

# COMP9414: Artificial Intelligence

## Problem Solving and Search

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Based on slides by Maurice Pagnucco

## Motivating Example

- You are in Romania on holiday, in Arad, and need to get to Bucharest.
- What more information do you need to solve this problem?
- Once you have this information, how do you go about solving the problem?
- How do you know your solution is any good? What extra information would you need in order to evaluate the quality of your solution?

## Introduction to Problem Solving and Search

- Search as a “weak method” of problem solving with wide applicability
- Uninformed search methods (use no problem-specific information)
- Informed search methods (use heuristics to improve efficiency)
- (Not covered) Stochastic algorithms for problem solving
- Useful for understanding Prolog programs, logical inference, natural language parsing
- References:
  - ▶ Ivan Bratko, [Prolog Programming for Artificial Intelligence](#), Addison-Wesley, 2001. (Chapter 11)
  - ▶ Stuart J. Russell and Peter Norvig, [Artificial Intelligence: A Modern Approach](#), Second Edition, Pearson Education, 2003. (Chapter 3)

## State Space Search Problems

- **State space** — set of all states reachable from initial state by any action sequence
- **Initial state** — an element of the state space
- **Operators** — set of possible actions at agent’s disposal; describe state reached after performing action in current state
- (alternatively) **Successor function** —  $s(x)$  = set of states reachable from state  $x$  by performing a single action
- **Goal state** — an element of the state space
- **Path cost** — assigns cost to a path for comparing partial solutions (apply to optimization problems)

## Example Problem — 8-Puzzle

1	2	3
4	5	6
7	8	

**States:** location of eight tiles plus location of blank  
**Operators:** move blank left, right, up, down  
**Goal state:** state with tiles arranged in sequence  
**Path cost:** each step is of cost 1

## Real World Problems

- Route finding — robot navigation, airline travel planning, computer/phone networks
- Travelling salesman problem — planning movement of automatic circuit board drills
- VLSI layout — design silicon chips
- Assembly sequencing — scheduling assembly of complex objects, manufacturing process control
- Mixed/constrained problems — courier delivery, product distribution, fault service and repair

These are **optimization** problems but mathematical (operations research) techniques are not always effective.

## Example Problem — N-Queens

							♛
	♛						
			♛				
♛							
						♛	
			♛				
		♛					
				♛			

**States:** 0 to N queens arranged on chess board  
**Operators:** place queen on empty square  
**Goal state:** N queens on chess board, none attacked  
**Path cost:** zero

## Problem Representation — Tic-Tac-Toe

X	O	X
X	O	O
X		O

**States:** arrangement of Os and Xs on 3x3 grid  
**Operators:** place X (O) in empty square  
**Goal state:** three Xs (Os) in a row  
**Path cost:** zero

### Tic-Tac-Toe — First Attempt

1	2	3
4	5	6
7	8	9

Board: 0=blank; 1=X; 2=O  
Idea: Use move table with  $3^9 = 19683$  elements  
Algorithm: Consider board to be a ternary number; convert to decimal; access move table; update board

- Fast; lots of memory; laborious; not extensible

### Tic-Tac-Toe — Third Attempt

8	3	4
1	5	9
6	7	2

Board is a magic square!  
Algorithm: As in attempt 2 but to check for win —keep track of player’s “squares”. If difference of 15 and sum of two squares is  $\leq 0$  or  $> 9$  two squares are not collinear. Otherwise, if square equal to difference is blank, move there.

- What does this tell you about the way humans solve problems vs. computers?

### Tic-Tac-Toe — Second Attempt

1	2	3
4	5	6
7	8	9

Board: 2=blank; 3=X; 5=O  
Algorithm: Separate strategy for each move.  
Goal test (if row gives win on next move): calculate product of values  
X: test product = 18 ( $3 \times 3 \times 2$ ); O: test product = 50 ( $5 \times 5 \times 2$ )

- Not as fast as 1; much less memory; easier to understand and comprehend; strategy determined in advance; not extensible

### Tic-Tac-Toe — Fourth Attempt

	?	

Board: list of board positions arising from next move; estimate of likelihood of position leading to a win  
Algorithm: look at board arising from each possible move; choose “best” move

- Slower; can handle large variety of problems

## Evaluating Search Algorithms

- **Completeness:** strategy guaranteed to find a solution when one exists?
- **Time complexity:** how long to find a solution?
- **Space complexity:** memory required during search?
- **Optimality:** when several solutions exist, does it find the “best”?

**Note:** States are constructed during search, not computed in advance, so efficiently computing successor states is critical!

## Explicit State Spaces

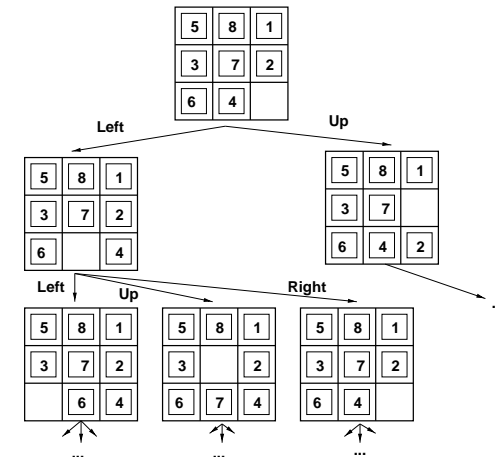
- View state space search in terms of finding a path through a graph
- **Graph**  $G = (V, E)$  —  $V$ : vertices (nodes);  $E$ : edges
- Edges may have associated **cost**; **path cost** = sum edge costs in path
- **Path** from node  $s$  to  $g$  — sequence of nodes  $s = n_0, n_1, \dots, n_k = g$  such that  $n_{i-1}$  is connected to  $n$
- **State space graph** — node represents state; arc represents change from one state to another due to action; costs may be associated with nodes and edges (hence paths)
- **Forward (backward) branching factor** — # out-(in-)going arcs from (to) node

## Complications

- **Single-state** — agent starts in known world state and knows which unique state it will be in after a given action
- **Multiple-state** — limited access to world state means agent is unsure exactly which world state it is in but may be able to narrow it down to a set of states
- **Contingency problem** — if agent does not know full effects of actions (or there are other things going on) it may have to sense during execution (changing the search space dynamically)
- **Exploration problem** — no knowledge of effects of actions (or state), so agent must experiment

Search methods are capable of tackling single-state and multiple-state problems though multiple state at the cost of additional complexity.

## Search Graph — 8-Puzzle



## A General Search Procedure

**function** GeneralSearch(**problem**, **strategy**) **returns** a solution or failure

    initialise search graph using the initial state of **problem**

**loop**

**if** there are no candidates for expansion **then return** failure

        choose a frontier node for expansion according to **strategy**

**if** the node contains a goal state **then return** solution

**else** expand the node and add the resulting nodes to the search graph

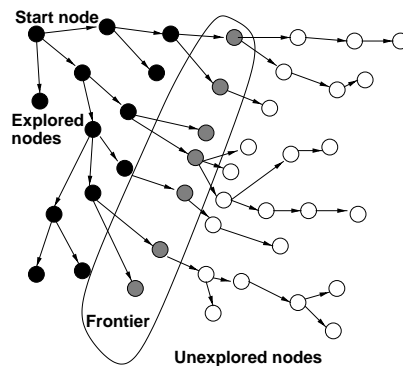
**end**

**Note:** Only test whether at goal when expanding node, not when adding nodes to the search graph.

## Back to Motivating Example

- Notice assumptions built in to problem formulation (level of abstraction)
- Note that while people can “look” at the map to see a solution, the computer must construct the map by exploration
  - ▶ Where can I go from Arad?
  - ▶ Sibiu, Timisoara, Zerind
  - ▶ Where can I go from Sibiu?
- The order of questioning defines the search strategy
- Problem formulation assumptions critically affect the quality of the solution to the original problem

## A General Search Procedure



**Search strategy** — way in which frontier expands

## Conclusion

- Many “real world” problems can be viewed as search problems
- Problem representation is crucial in determining effectiveness of search as a problem-solving method
- Search algorithms can be classified into two groups: uninformed (blind) search and informed (heuristic) search