Artificial Intelligence DSE 3252

Problem Solving

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Problem Solving Agents

Are goal based agents that use atomic representations Goal formulation

- First step in problem solving
- based on the current situation and the agent's performance measure
- Environment is represented by states
- Goal state in one in which the goal is satisfied

The agent's task is to find out how to act, now and in the future, so that it reaches a goal state

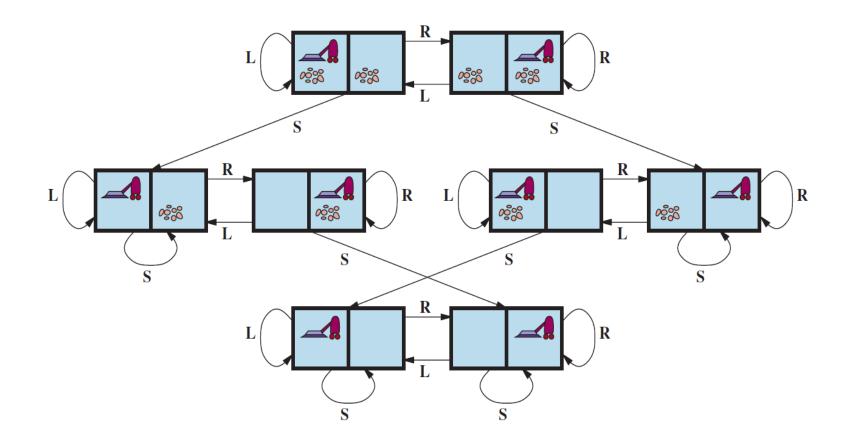
Problem formulation

• is the process of deciding what actions and states to consider, given a goal 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

State Space

- forms a **directed network or graph** in which the nodes are states and the links between nodes are actions.
- A **path** in the state space is a sequence of states connected by a sequence of actions.
- A **solution** to a problem is an action sequence that leads from the initial state to a goal state
- Solution quality is measured by the path cost function
- an **optimal solution** has the lowest path cost among all solutions

Example 1 – Vacuum Agent State Transition Diagram



Well-defined problems and solutions

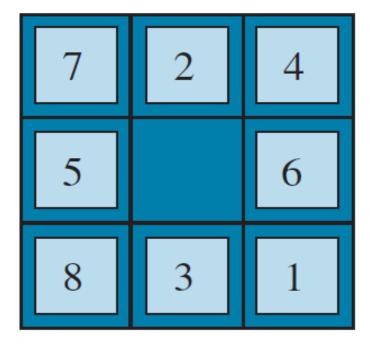
A **Problem** can be defined formally:

- 1. The **initial state** that the agent starts in
- 2. A description of the possible actions
- **3.** Transition model available to the agent
 - A description of what each action does;
- 4. The **goal test**, which determines whether a given state is a goal state
- 5. A path cost function that assigns a numeric cost to each path.
 - Successor to refer to any state reachable from a given state by a single action
- State space of the problem are defined by the initial state, actions, and transition model

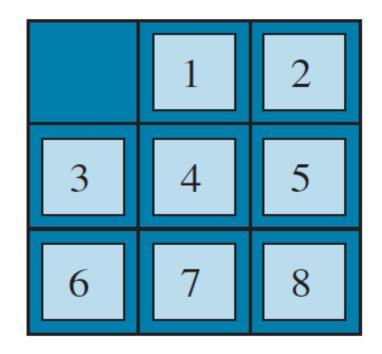
Problem Formulation Example 1 - Vacuum Agent

- **States:** The state is determined by both the agent location and the dirt locations
 - There are $2 \times 2^2 = 8$ possible world states. A larger environment with n locations has $n \cdot 2^n$ states.
- **Initial state**: Any state can be designated as the initial state.
- **Actions**: each state has just three actions: *Left*, *Right*, and *Suck*
- **Transition model**: The actions have their expected effects, except that moving *Left* in the leftmost square, moving *Right* in the rightmost square, and *Suck*ing in a clean square have no effect.
- Goal test: This checks whether all the squares are clean.
- Path cost: Each step costs 1, so the path cost is the number of steps in the path.

Problem Formulation Example 2 – 8 puzzle problem



Start State



Goal State

Problem Formulation Example 2 – 8 puzzle problem

States: A state description specifies the location of each of the eight tiles and the blank in one of the nine squares.

- Initial state: Any state can be designated as the initial state.
- Actions: The simplest formulation defines the actions as movements of the blank space-Left, Right, Up, or Down.
- Transition model: Given a state and action, this returns the resulting state
- Goal test: This checks whether the state matches the goal configuration
- Path cost: Each step costs 1, so the path cost is the number of steps in the path.

"formulate, search, execute"

- The process of looking for a sequence of actions that reaches the goal is called **Search**
- Search algorithm takes a problem as input and returns a solution in the form of an action sequence
- Once a solution is found, the actions are carried out in the execution phase
- The possible action sequences starting at the initial state form a **Search Tree**:
 - nodes correspond to states in the state space of the problem.
 - with the initial state NODE at the root
 - the branches are actions
- The set of all leaf nodes available for expansion at any given point is called the Frontier (
 Open List)
- Loopy path
 - result in repeated state
 - are a special case of the more general concept of redundant paths
- To avoid exploring redundant paths remember where one has been.
- Tree-Search algorithm can be augmented with a data structure called the explored set (Closed list), which remembers every expanded node

Partial Search Tree

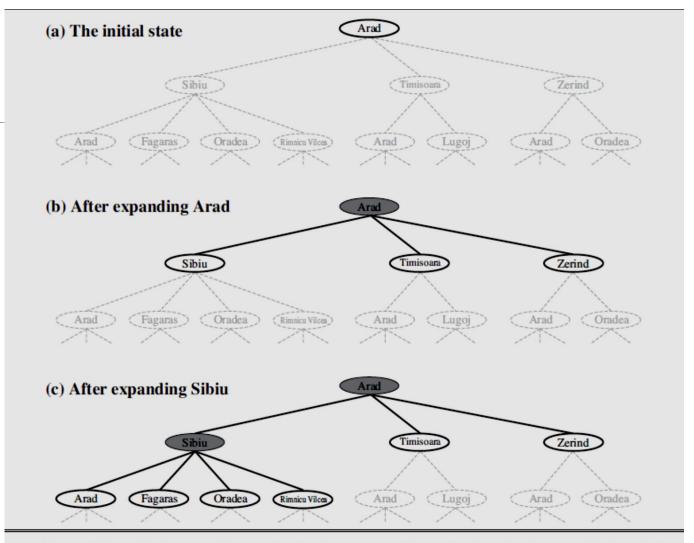


Figure 3.6 Partial search trees for finding a route from Arad to Bucharest. Nodes that have been expanded are shaded; nodes that have been generated but not yet expanded are outlined in bold; nodes that have not yet been generated are shown in faint dashed lines.

Infrastructure for search algorithms

For each node n of the tree, structure should contains 4 **components**:

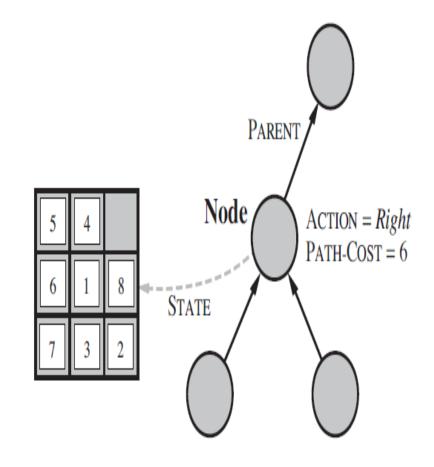
- **n.STATE:** the state in the state space to which the node corresponds;
- **n.PARENT**: the node in the search tree that generated this node;
- **n.ACTION**: the action that was applied to the parent to generate the node;
- **n.PATH-COST**: the cost, traditionally denoted by g(n), of the path from the initial state to the node, as indicated by the parent pointers.

function CHILD-NODE(problem, parent, action) **returns** a node **return** a node with

STATE = problem.RESULT(parent.STATE, action),

PARENT = parent, ACTION = action,

PATH-COST = parent.PATH-COST + problem.STEP-COST(parent.STATE, action)



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"formulate, search, execute"

- The process of looking for a sequence of actions that reaches the goal is called **Search**
- Search algorithm takes a problem as input and returns a solution in the form of an action sequence
- Once a solution is found, the actions are carried out in the execution phase

function TREE-SEARCH(problem) returns a solution, or failure initialize the frontier using the initial state of problem loop do

if the frontier is empty then return failure choose a leaf node and remove it from the frontier if the node contains a goal state then return the corresponding solution expand the chosen node, adding the resulting nodes to the frontier

function GRAPH-SEARCH(problem) returns a solution, or failure initialize the frontier using the initial state of problem initialize the explored set to be empty loop do

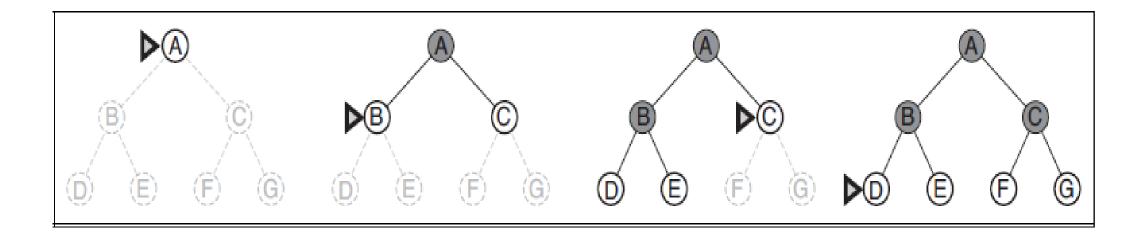
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if the frontier is empty then return failure
choose a leaf node and remove it from the frontier
if the node contains a goal state then return the corresponding solution
add the node to the explored set
expand the chosen node, adding the resulting nodes to the frontier
only if not in the frontier or explored set

Uninformed search strategies Breadth First Search

Shallowest unexpanded node is chosen for expansion

- the root node is expanded first, then all the successors of the root node are expanded next, then *their* successors, and so on.
- Using a **FIFO queue** for the frontier
- goal test is applied to each node when it is *generated*



Breadth First Search

function BREADTH-FIRST-SEARCH(problem) returns a solution, or failure

```
node \leftarrow a node with STATE = problem.INITIAL-STATE, PATH-COST = 0
if problem.GOAL-TEST(node.STATE) then return SOLUTION(node)
frontier \leftarrow a FIFO queue with node as the only element
explored \leftarrow an empty set
loop do
   if EMPTY?(frontier) then return failure
    node \leftarrow POP(frontier) /* chooses the shallowest node in frontier */
   add node.STATE to explored
   for each action in problem.ACTIONS(node.STATE) do
       child \leftarrow CHILD-NODE(problem, node, action)
       if child.STATE is not in explored or frontier then
           if problem.GOAL-TEST(child.STATE) then return SOLUTION(child)
           frontier \leftarrow INSERT(child, frontier)
```

Measuring problem-solving performance Breadth First Search (BFS)

Completeness: Is the algorithm guaranteed to find a solution when there is one?

Yes, if the shallowest goal node is at some finite depth d & branching factor b is finite.

Optimality: Does the strategy find the optimal solution?

Yes, if the path cost is a nondecreasing function of the depth of the node.

Time complexity: How long does it take to find a solution?

- The root of the search tree generates b nodes at the first level,, for a total of b ² at the second level and so on. Suppose that the solution is at depth d.
- Then the total number of nodes generated is $b + b^2 + b^3 + \cdots + b^d = O(b^d)$

Space complexity: How much memory is needed to perform the search?

• There will be $O(b^{d-1})$ nodes in the explored set and $O(b^d)$ nodes in the frontier

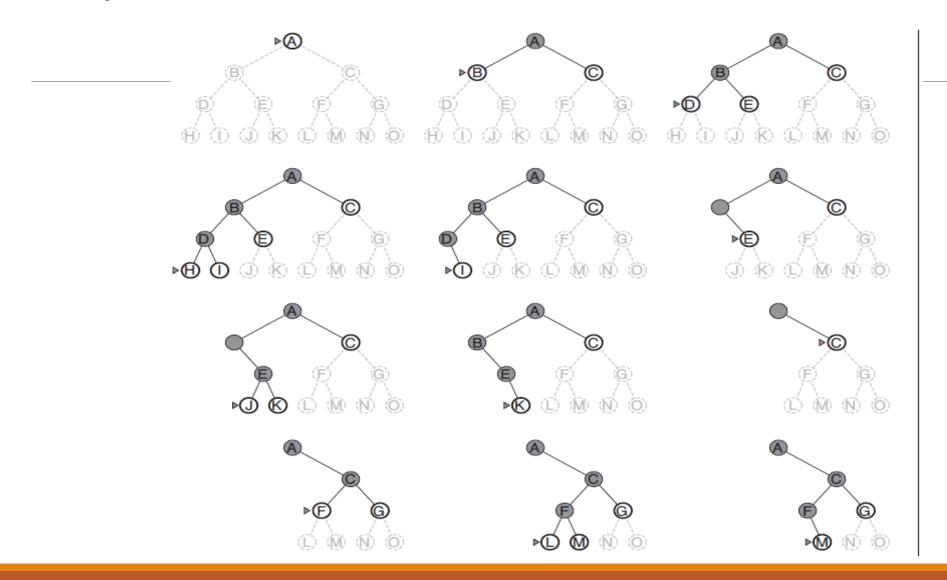
Time and memory requirements for BFS

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

Depth First Search

- Instance of graph search which uses LIFO queue
- always expands the *deepest* node in the current frontier of the search tree
- The search proceeds immediately to the **deepest level** of the search tree, where the nodes have no successors.
- As those nodes are expanded, they are dropped from the **frontier**, so then the search "backs up" to the next deepest node that still has unexplored successors.

Depth First Search



Measuring problem-solving performance Depth First Search (BFS)

Completeness: Is the algorithm guaranteed to find a solution when there is one?

- The graph-search version, which avoids repeated states and redundant paths, is complete in finite state spaces
- The tree-search version, on the other hand, is not complete

Optimality: Does the strategy find the optimal solution?

both versions are nonoptimal

Time complexity: How long does it take to find a solution?

• all of the O(b^m) nodes in the search tree, where m is the maximum depth of any node;

Space complexity: How much memory is needed to perform the search?

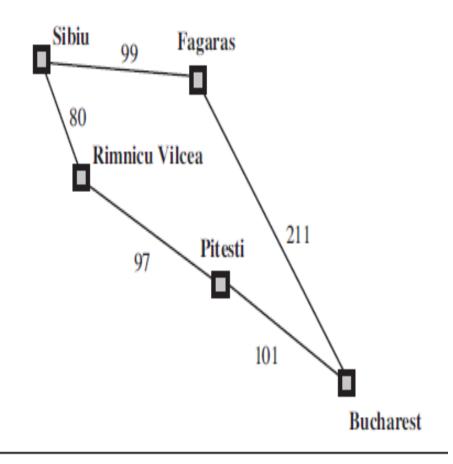
requires storage of only O(bm) nodes

Uniform Cost Search

- When all step costs are equal, breadth-first search is optimal because it always expands the shallowest unexpanded node.
- Instead of expanding the shallowest node, uniform-cost search expands the node n
 with the lowest path cost g(n)
- Store the frontier as a priority queue ordered by g
- Difference from Breadth-first search
 - the goal test is applied to a node when it is selected for expansion rather than when it is first generated
 - a test is added in case a better path is found to a node currently on the frontier

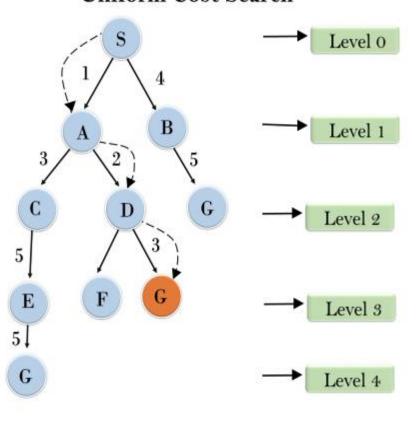
```
function UNIFORM-COST-SEARCH(problem) returns a solution, or failure
  node \leftarrow a node with STATE = problem.INITIAL-STATE, PATH-COST = 0
  frontier \leftarrow a priority queue ordered by PATH-COST, with node as the only element
  explored \leftarrow an empty set
  loop do
      if EMPTY?( frontier) then return failure
      node \leftarrow POP(frontier) /* chooses the lowest-cost node in frontier */
      if problem.GOAL-TEST(node.STATE) then return SOLUTION(node)
      add node.STATE to explored
      for each action in problem.ACTIONS(node.STATE) do
          child \leftarrow CHILD-NODE(problem, node, action)
         if child.STATE is not in explored or frontier then
             frontier \leftarrow INSERT(child, frontier)
         else if child.STATE is in frontier with higher PATH-COST then
             replace that frontier node with child
```

Uniform Cost Search



Uniform Cost Search - Example

Uniform Cost Search



Measuring problem-solving performance Uniform Cost

Completeness: Is the algorithm guaranteed to find a solution when there is one?

- Completeness is guaranteed provided the cost of every step exceeds some small positive constant €
- May get stuck in an infinite loop if there is a path with an infinite sequence of zerocost actions

Optimality: Does the strategy find the optimal solution?

Yes

Time complexity: How long does it take to find a solution?

Space complexity: How much memory is needed to perform the search?

• let C *be the cost of the optimal solution and assume that every action costs at least \in Then the algorithm's worst-case time and space complexity is $O(b^{1+\lfloor C^*/\epsilon\rfloor})$

Comparing Uninformed cost strategies

Criterion	Breadth- First	Uniform- Cost	Depth- First	Depth- Limited	Iterative Deepening	Bidirectional (if applicable)
Complete? Time Space Optimal?	$egin{array}{c} \operatorname{Yes}^a & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & &$	$\operatorname{Yes}^{a,b} O(b^{1+\lfloor C^*/\epsilon \rfloor}) \ O(b^{1+\lfloor C^*/\epsilon \rfloor}) \ \operatorname{Yes}$	No $O(b^m)$ $O(bm)$ No	No $O(b^\ell)$ $O(b\ell)$ No	$egin{array}{l} \operatorname{Yes}^a \ O(b^d) \ O(bd) \ \operatorname{Yes}^c \end{array}$	$\operatorname{Yes}^{a,d}$ $O(b^{d/2})$ $O(b^{d/2})$ $\operatorname{Yes}^{c,d}$

Figure 3.21 Evaluation of tree-search strategies. b is the branching factor; d is the depth of the shallowest solution; m is the maximum depth of the search tree; l is the depth limit. Superscript caveats are as follows: a complete if b is finite; b complete if step costs b for positive b optimal if step costs are all identical; b if both directions use breadth-first search.

Informed (Heuristic) Search Strategies

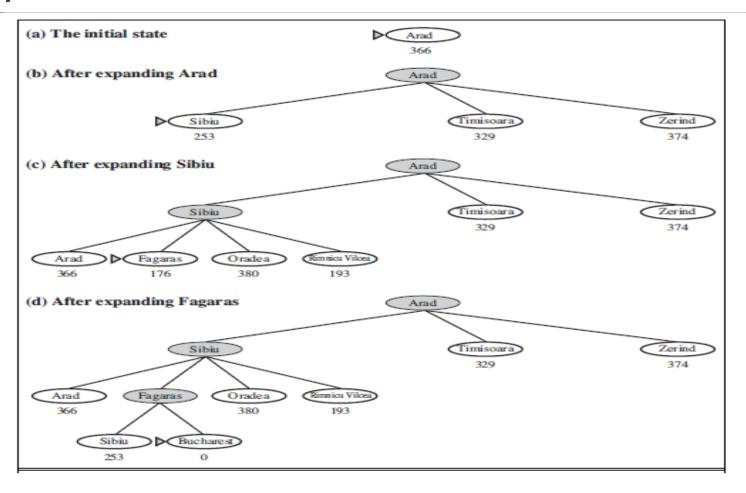
- The general approach is called **best-first search**.
- Best-first search is an instance of the general TREE-SEARCH or GRAPH-SEARCH algorithm in which a node is selected for expansion based on an **evaluation function**, f(n).
- The evaluation function is construed as a cost estimate, so the node with the *lowest* evaluation is expanded first.
- The choice of f determines the search strategy.
- Most best-first algorithms include as a component of f a **heuristic function**, denoted h(n):
- h(n) = estimated cost of the cheapest path from the state at node n to a goal state.

Greedy best-first search

- tries to expand the node that is closest to the goal, on the grounds that this is likely to lead to a solution quickly.
- Thus, it evaluates nodes by using just the heuristic function; that is, f(n) = h(n)

Arad	366	Mehadia	241
Buchare	st 0	Neamt	234
Craiova	160	Oradea	380
Drobeta	242	Pitesti	100
Eforie	161	Rimnicu Vilcea	193
Fagaras	176	Sibiu	253
Giurgiu	77	Timisoara	329
Hirsova	151	Urziceni	80
Iasi	226	Vaslui	199
Lugoj	244	Zerind	374

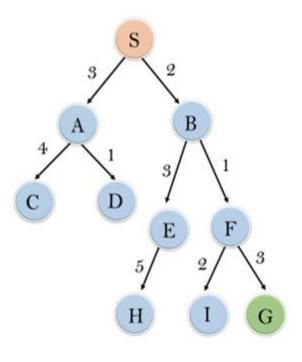
Greedy best-first search



Greedy Best First Algorithm

- Step 1: Place the starting node into the OPEN list.
- Step 2: If the OPEN list is empty, Stop and return failure.
- **Step 3:** Remove the node n, from the OPEN list which has the lowest value of h(n), and place it in the CLOSED list.
- **Step 4:** Expand the node n, and generate the successors of node n.
- Step 5:
 - Check each successor of node n, and find whether any node is a goal node.
 - If any successor node is goal node, then return success and terminate the search, else proceed to Step 6.
- Step 6:
 - For each successor node, checks for evaluation function f(n), and then check if the node has been in either OPEN or CLOSED list.
 - If the node has not been in both list, then add it to the OPEN list.
- **Step 7:** Return to Step 2.

Greedy Best First Search - Example



node	H (n)
A	12
В	4
C	7
D	3
E	8
F	2
Н	4
I	9
S	13
G	0

Measuring problem-solving performance Greedy Best First Search

Completeness: Is the algorithm guaranteed to find a solution when there is one?

 Greedy best-first tree search is incomplete even in a finite state space, much like depth-first search

Optimality: Does the strategy find the optimal solution?

No

Time complexity: How long does it take to find a solution?

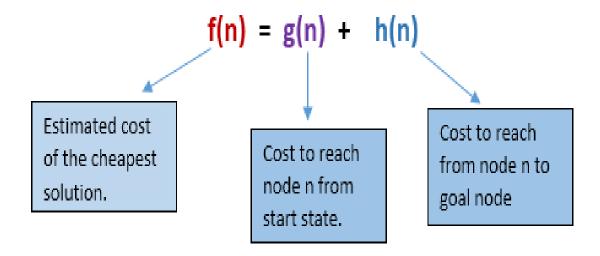
• The worst case time complexity of Greedy best first search is O(b^m).

Space complexity: How much memory is needed to perform the search?

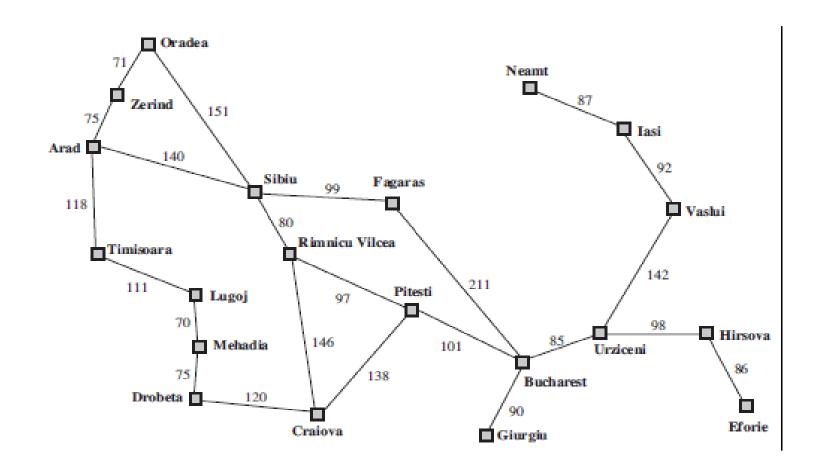
• The worst case space complexity of Greedy best first search is O(b^m). Where, m is the maximum depth of the search space.

A* search: Minimizing the total estimated solution cost

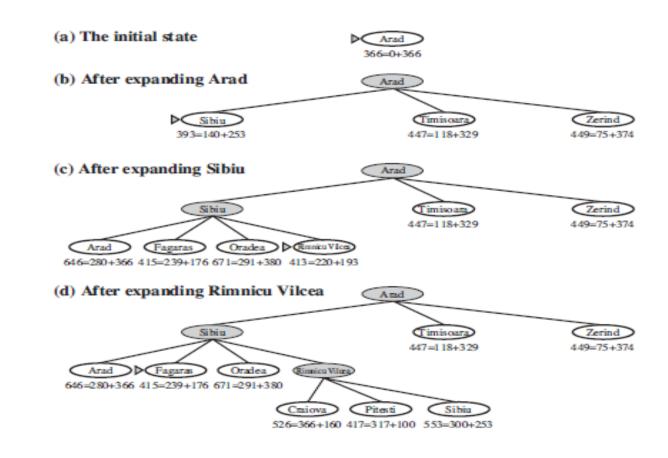
It evaluates nodes by combining g(n), the cost to reach the node, and h(n), the cost to get from the node to the goal:



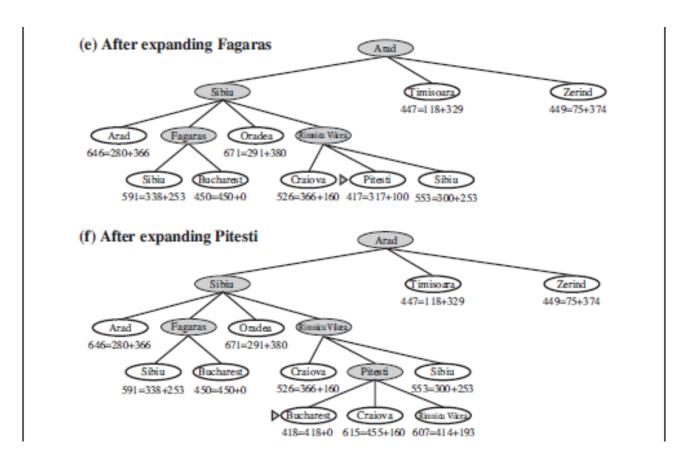
A* - Combines SLD with Path Cost



Stages in A*



Stages in A*



Algorithm of A* search:

Step1: Place the starting node in the OPEN list.

Step 2: Check if the OPEN list is empty or not, if the list is empty then return failure and stops.

Step 3:

- Select the node from the OPEN list which has the smallest value of evaluation function (g+h)
- if node n is goal node then return success and stop

Step 4:

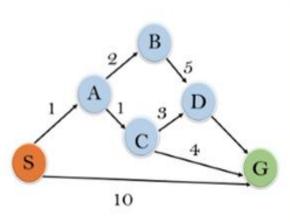
- Expand node n and generate all of its successors, and put n into the closed list.
- For each successor n', check whether n' is already in the OPEN or CLOSED list, if not then compute evaluation function for n' and place into Open list.

Step 5:

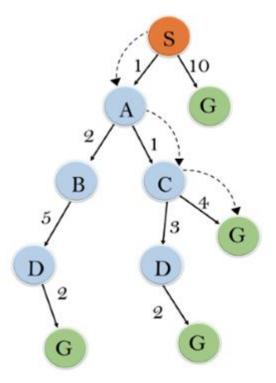
 Else if node n' is already in OPEN and CLOSED, then it should be attached to the back pointer which reflects the lowest g(n') value.

Step 6: Return to **Step 2**.

A* Search - Example



State	h(n)
s	5
A	3
В	4
C	2
D	6
G	0



Measuring problem-solving performance A*

Completeness: Is the algorithm guaranteed to find a solution when there is one?

Complete as long as , Branching factor is finite & Cost at every action is fixed

Optimality: Does the strategy find the optimal solution?

A* search algorithm is optimal if it follows below two conditions:

- Admissible: h(n) should be an admissible heuristic for A* tree search.
 - An admissible heuristic is optimistic in nature, never overestimates the cost to reach the goal
- Consistency: for only A* graph-search.
 - A heuristic h(n) is consistent if, for every node n and every successor n' of n generated by any action a, the estimated cost of
 - reaching the goal from n is no greater than the step cost of getting to n' plus the estimated cost of reaching the goal from n'

$$h(n) \le c(n, a, n') + h(n').$$

Time complexity: How long does it take to find a solution?

• Depends on Heuristic Function and based on depth d of solution is O(bd).

Space complexity: How much memory is needed to perform the search?

• O(bd)

A* - Features

- A* algorithm returns the path which occurred first, and it does not search for all remaining paths.
- The efficiency of A* algorithm depends on the quality of heuristic.
- A* algorithm expands all nodes which satisfy the condition f(n)

Advantages:

- A* search algorithm is the best algorithm than other search algorithms.
- A* search algorithm is optimal and complete.
- This algorithm can solve very complex problems.

Disadvantages:

- It does not always produce the shortest path as it mostly based on heuristics and approximation.
- A* search algorithm has some complexity issues.
- The main drawback of A* is memory requirement as it keeps all generated nodes in the memory, so it is not practical for various large-scale problems.

References

1. Russell S., and Norvig P., Artificial Intelligence A Modern Approach (3e), Pearson 2010