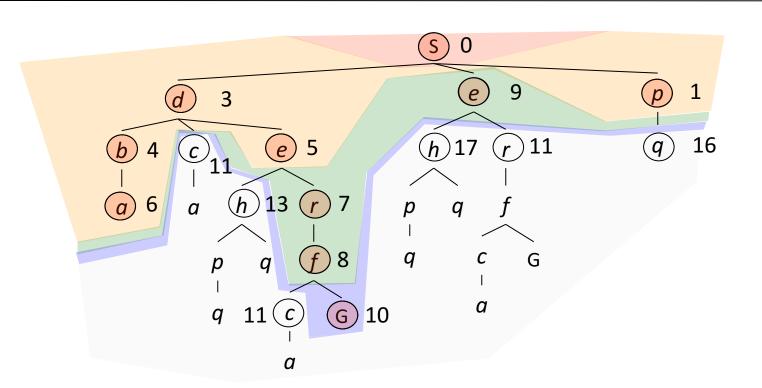
Expand: pop a node from the fringe

Generate: get neighbors of the expanded node and insert them into the fringe

Strategy: expand a node with least cost (accumulative cost from root to this node)

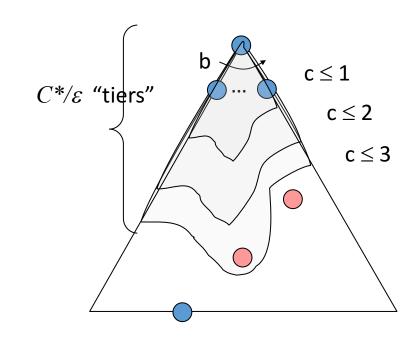
Implementation: Fringe is a Priority queue





Uniform Cost Search (UCS) Properties

- Time Complexity
 - Takes time $O(b^{C^*/\varepsilon+1})$ (exponential in effective depth)
- Space Complexity
 - Has roughly the last tier, so $O(b^{C*/\varepsilon+1})$
- Is it complete?
 - yes!
 - best solution has a finite cost
 - minimum arc cost is positive.
- Is it optimal?
 - Yes! minimum arc cost is positive.



C*: cost for the lowest solution

 ε : the cost of least arc in the search tree

 C^*/ϵ : effective depth, most steps from root to the solution

Comparison

Algorithm	Complete?	Optimal?	Time?	Space?
DFS	N	N	$O(b^m)$	O(bm)
BFS	Υ	Υ	$O(b^{s+1})$	$O(b^{s+I})$
IDS	Υ	Υ	$O(b^{s+1})$	O(bs)
UCS	Υ	Υ	$O(b^{C*/\varepsilon+1})$	$O(b^{C*/\varepsilon+1})$

b is branching factor
s is the depth of the optimal solution
m is the maximum depth of the tree
C* is cost for the lowest solution
ε is the cost of least arc in the search tree

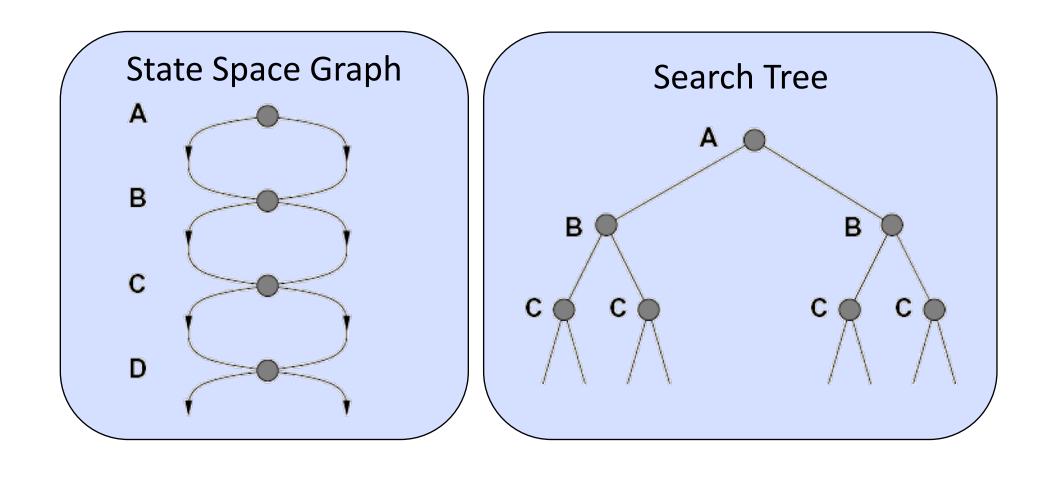
For BFS, Suppose the branching factor b is finite and step costs are identical

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- Tree Search VS Graph Search

Tree Search: Extra Work!

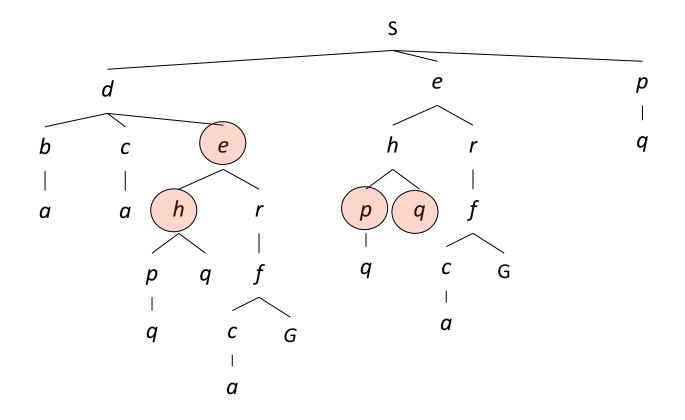
■ Failure to detect repeated states can cause exponentially more work.



Motivation of Graph Search

• We shouldn't bother expanding the circled nodes (why?)

We have visited their related states earlier with less cost



Graph Search

Idea: never expand a state twice

■ Tree search + set of expanded states ("closed set")

Update the expanded states set after expanding a state

Check the expanded states set before expanding a state, if it has been added into the set, skip it.

Pseudo-Code for Search Paradigm

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function Tree-Search(problem, fringe) return a solution, or failure
fringe ← Insert(make-node(initial-state[problem]), fringe)
loop do
if fringe is empty then return failure
node ← remove-front(fringe)
if goal-test(problem, state[node]) then return node
for child-node in expand(state[node], problem) do
fringe ← insert(child-node, fringe)
end
end
```

```
function Graph-Search(problem, fringe) return a solution, or failure

| closed ← an empty set |
| fringe ← Insert(make-node(initial-state[problem]), fringe) |
| loop do |
| if fringe is empty then return failure |
| node ← remove-front(fringe) |
| if goal-test(problem, state[node]) then return node |
| if state[node] is not in closed then |
| add state[node] to closed |
| for child-node in expand(state[node], problem) do |
| fringe ← insert(child-node, fringe) |
| end |
| end |
```