

# Introduction to Program Synthesis (WS 2024/25)

## Chapter 3.1 - Traditional Methodologies (Naive Search)

Dr. rer. nat. Roman Kalkreuth

Chair for AI Methodology (**AIM**), Department of Computer Science,  
RWTH Aachen University, Germany



Center for  
Artificial Intelligence



# Traditional Methodologies

## Naive Search

- ▶ Naive search methods → Easy to implement
  - ▶ Lack of sophisticated search strategies
- ▶ Use of such methods is usually entails a high computational effort
- ▶ Can be applied to a wide range of search problems
  - ▶ Program synthesis can be considered a search problem
  - ▶ Search problems can be considered decision problems

# Traditional Methodologies

## Naive Search

- ▶ Naive search → Commonly performed in enumerative or stochastic fashion
  - ▶ Have been successfully applied to many problems in the past
- ▶ **Exhaustive Search** → Enumerative search problem
  - ▶ Iterative or recursive search method
  - ▶ Prone to combinatorial explosion
- ▶ **Monte-Carlo Search** → Stochastic search problem
  - ▶ Search is based on random sampling
  - ▶ Pure random search → divergent method without any guarantee of convergence or success

# Traditional Methodologies

## Naive Search

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<b>candidate</b>	— potential solution that can replace the current (best) solution
<b>configuration</b>	— setting of a candidate
<b>solution</b>	— valid and complete solution that satisfies all constraints
<b>partial solution</b>	— incomplete solution that does not fulfill all constraints
<b>feasible solution</b>	— complete or partial solution that adheres all constraints
<b>optimal solution</b>	— best (ideal) possible solution
<b>dead end</b>	— point where further extension would cause violating constraints
<b>backtrack</b>	— return to a previous decision point
<b>search space</b>	— space of all possible permutations and choices

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**Table:** Basic terminologies used for the description of search problems and algorithms

# Traditional Methodologies

## Naive Search

- ▶ Characteristics of a search problem:
  - ▶ Set of states  $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_N \rightarrow$  State space
  - ▶ Start state  $S_0 \rightarrow$  State after initialization
  - ▶ Goal state  $S_G \rightarrow$  Ideal solution
  - ▶ Successor function  $\delta \rightarrow$  Transition operator

# Traditional Methodologies

## Naive Search

### Definition (Search Problem)

Given a set  $X$  of candidate solutions, and a property  $P : X \rightarrow \{\text{True}, \text{False}\}$ , find a  $x \in X$  such that  $P(x)$  is True.

# Traditional Methodologies

## Enumerative Search: Considerations

- ▶ No efficient solution method exists  $\rightarrow$  Exhaustive Search
- ▶ Evaluation of each possibility in sequential fashion
  - ▶ Also known as **brute force search (BFS)**
- ▶ BFS has two operations that are performed with a search problem  $P$  and candidate  $c$ 
  - ▶  $\text{valid}(\mathcal{P}, c) \rightarrow$  Checks the validity of candidate solutions
  - ▶  $\text{output}(\mathcal{P}, c) \rightarrow$  Outputs the optimal solution
  - ▶  $\text{first}(\mathcal{P}) \rightarrow$  Returns the first element for the iteration
  - ▶  $\text{next}(\mathcal{P}) \rightarrow$  Returns the next element considered in the iteration
  - ▶  $\text{terminate}(\mathcal{P}, c, n) \rightarrow$  Checks terminate conditions

# Traditional Methodologies

## Enumerative Search: Characteristics

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### Algorithm Brute Force Search

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```
1:  $c \leftarrow \text{first}(\mathcal{P})$ 
2:  $n \leftarrow 0$ 
3: repeat
4:   if  $\text{valid}(\mathcal{P}, c)$  then  $\text{output}(\mathcal{P}, c)$ 
5:   end if
6:    $c \leftarrow \text{next}(\mathcal{P})$ 
7:    $n \leftarrow n + 1$ 
8: until  $\text{terminate}(\mathcal{P}, c, n) == \text{true}$ 
```

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▷ *Until termination criteria not triggered*



# Traditional Methodologies

## Enumerative Search: Historical Example

- ▶ **Enigma machine** → cipher device
  - ▶ Developed and used in the early - mid 20th century
  - ▶ Encrypted military, diplomatic and commercial communication
  - ▶ Widely used by the Nazis in the second world war
- ▶ Encryption via rotors that manipulate electric pathways
  - ▶ Additional plugboard for letter swapping
  - ▶ Increases cryptographic strength

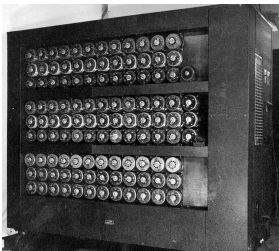


Figure: Enigma cipher machine (Source: Wikimedia)

# Traditional Methodologies

## Enumerative Search: Historical Example

- ▶ **Turing bomb** → Machine that is able to break the Enigma
  - ▶ Developed by Alan Turing during WWII
  - ▶ Relies on electric-mechanical exhaustive search
- ▶ Successfully decrypted intercepted German radio messages
  - ▶ Exhaustive search in the *setting space* of the Enigma
  - ▶ Enigma used in WWII had 158,962,555,217,826,360,000  $\approx 10^{20}$  different settings



**Figure:** Turing bomb at Bletchley Park in times of WWII (UK) (Source: Wikimedia)

# Traditional Methodologies

## Recursive Enumeration

### Definition (Enumerative Problem)

A enumeration problem  $\mathcal{P}$  is characterized with:

- ▶ An arbitrary alphabet  $\Sigma$
- ▶ A relation over strings or symbols  $\mathcal{R}$ :  $\mathcal{R} \subseteq \Sigma^* \times \Sigma^*$

An enumerative search algorithm  $V$  produces a sequence  $y$  for the input  $x$  given to  $V$  without duplicates and for  $z \in y \iff (x, z) \in \mathcal{R}$ .

# Traditional Methodologies

## Recursive Enumeration

**Listing:** Sub-sequences of 1 .. 4 in military order

```
1
2
3
4
1 2
1 3
1 4
2 3
2 4
3 4
1 2 3
1 2 4
1 3 4
2 3 4
1 2 3 4
```

**Listing:** Sub-sequences of 1 .. 4 in lexicographic order

```
1
1 2
1 2 3
1 2 3 4
1 2 4
1 3
1 3 4
1 4
2
2 3
2 3 4
2 4
3
3 4
4
```

- ▶ The number of subsequences of 1 ..  $n$  grows exponentially with  $n$ 
  - ▶ Doubles when  $n$  is incremented by 1

# Traditional Methodologies

## Enumerative Search: Recursive Enumeration

- ▶ Traditional exhaustive search → executed in iterative fashion
- ▶ Recursive search → Enumerative search performed with recursion
  - ▶ Base case is defined as **goal state** or **dead end**
  - ▶ Preferred for enumerative search problems solved with (data) structures well suited for recursion → Tree, Graph, ...

# Traditional Methodologies

## Recursion

### ► Advantages:

- Allows problems to be solved in a concise and straight-forward way
- More readable code that is easier to understand
- Less time needed to implement solvers for certain problems
- Dynamic properties

### ► Disadvantages:

- Mostly more time and space requirements
- Overhead caused by a high number of function calls → can be optimized with **tail recursion**

# Traditional Methodologies

## Enumerative Search: Recursive Enumeration

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### Algorithm Enumerative Recursive Search (ERS)

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#### Arguments

$S_n$ : Starting or intermediate state

#### Return

$S_g$ : Goal or base case

```
1: procedure ERS( $S_n$ )
2:   if  $S_n == G$  then                                ▷ Base case 1: Intermediate state is goal state G
3:     output  $S_n$ 
4:     return  $S_n$ 
5:   else if  $S_n == \text{null}$  then                          ▷ Base case 2: Intermediate state does not exist
6:     return  $S_n$ 
7:   else
8:      $S_{n+1} \leftarrow \delta(S_n)$                     ▷ Execute transition function to obtain next element
9:     ERS( $S_{n+1}$ )                                     ▷ Perform recursion step
10:  end if
11: end procedure
```

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# Traditional Methodologies

## Enumerative Search: Backtracking

- ▶ **Backtracking** → Stepping back to a prior decision point
  - ▶ Making use of recursion to explore all valid possibilities
- ▶ Recursive function → Calls itself until base case is reached
- ▶ Backtracking rejects candidates that cannot fulfill the conditions required for the solution
  - ▶ Extension of recursion by using an acceptance function  $\alpha$
  - ▶ Let  $S$  be a state then  $\alpha$  is defined as  $\alpha : S \rightarrow \{\text{True}, \text{False}\}$



# Traditional Methodologies

## Enumerative Search: Historical Example

S - Start State  
C - Checkpoint  
T - Terminal  
G - Goal State

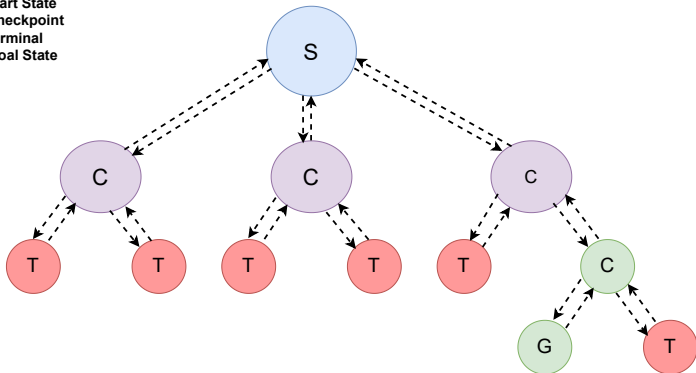


Figure: Backtracking

# Traditional Methodologies

## Exhaustive Search

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### Algorithm Enumerative Recursive Search (ERS) with backtracking

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#### Arguments

$S_n$ : Starting or intermediate state

#### Return

$S_g$ : Goal or base case

```
1: procedure ERS( $S_n$ )
2:   if  $S_n == G$  then                                ▷ Base case 1: Intermediate state is goal state G
3:     output  $S_n$ 
4:     return  $S_n$ 
5:   else if  $S_n == \text{null}$  then                          ▷ Base case 2: Intermediate state does not exist
6:     return  $S_n$ 
7:   else
8:      $S_{n+1} \leftarrow \delta(S_n)$ 
9:     if  $\alpha(S_{n+1}) == \text{true}$  then                    ▷ Backtracking: Call of rejection function
10:      ERS( $S_{n+1}$ )                                     ▷ Recursive step if solution is accepted
11:    else
12:      return  $S_n$                                        ▷ Return checkpoint state in case of rejection
13:    end if
14:  end if
15: end procedure
```

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# Traditional Methodologies

## Monte-Carlo Search

- ▶ **Monte-Carlo Search (MCS)** → Based on Monte-Carlo Sampling
  - ▶ Also known as random search or Monte-Carlo method
- ▶ Foundation of randomized search heuristics
  - ▶ Family of black-box optimization and search algorithms
  - ▶ Local search methods, evolutionary algorithms, ...

# Traditional Methodologies

## Randomized Search

- ▶ Randomized search methods → Commonly performed iteratively
- ▶ New samples are drawn from a predefined probability distribution
  - ▶ **Uniform** and **normal distribution** are common choices
  - ▶ Either one new search point or a set of points are sampled
  - ▶ Evaluation with a cost function i.e.  $\mathcal{C} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
  - ▶ Termination criterion → number of iterations or ideal cost function value
  - ▶ Popular representatives:
    - ▶ Random walk
    - ▶ Hill climbing

# Traditional Methodologies

## Randomized Search: Random Walk

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### Algorithm Random Walk (RW)

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```
1:  $P \sim U$  ▷ Sample initial state
2: repeat ▷ Until termination criteria not triggered
3:    $Q \sim U$  ▷ Sample new search point
4:    $P \leftarrow Q$  ▷ Replace old search point
5: until  $\mathcal{P}$  meets termination criterion
6: return  $\mathcal{P}$  ▷
```

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- ▶ Divergent and unbounded/unrestricted stochastic process
- ▶ Based on pure random sampling
- ▶ No rejection criterion → acceptance of inferior steps

# Traditional Methodologies

## Randomized Search: Random Local Search

- ▶ **Random Local Search (RLS)** → Exploits the neighbourhood of a search point by chance
- ▶ A neighbourhood is sampled in each step → Neighbourhood function  $\mathcal{N}$
- ▶ A strategy is applied to accept or reject members of the neighbourhood
- ▶ Popular method in the family of RLS algorithms → **Hill climbing**

# Traditional Methodologies

## Randomized Search: Hill Climbing (HC)

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### Algorithm Hill Climbing (HC)

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```
1:  $P \sim U$  ▷ Sample initial point
2: repeat ▷ Until termination criteria not triggered
3:    $Q \leftarrow \mathcal{N}(P)$  ▷ Create neighbour
4:   ▷ Evaluate cost and check potential replacement
5:   if  $\mathcal{C}(Q)$  better than  $\mathcal{C}(P)$  then
6:      $P \leftarrow Q$  ▷ Replace best immediate search result
7:   end if
8: until  $P$  meets termination criterion
9: return  $P$  ▷
```

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# Traditional Methodologies

## Randomized Search: Random Local Search

- ▶ **Stochastic HC** → Selection among improving (uphill) neighbours
- ▶ **First-choice HC** → Sampling of successors until one is better
- ▶ **Random restart HC** → Re-initialize the search state by chance i.e. after a budget of steps has been exceeded
- ▶ **Evolutionary-based HC** → Performs mutations by chance on the respective problem representation and selects improving variations



# Traditional Methodologies

## Randomized Search: Hill climbing

- ▶ RLS requires the existence of a neighbourhood property
- ▶ Success strongly depended on the size of the solution space
  - ▶ If the percentage  $s$  of solutions in the search space is known, the success probability after performing  $n$  trials can be calculated with counterprobability
  - ▶  $s = 3, n = 50 \rightarrow 1 - 0.97^{50} \approx 0.78 = 78\%$
- ▶ Success of RLS methods depends on the shape of the state-space landscape