COMP 424 - Artificial Intelligence Lecture 2: Uninformed Search

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Class website:

http://cs.mcgill.ca/~jcheung/teaching/winter-2017/comp424/index.html

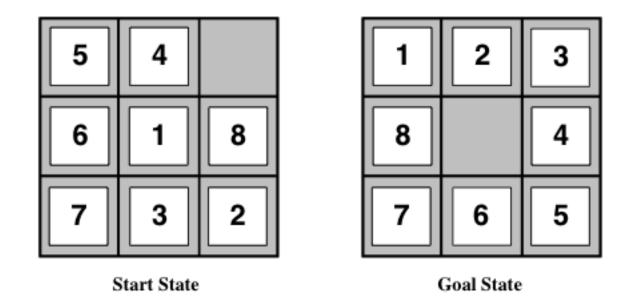
Based on slides by Joelle Pineau

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Goals for today's class

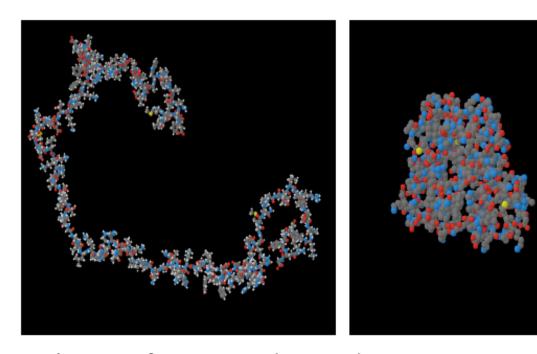
- Identify defining elements of generic search problems
- Uninformed search algorithms
 - 1. Breadth-first search
 - 2. Uniform-cost search
 - 3. Depth-first search
 - 4. Depth-limited search
 - 5. Iterative deepening
- Define criteria for evaluating search algorithms

Eight-Puzzle



How would you build an AI agent to solve this problem?

Protein design



- The 3D shape of protein depends on its amino acid sequence, determines its function.
- Search for a sequence of amino acids that give some desired shape

Search in AI

- One of the first topic studied in AI:
 Newell & Simon (1972). Human Problem Solving.
- Central component to many AI systems:
 - Theorem proving
 - Game playing
 - Automated scheduling
 - Robot navigation

Defining a search problem

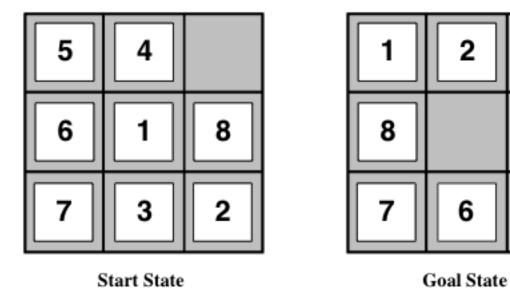
- State space S: all possible configurations of the domain.
- Initial state $s_0 \in S$: the start state
- Goal states G

 S: the set of end states
- Operators A: the actions available
 - Often defined in terms of mapping from state to successor state.

Defining a search problem (cont'd)

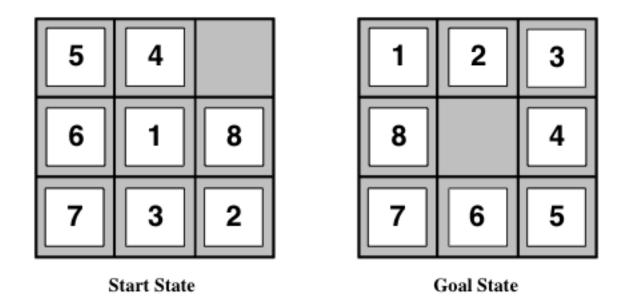
- Path: a sequence of states and operators.
- Path cost, c: a number associated with any path.
- **Solution** of search problem: a path from s_0 to $s_g \in G$
- Optimal solution: a path with minimum cost.

Example: Eight-Puzzle



- States?
- Goals?
- Operators?
- Path cost?

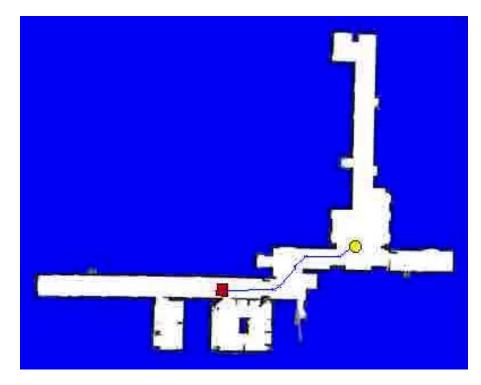
Example: Eight-Puzzle



- States? Configurations of the puzzle.
- Goals? Target configuration.
- Operators? Swap the blank with an adjacent tile.
- Path cost? Number of moves.

Example: Robot path planning

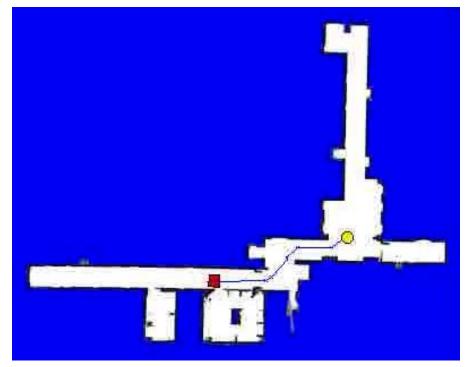
Get from red square to yellow dot.



- States?
- Goals?
- Operators?
- Path cost?

Example: Robot path planning

Get from red square to yellow dot.



- States? Position, velocity, map, obstacles.
- Goals? Get to target position without crashing.
- Operators? Small steps in several directions.
- Path cost? Length of path, energy consumption, time to goal, ...

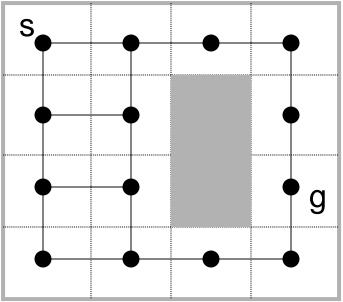
Basic assumptions (for next few lectures)

- Static (c.f. dynamic) environment
- Observable (c.f. unobservable) environment
- Discrete (c.f. continuous) states
- Deterministic (c.f. stochastic) environment

The general search problem does not make these assumptions, but most of the search algorithms discussed today require them.

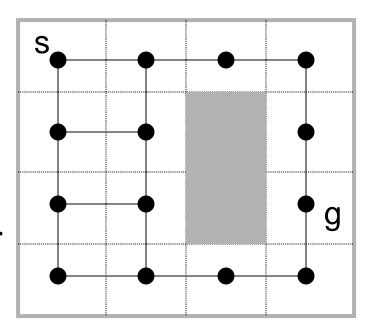
Representing search: Graphs and Trees

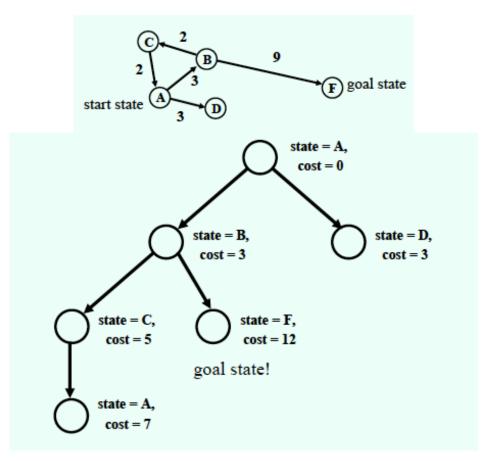
- Visualize the state space search in terms of a graph.
- Graph defined by a set of vertices and a set of edges connecting the vertices.
 - Vertices correspond to states.
 - Edges correspond to operators.



Representing search: Graphs and Trees

- Visualize the state space search in terms of a graph.
- Graph defined by a set of vertices and a set of edges connecting the vertices.
 - Vertices correspond to states.
 - Edges correspond to operators.
- We search for a solution by building a search tree and traversing it to find a goal state.

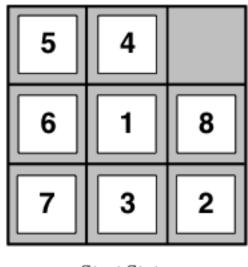




Search tree nodes are NOT the same as the graph nodes!

In-Class Exercise

• Draw the search tree for the eight-puzzle example from before down to a depth of 2:



Start State

Data structures for search tree

- Defining a search tree node:
 - Each node contains a state id (from the states in the graph).
 - Node also contain additional information:
 - The parent state and the operator used to generate it.
 - Cost of the path so far.
 - Depth of the node.
- Expanding a search tree node:
 - Applying all legal operators to the state.
 - Generating nodes for all the corresponding successor states.

Generic search algorithm

Initialize the search tree using the initial state of the problem

Repeat

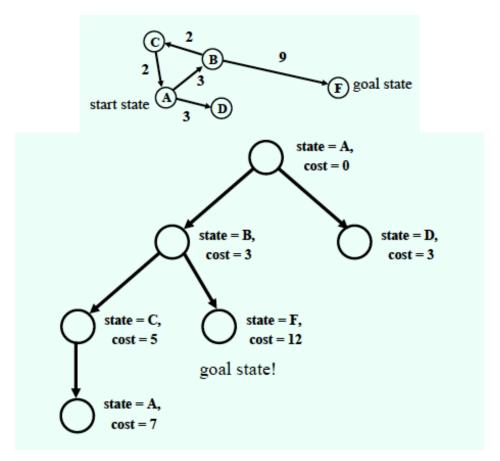
- 1. If no candidate nodes can be expanded, return failure.
- 2. Choose a node for expansion, according to some search strategy.
- 3. If the node contains a goal state, then
 - return the corresponding path.
- 4. Otherwise expand the node, by:
 - applying each applicable operator
 - generating the successor state, and
 - adding the resulting nodes to the tree.

Coding a Generic Search Problem in Java

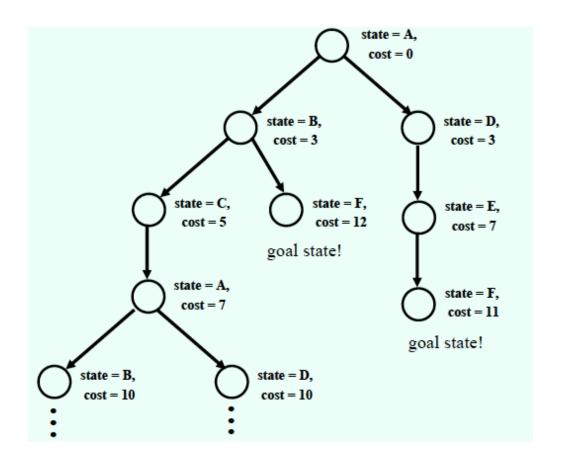
```
public abstract class Operator {}
public abstract class State {
    abstract void print(); }
public abstract class Problem{
    State startState:
    abstract boolean isGoal (State crtState);
    abstract boolean isLegal (State s, Operator op);
    abstract Vector getLegalOps (State s);
    abstract State nextState (State crtState, Operator op);
    abstract float cost(State s, Operator op);
    public State getStartState() { return startState; }
}
```

Coding an Actual Search Problem

Specialize the abstract classes, and add the code that does the work



Now expand a little further...



Problem: Search trees can get very big!

Implementation details

- Need to keep track of the nodes to be expanded: the frontier.
- Implement this using a queue:
 - 1. Initialize queue by inserting a node for the initial state.
 - 2. Repeat
 - a) If the queue is empty, return failure
 - b) Dequeue a node.
 - c) If the node contains a goal state, return path.
 - d) Otherwise expand the node by applying all legal operators to the state.
 - e) Insert the resulting nodes in the queue. <

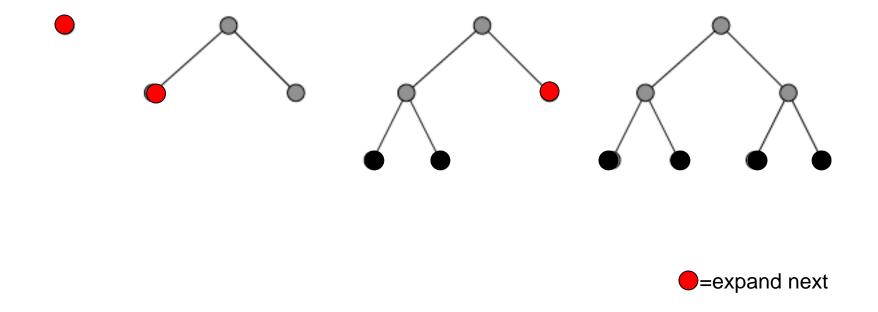
Search algorithms differ in their queuing function.

Uninformed (blind) search

- If a state is not a goal, you cannot tell how close to the goal it might be.
- Hence, all you can do is move systematically between states until you stumble on a goal.
- In contrast, informed (heuristic) search uses a guess on how close to the goal a state might be. (More on this next class.)
- Let's first look at several basic uninformed search algorithms:
 - Breadth-first search
 - Uniform-cost search
 - Depth-first search

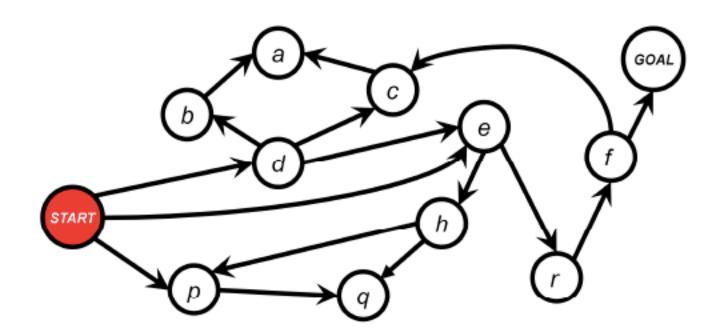
Breadth-First Search (BFS)

- Enqueue nodes at the end of queue.
- All nodes at level i get expanded before all nodes at level i+1.

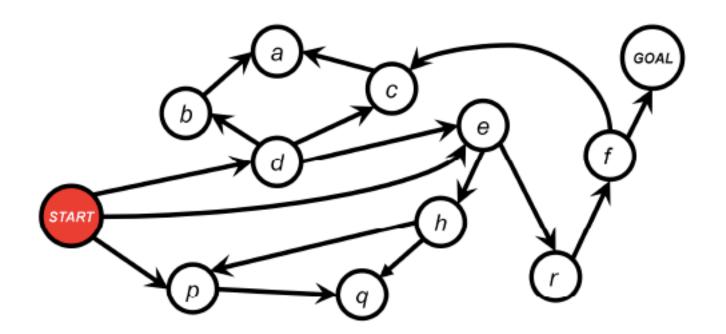


=terminal node

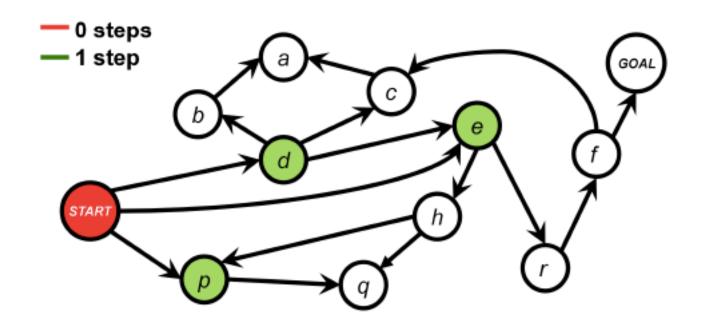
 In what order are nodes expanded using Breadth-first search?



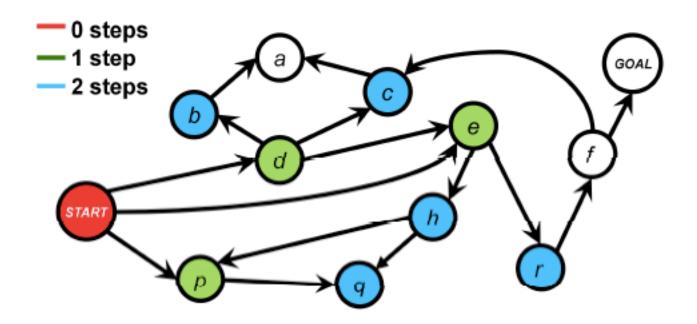
Label all start states as V₀.



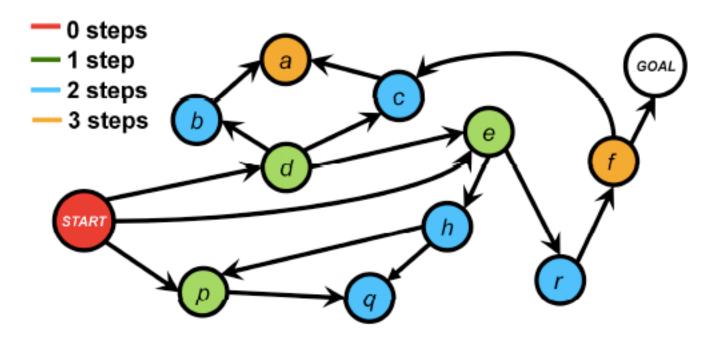
• Label all successors of states in V_0 that have not been labeled as V_1 .



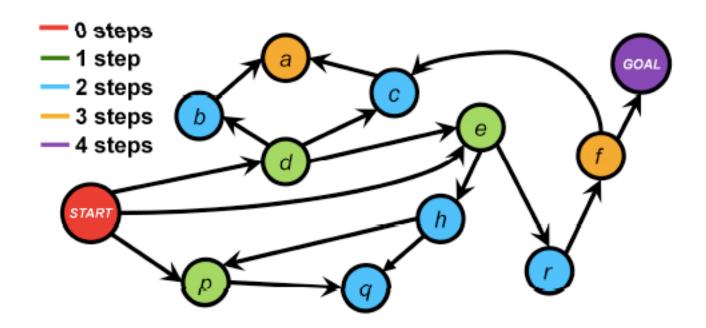
• Label all successors of states in V_1 that have not been labeled as V_2 .



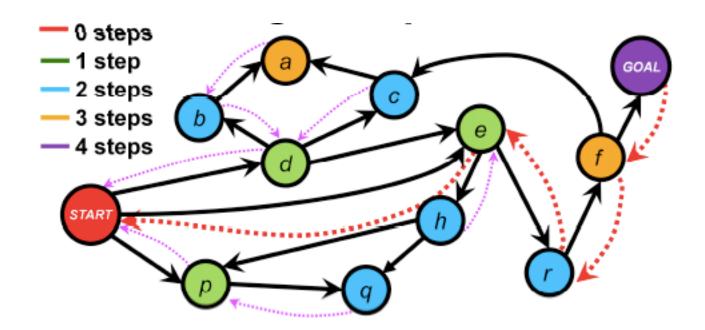
• Label all successors of states in V_2 that have not been labeled as V_3 .



• Label all successors of states in V_3 that have not been labeled as V_4 .

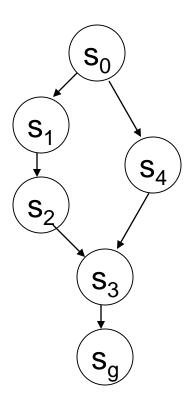


To recover the path, follow pointers back to the parent node.



Revisiting states

- What if we revisit a state that was already expanded?
- What if we visit a state that was already in the queue?
- Example:



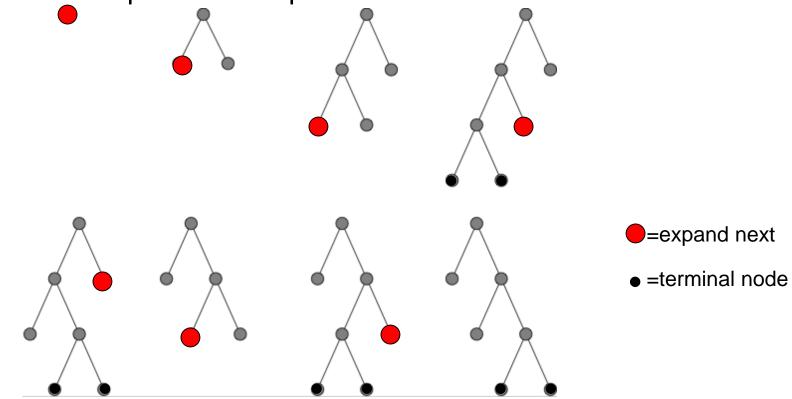
Revisiting states

- Maintain a closed list to store every expanded node.
 - More efficient on problems with many repeated states.
 - Worst-case time and space requirements are O(|S|) (|S| = #states)
- In some cases, allowing states to be re-expanded could produce a better solution.
 - When repeated state is detected, compare old and new path to find lowest cost path.
 - In large domains, may not be able to store all states.

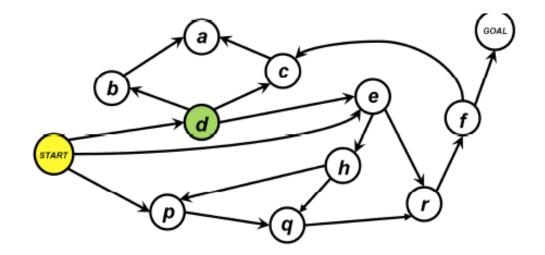
Depth-First Search (DFS)

- Enqueue nodes at the front of queue
 - In other words, use a stack in stead of a queue.

Nodes at deepest level expanded before shallower ones.

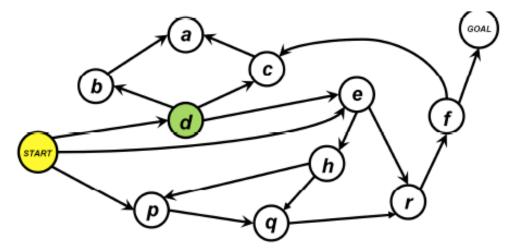


In what order are nodes expanded using Depth-first search?



In what order are nodes expanded using Depth-first search?

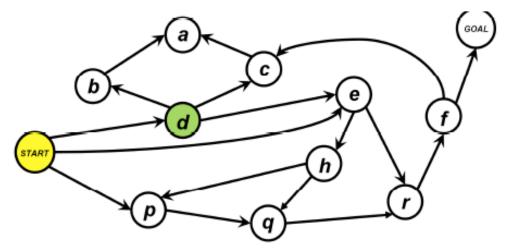
Order of operators matter!



Solution (*if you expand nodes in clockwise order, staring at 9 o'clock*): {Start, d, b, a, c, e, r, f, Goal}

In what order are nodes expanded using Depth-first search?

Order of operators matter!

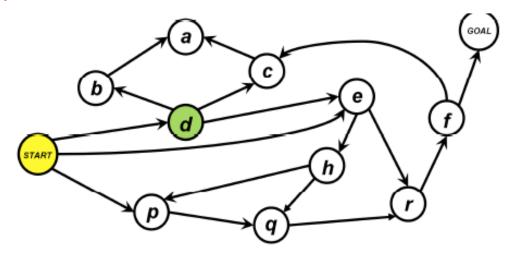


Solution (*if you expand nodes in clockwise order, staring at 9 o'clock*): {Start, d, b, a, c, e, r, f, Goal}

What if we expand nodes counter-clockwise, from 9 o'clock?

In what order are nodes expanded using Depth-first search?

Order of operators matter!



Solution (*if you expand nodes in clockwise order, staring at 9 o'clock*): {Start, d, b, a, c, e, r, f, Goal}

Solution (if we expand nodes counter-clockwise): {Start, p, q, r, f, Goal}

Key properties of search algorithms

- Completeness: Are we assured to find a solution, if one exists?
- Optimality: How good is the solution?
- Space complexity: How much storage is needed?
- Time complexity: How many operations are needed?

Key properties of search algorithms

- Completeness: Are we assured to find a solution, if one exists?
- Optimality: How good is the solution?
- Space complexity: How much storage is needed?
- Time complexity: How many operations are needed?
- Other desirable properties:
 - Can the algorithm provide an intermediate solution?
 - Can an inadequate solution be refined or improved?
 - Can the work done on one search be reused for a different set of start/goal states?

Search complexity

- Evaluated in terms of two characteristics:
 - Branching factor of the state space ("b"): how many operators (upper limit) can be applied at any time?
 - E.g. for the eight-puzzle problem: branching factor is 4, although most of the time we can apply only 2 or 3 operators.
 - Solution depth ("d"): how long is the path to the closest (shallowest) goal state?

Analyzing BFS

Good news:

- Complete.
- Paths to different goals can be explored at the same time.
- Guaranteed to find shallowest path to the goal if unit cost per step.

Will not necessarily find optimal path if cost per step is non-uniform.

Analyzing BFS

Good news:

- Complete.
- Paths to different goals can be explored at the same time.
- Guaranteed to find shallowest path to the goal if unit cost per step.
 Will not necessarily find optimal path if cost per step is non-uniform.

More bad news:

- Exponential time complexity: $O(b^d)$ [This is same for all uninformed search algorithms.]
- Exponential space complexity: O(b^d) [This is not good!]

Uniform Cost Search

 Goal: Fix BFS to ensure an optimal path with general step costs.

Important distinction:

- Unit cost = Problem where each action has the same cost.
- General cost = Actions can have different costs.

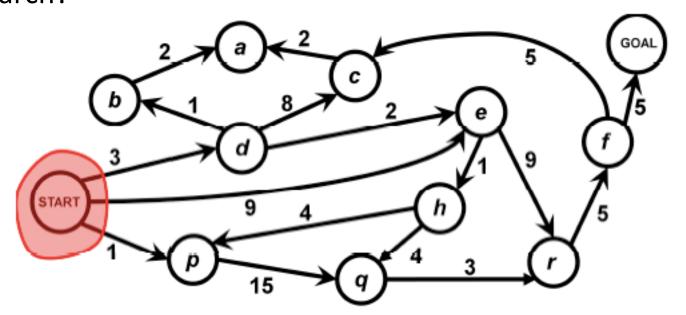
Uniform Cost Search

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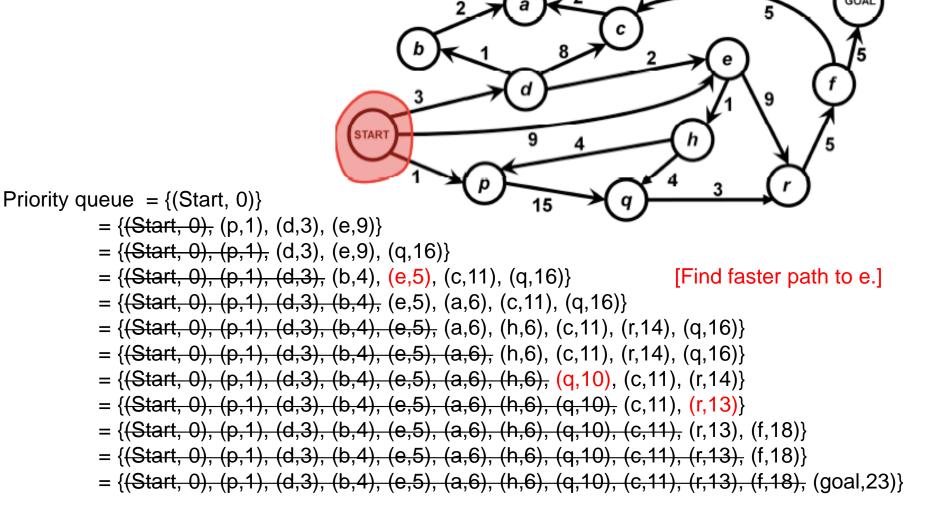
Important distinction:

- Unit cost = Problem where each action has the same cost.
- General cost = Actions can have different costs.
- Approach:
 - Use a <u>priority queue</u> instead of a simple queue.
 - Insert nodes in the increasing order of the cost of the path so far.
- Properties:
 - Guaranteed to find **optimal solution** for with general step costs (same as BFS when all operators have the same cost).

 In what order are nodes expanded using Uniform cost search?



Example - solved



Analyzing DFS

Good news:

- Linear space complexity: O(bm)
 - *m* is the maximum depth of the tree
- Easy to implement recursively (do not even need queue data structure).
- More efficient than BFS if there are many paths leading to solution.

Analyzing DFS

• Good news:

- Linear space complexity: O(bm)
- Easy to implement recursively (do not even need queue data structure).
- More efficient than BFS if there are many paths leading to solution.

• Bad news:

- Exponential time complexity: $O(b^m)$ [This is same as BFS]
- Not optimal.
- DFS may not complete!
- NEVER use DFS if you suspect a big tree depth!

More Search Algorithms

- Depth-limited search
- Iterative deepening search
- Bidirectional search (read Section 3.4.6 for more details)

Depth-limited search

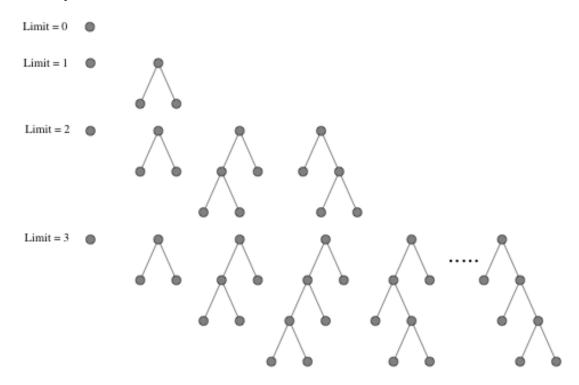
 Algorithm: search depth-first, but <u>terminate</u> a path either if a goal state is found, or <u>if the maximum depth allowed</u> is reached.

Always terminates:

- Avoids the problem of search never terminating by imposing a hard limit on the depth of any search path.
- However, it is still not complete (the goal depth may be greater than the limit allowed.)

Iterative Deepening Search (IDS)

- Algorithm: do depth-limited search, but with increasing depth.
- Expands nodes multiple times, but computation time has same complexity.



Analysis of IDS

- Complete (like BFS).
- Has linear memory requirements (like DFS).
- Classical time-space tradeoff.
 - Recall from last lecture: achieving rationality subject to resource constraints
 - Will see similar trade-off often in this course.

Analysis of IDS

- Complete (like BFS).
- Has linear memory requirements (like DFS).
- Classical time-space tradeoff.
 - Recall from last lecture: achieving rationality subject to resource constraints
 - Will see similar trade-off often in this course.
- Optimal for problems with unit step costs.
- This is the preferred method for large state spaces, where the solution path length is unknown.

Questions

- Which method should you use if....
 - You need to find the optimal solution?

The state space is VERY large?

- You have limited memory?
- You want to find quickly find the best solution within a cost budget?

Questions

- Which method should you use if....
 - You need to find the optimal solution?
 - BFS, DFS or iterative deepening if unit cost.
 - Uniform-cost search if general cost.
 - The state space is VERY large?
 - Depth-first search if you know the maximum plan length.
 - Iterative deepening search otherwise.
 - You have limited memory?
 - Depth-first search / iterative deepening search.
 - You want to find quickly find the best solution within a cost budget?
 - Depth-limited search if unit cost.
 - Uniform-cost search if general cost.

Summary of uninformed search

- Assumes no knowledge about the problem.
- Main difference between methods is the order in which they consider states.
 - BFS
 - Uniform cost search
 - DFS
 - Fixed-depth DFS
 - Iterative deepening
- Very general, can be applied to any problem.
- Very expensive, since we assume no knowledge about the problem.
- Some algorithms are complete, i.e. they will find a solution if one exists.
- All uninformed search methods have exponential worst-case complexity.