CSCI 561 - Foundation for Artificial Intelligence

03 Search AlgorithmsUninformed and Informed

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Outline

Search Algorithms

- Uninformed Search (this lecture)

Search strategies: breadth-first, uniform-cost, depth-first, bi-directional, ...

- Informed Search (next lecture)

Search strategies: best-first, A*

Heuristic functions

TYPES OF SEARCH ALGORITHMS

Concept Review

How to define a "problem"?

- 1.?
- 2. ?
- 3. ?
- 4. ?

What is a "solution"?

What is a "problem space"?

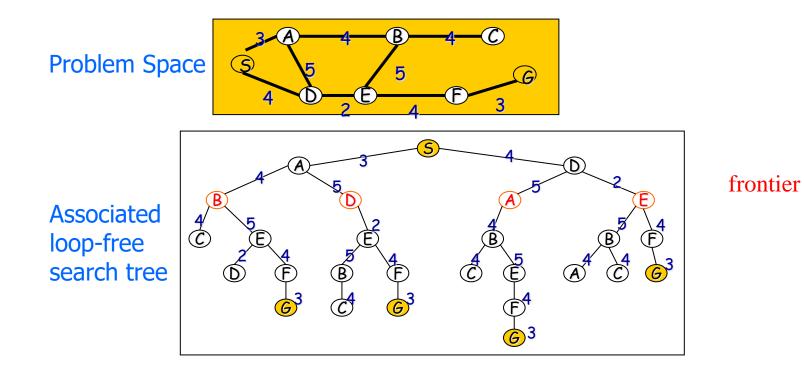
What is a "search tree"?

How to find a solution?

Where is your **frontier** in your search?

How to manage your "soldiers" during the search?

From Problem Space to Search Tree



Remember: Implementation of search algorithms

Organizing your soldiers at the frontier:

Queuing-Fn(*queue, elements***)** is a queuing function that inserts a set of elements into the queue and <u>determines the order of node expansion</u>. Varieties of the queuing function produce varieties of the search algorithm.

Remember: Implementation of search algorithms

Organizing your soldiers at the frontier:

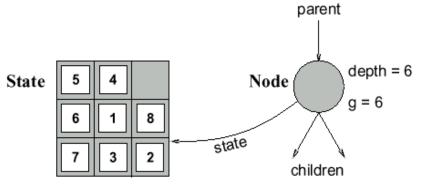
Breadth-first search: Enqueue expanded (children) nodes to the **back** of the queue (FIFO order)

Depth-first search: Enqueue expanded (children) nodes to the **front** of the queue (LIFO order)

Uniform cost search: Enqueue expanded (children) nodes so that queue is ordered by the path (past) cost of the nodes (priority queue order).

Encapsulating state information in nodes

A state is a (representation of) a physical configuration A node is a data structure constituting part of a search tree includes parent, children, depth, path cost g(x) States do not have parents, children, depth, or path cost!



The EXPAND function creates new nodes, filling in the various fields and using the OPERATORS (or SUCCESSORFN) of the problem to create the corresponding states.

How to Compare Different Search Strategies?

A search strategy is defined by picking the order of node expansion.

- Search algorithms are commonly evaluated according to the following four criteria:
 - **Completeness:** does it always find a solution if one exists?
 - Time complexity: how long does it take as function of num. of nodes?
 - **Space complexity:** how much memory does it require?
 - Optimality: does it guarantee the least-cost solution?
- Time and space complexity are measured in terms of:
 - *b* max branching factor of the search tree
 - *d* depth of the least-cost solution
 - *m* max depth of the search tree (may be infinity)

A Note for Approximations

- In our complexity analysis, we do not take the built-in <u>loop-detection</u> into account.
- The results only 'formally' apply to the variants of our algorithms WITHOUT loop-checks.
- Studying the effect of the loop-checking on the complexity is hard:
 - overhead of the checking MAY or MAY NOT be compensated by the reduction of the size of the tree.
- Also: our analysis DOES NOT take the length (space) of representing paths into account !!

http://www.cs.kuleuven.ac.be/~dannyd/FAI/

Uninformed search strategies

Use only information available in the problem formulation

- Breadth-first
- Uniform-cost
- Depth-first
- Depth-limited
- Iterative deepening

BREADTH-FIRST SEARCH

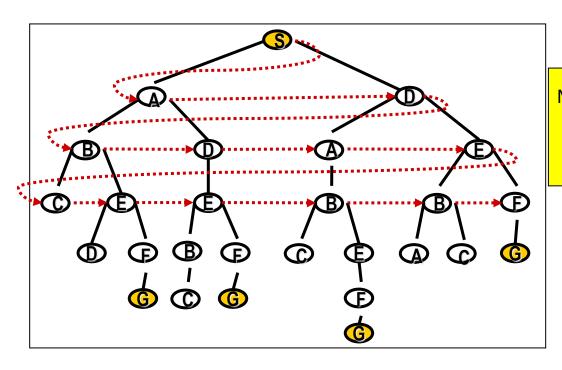
Expand shallowest unexpanded node

"First-in, first-out"

Implementation:

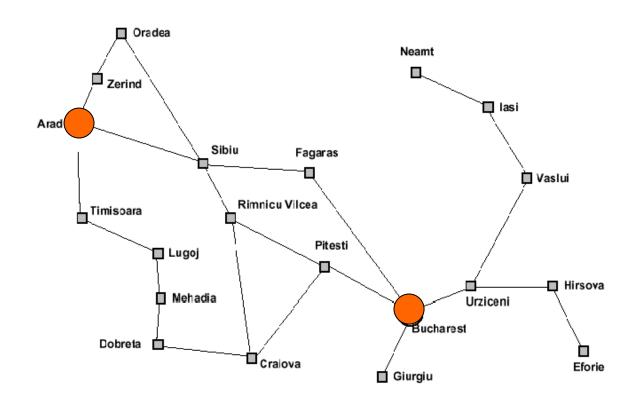
QUEUEINGFN = put successors at end of queue

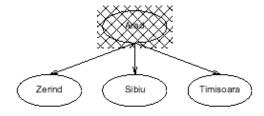


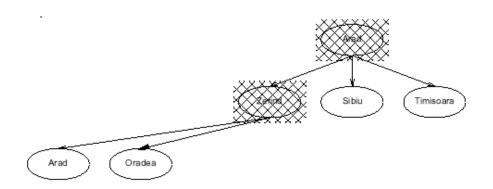


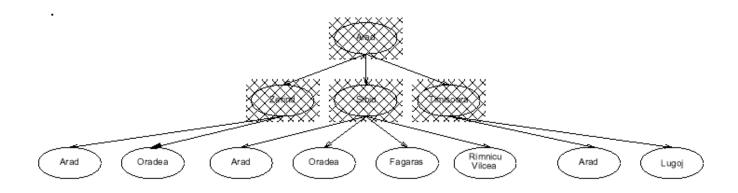
Move downwards, level by level, until goal is reached.

Example: Traveling from Arad To Bucharest









Properties of breadth-first search

- Completeness:
- Time complexity:
- Space complexity:
- Optimality:

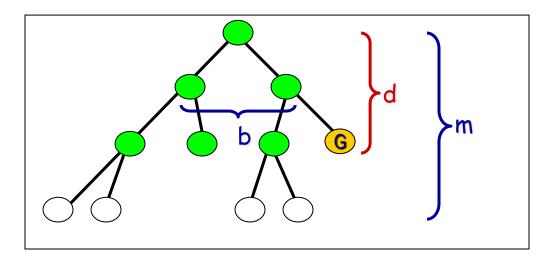
- Search algorithms are commonly evaluated according to the following four criteria:
 - **Completeness:** does it always find a solution if one exists?
 - **Time complexity:** how long does it take as function of num. of nodes?
 - Space complexity: how much memory does it require?
 - **Optimality:** does it guarantee the least-cost solution?
- Time and space complexity are measured in terms of:
 - *b* max branching factor of the search tree
 - *d* − depth of the least-cost solution
 - *m* max depth of the search tree (may be infinity)

Properties of breadth-first search

- Completeness: Yes, if *b* is finite
- Time complexity: $1+b+b^2+...+b^d = O(b^d)$, i.e., exponential in d
- Space complexity: $O(b^d)$ (see following slides)
- Optimality: Yes (assuming cost = 1 per step)

Time complexity of breadth-first search

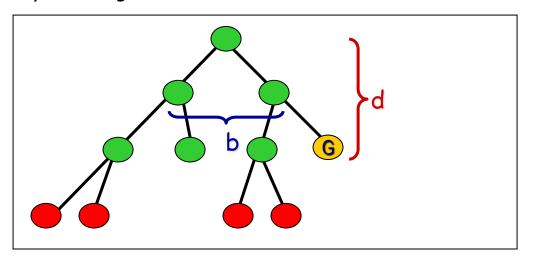
• If a goal node is found on depth d of the tree, all nodes up till that depth are created and examined (note: and the children of nodes at depth d are created and enqueued, but not yet examined).



• <u>Thus</u>: O(b^d)

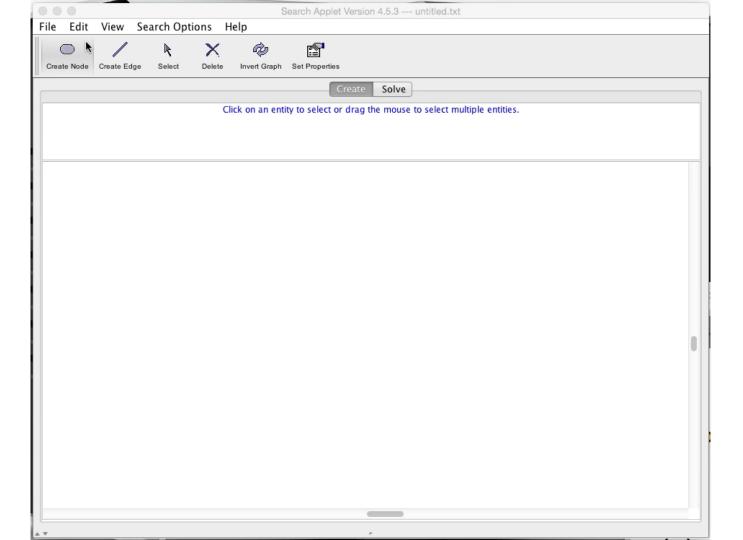
Space complexity of breadth-first

Largest number of nodes in QUEUE is reached on the level d+1
just beyond the goal node.

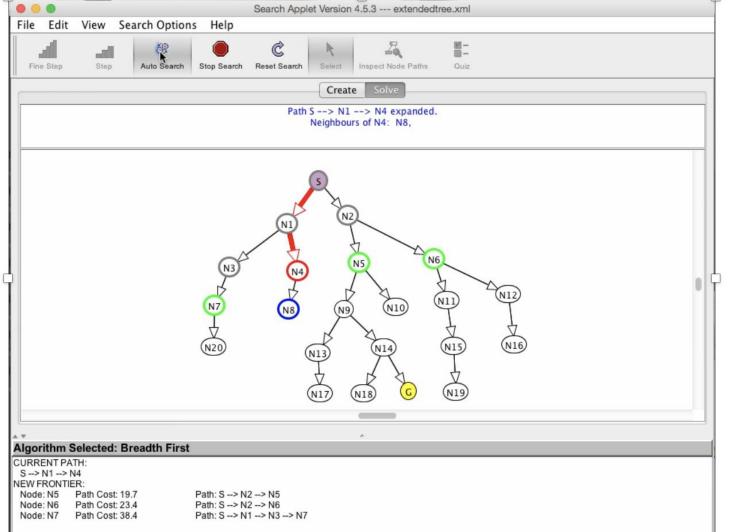


- QUEUE contains all onodes. (Thus: 4).
- In General: $b^{d+1} b \sim b^d$

Demo



Demo



UNIFORM-COST SEARCH

Expand least-cost unexpanded node

Implementation:

QUEUEINGFN = insert in order of increasing path cost

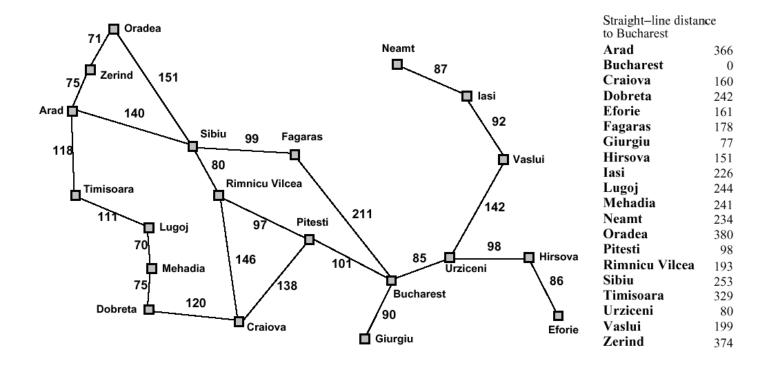
Arad

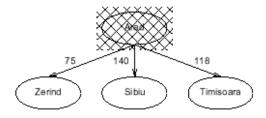
So, the queueing function keeps the node list sorted by increasing path cost, and we expand the first unexpanded node (hence with smallest path cost)

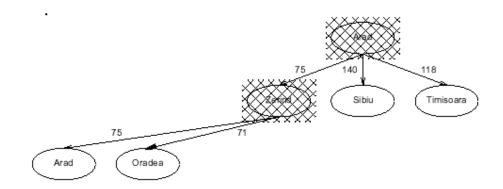
A refinement of the breadth-first strategy:

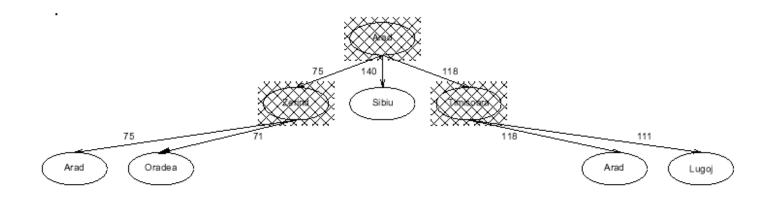
Breadth-first = uniform-cost with path cost = node depth

Romania with step costs in km









Properties of uniform-cost search

- Completeness: Yes, if step cost $\geq \varepsilon > 0$
- Time complexity: # nodes with $g \le cost$ of optimal solution, $\le O(b^d)$
- Space complexity: # nodes with $g \le cost$ of optimal solution, $\le O(b^d)$
- Optimality: Yes, as long as path cost never decreases

g(n) is the path cost to node n

Remember:

b = branching factor

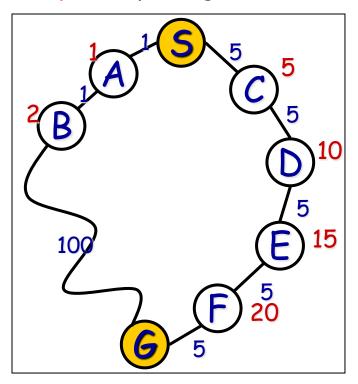
d = depth of least-cost solution

Implementation of uniform-cost search

- Initialize Queue with root node (built from start state)
- Repeat until (Queue empty) or (first node has Goal state):
 - Remove first node from front of Queue
 - Expand node (find its children)
 - Reject those children that have already been considered, to avoid loops
 - Add remaining children to Queue, in a way that keeps entire queue sorted by increasing path cost
- If Goal was reached, return success, otherwise failure

Caution! Don't Terminate the Search Pre-maturely

Uniform-cost search would not be optimal if it is terminated when any node in the queue
has goal state. But is optimal if you do goal-check when a node pops up from the frontier.



 Uniform cost returns the path with cost 102 (if any goal node is considered a solution), while there is a path with cost 25.

Note: Loop Detection

- In class, we saw that the search may fail or be sub-optimal if:
 - no loop detection: then algorithm runs into infinite cycles (A -> B -> A -> B -> ...)
 - not queuing-up a node that has a state which we have already visited: may yield suboptimal solution
 - simply avoiding to go back to our parent: looks promising, but we have not proven that it works

Solution? do not enqueue a node if its state matches the state of any of its parents (assuming path costs>0).

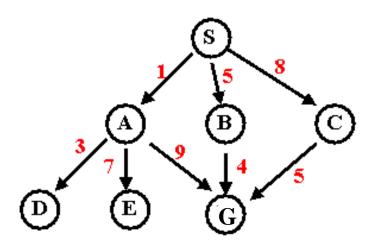
Indeed, if path costs > 0, it will always cost us more to consider a node with that state again than it had already cost us the first time.

Is that enough??

Example

From: http://www.csee.umbc.edu/471/current/notes/uninformed-search/

Example Illustrating Uninformed Search Strategies



Breadth-First Search Solution

From: http://www.csee.umbc.edu/471/current/notes/uninformed-search/

Breadth-First Search

```
return GENERAL-SEARCH(problem, ENQUEUE-AT-END)
```

exp. node nodes list

```
(S)
S (ABC)
A (BCDEG)
B (CDEGG')
C (DEGG'G")
D (EGG'G")
E (GG'G")
G (G'G")
```

Solution path found is SAG <-- this Galso has cost 10

Number of nodes expanded (including goal node) = 7

Uniform-Cost Search Solution

From: http://www.csee.umbc.edu/471/current/notes/uninformed-search/

Uniform-Cost Search

GENERAL-SEARCH(problem, ENQUEUE-BY-PATH-COST)

exp. node nodes list

```
{ S }
S { A(1) B(5) C(8) }
A { D(4) B(5) C(8) E(8) G(10) } (NB, we don't return G)
D { B(5) C(8) E(8) G(10) }
B { C(8) E(8) G(9) G(10) }
C { E(8) G(9) G(10) G(13) }
E { G(9) G(10) G(13) }
G { }
```

Solution path found is SBG <-- this Ghas cost 9, not 10

Number of nodes expanded (including goal node) = 7

Note: Queueing in Uniform-Cost Search

In the previous example, it is wasteful (but not incorrect) to queue-up three nodes with G state, if our goal if to find the least-cost solution:

Although they represent different paths, we know for sure that the one with smallest path cost (9 in the example) will yield a solution with smaller total path cost than the others.

So we can refine the queueing function by:

- queue-up node if

1) its state does not match the state of any parent

and

2) path cost smaller than path cost of any // it is better unexpanded node with same state in the queue (and in this case, replace old node with same state by our new node)

Is that it??

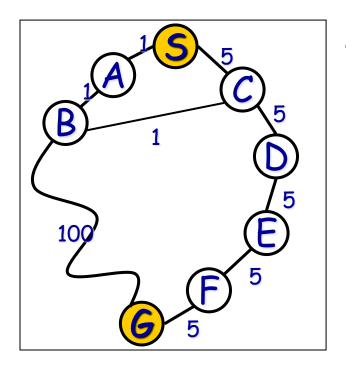
// it is new

A Clean Robust Algorithm

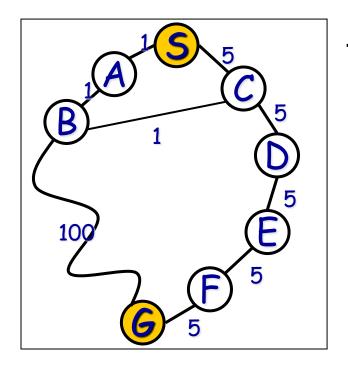
```
Function UniformCost-Search(problem, Queuing-Fn) returns a solution, or failure
  open ← make-queue(make-node(initial-state[problem])) // frontier
  closed ← [empty]
                                                           // already visited
   loop do
           if open is empty then return failure
           currnode ← Remove-Front(open)
           if Goal-Test[problem] applied to State(currnode) then return currnode
           children ← Expand(currnode, Operators[problem])
           while children not empty
                                 [... see next slide ...]
           end
           closed ← Insert(closed, currnode)
                                                        // already visited
           open ← Sort-By-PathCost(open)
                                                         // frontier
   end
```

A Clean Robust Algorithm

```
[... see previous slide ...]
           children ← Expand(currnode, Operators[problem])
           while children not empty
                       child ← Remove-Front(children)
                       if no node in open or closed has child's state
                                   open ← Queuing-Fn(open, child)
                       else if there exists node in open that has child's state
                                   if PathCost(child) < PathCost(node)
                                               open ← Delete-Node(open, node)
                                               open ← Queuing-Fn(open, child)
                       else if there exists node in closed that has child's state
                                   if PathCost(child) < PathCost(node)
                                               closed ← Delete-Node(closed, node)
                                               open ← Queuing-Fn(open, child)
           end
「... see previous slide ...]
```



#	State	Depth	Cost	Parent
1	S	0	0	_

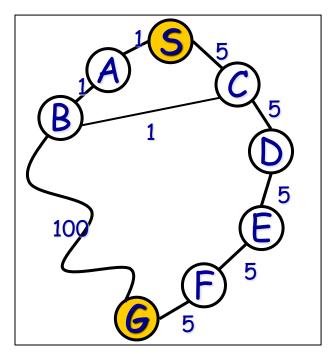


#	State	Depth	Cost	Parent
1	S	0	0	-
2	Α	1	1	1
3	С	1	5	1

Black = open queue

Grey = closed queue

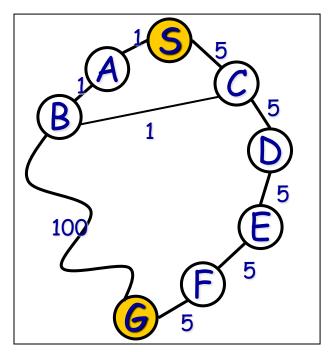
Insert expanded nodes
Such as to keep *open* queue sorted



#	State	Depth	Cost	Parent
1	S	0	0	-
2	A	1	1	1
4	В	2	2	2
3	С	1	5	1

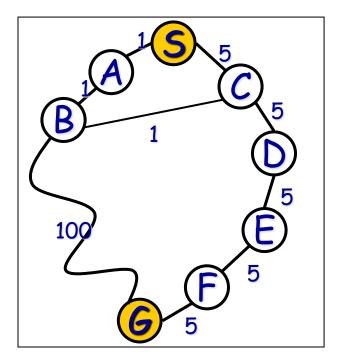
Node 2 has 2 successors: one with state B and one with state S.

We have node #1 in *closed* with state S; but its path cost 0 is smaller than the path cost obtained by expanding from A to S. So we do not queue-up the successor of node 2 that has state S.

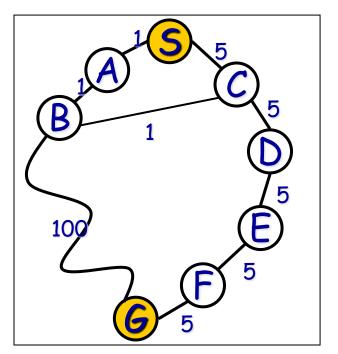


#	State	Depth	Cost	Parent
1	S	0	0	-
2	Α	1	1	1
4	В	2	2	2
5	С	3	3	4
6	G	3	102	4

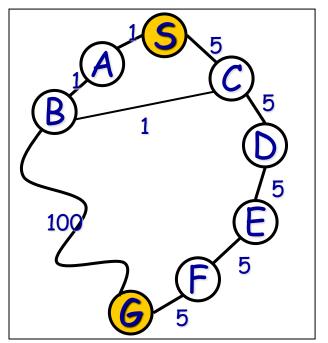
Node 4 has a successor with state C and Cost smaller than node #3 in *open* that Also had state C; so we update *open* To reflect the shortest path.



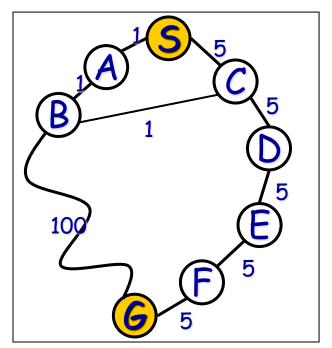
#	State	Depth	Cost	Parent
				_
1	S	0	0	-
2	A	1	1	1
4	В	2	2	2
5	С	3	3	4
7	D	4	8	5
6	G	3	102	4



#	State	Depth	Cost	Parent
1	S	0	0	-
2	A	1	1	1
4	В	2	2	2
5	C	3	3	4
7	D	4	8	5
8	Ε	5	13	7
6	G	3	102	4

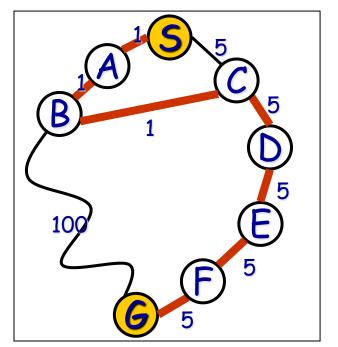


#	State	Depth	Cost	Parent
1	S	0	0	-
2	Α	1	1	1
4	В	2	2	2
5	C	3	3	4
7	D	4	8	5
8	Е	5	13	7
9	F	6	18	8
6	G	3	102	4



#	State	Depth	Cost	Parent
1	S	0	0	-
2	A	1	1	1
4	В	2	2	2
5	C	3	3	4
7	D	4	8	5
8	Е	5	13	7
9	F	6	18	8
10	G	7	23	9

The node with state G and cost 102 has been removed from the open queue and replaced by cheaper node with state G and code 23 which was pushed into the open queue.



#	State	Depth	Cost	Parent
1	S	0	0	-
2	A	1	1	1
4	В	2	2	2
5	C	3	3	4
7	D	4	8	5
8	Е	5	13	7
9	F	6	18	8
10	G	7	23	9

Goal reached

DEPTH-FIRST SEARCH

Expand deepest unexpanded node

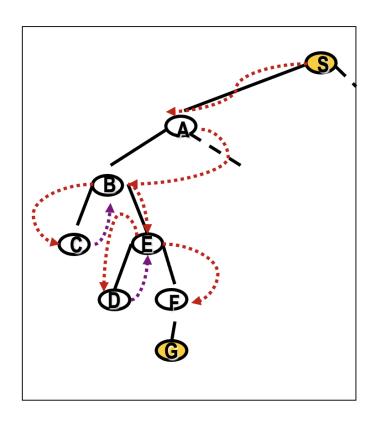
"last-in, first-out"

Implementation:

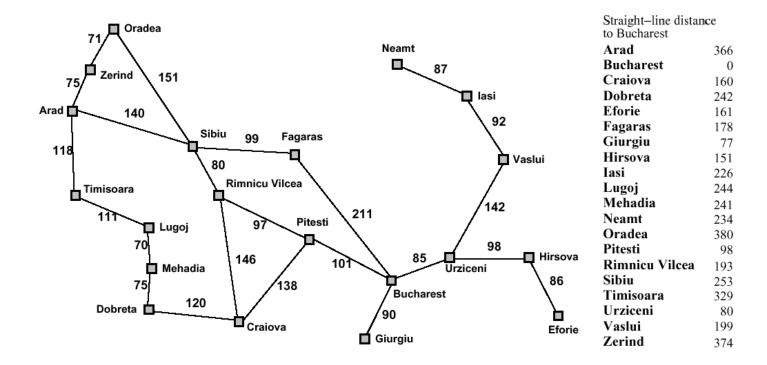
 $\mathrm{Q}\mathtt{UEUEINGFN} = \mathsf{insert}$ successors at front of queue

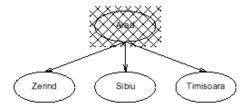
Arad

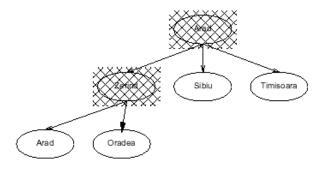
Depth First Search

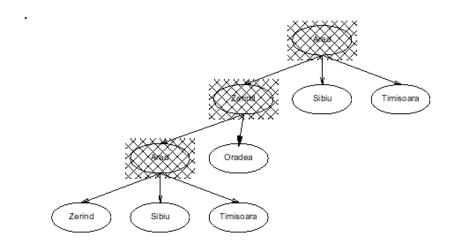


Romania with step costs in km









I.e., depth-first search can perform infinite cyclic excursions Need a finite, non-cyclic search space (or repeated-state checking)

Properties of depth-first search

- Completeness: No, fails in infinite state-space (yes if finite state space)
- Time complexity: $O(b^m)$
- Space complexity: *O(bm)*
- Optimality: No

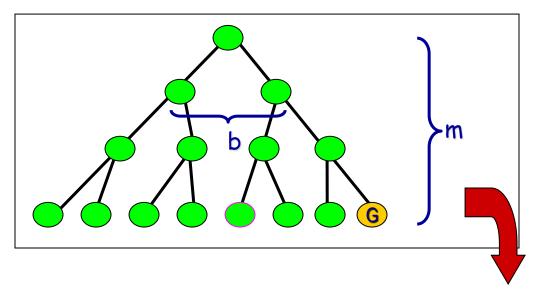
Remember:

```
b = branching factor
```

m = max depth of search tree

Time complexity of depth-first: details

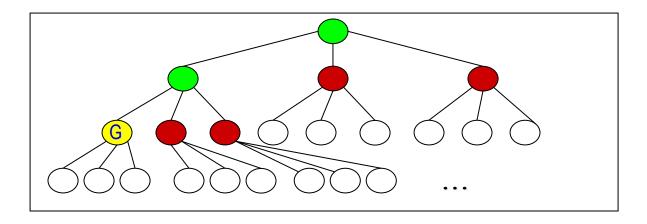
- In the worst case:
 - the (only) goal node may be on the right-most branch,



- Time complexity == $b^{m} + b^{m-1} + ... + 1 = \underline{b^{m+1} 1}$
- Thus: O(b^m)

Space complexity of depth-first

- Largest number of nodes in QUEUE is reached in bottom left-most node.
- Example: m = 2, b = 3:



- QUEUE contains all onodes. Thus: 4.
- In General: ((b-1) * m)
- Order: O(m*b)

Avoiding repeated states

In increasing order of effectiveness and computational overhead:

- do not return to state we come from, i.e., expand function will skip possible successors that are in same state as node's parent.
- do not create paths with cycles, i.e., expand function will skip possible successors that are in same state as any of node's ancestors.
- do not generate any state that was ever generated before, by keeping track (in memory) of every state generated, unless the cost of reaching that state is lower than last time we reached it.

Depth-limited search

Is a depth-first search with a limited depth *l*

Implementation: Nodes at depth *l* have no successors

Complete: if cutoff chosen appropriately then it is guaranteed to find a solution

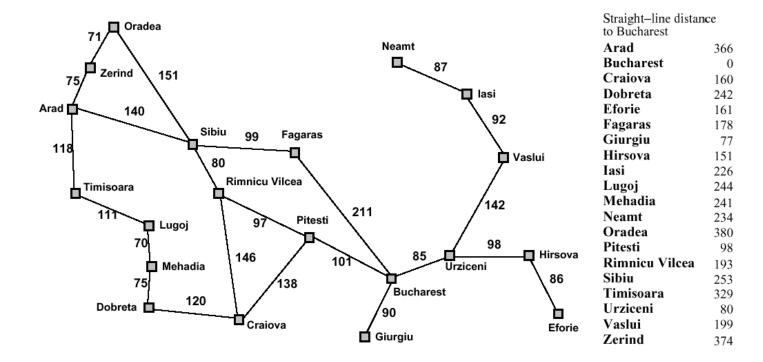
Optimal: it does not guarantee to find the least-cost solution

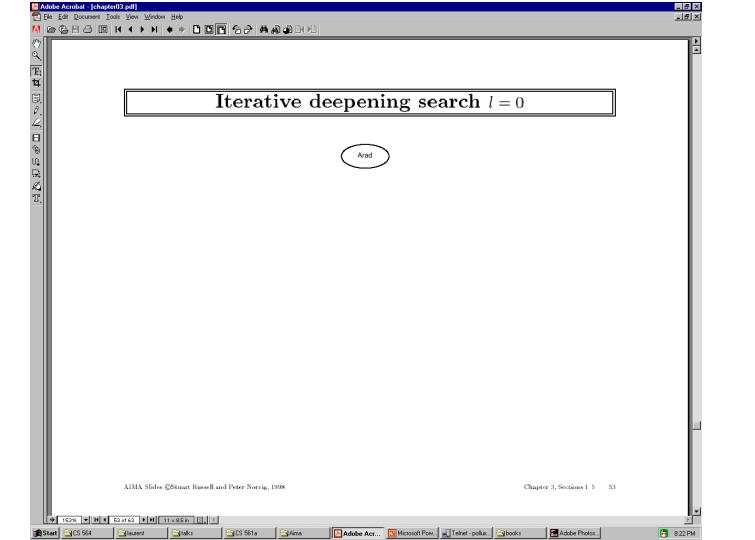
Iterative deepening search

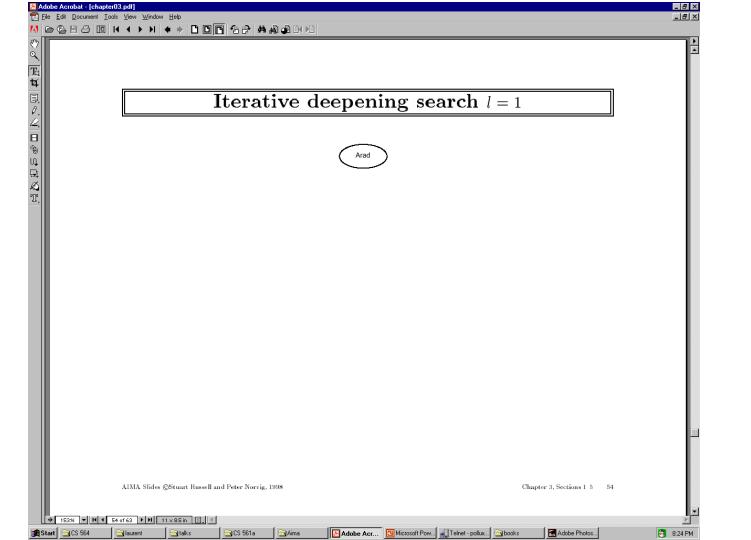
Combines the best of breadth-first and depth-first search strategies.

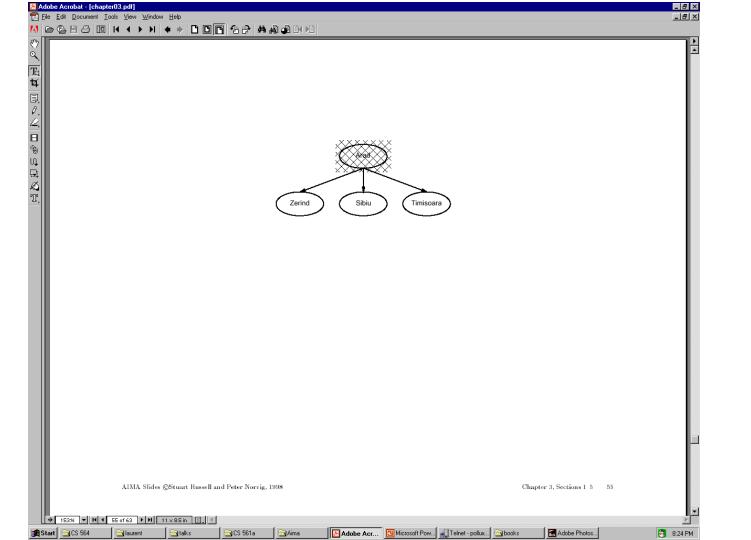
- Completeness: Yes,
- Time complexity: $O(b^d)$
- Space complexity: *O(bd)*
- Optimality: Yes, if step cost = 1

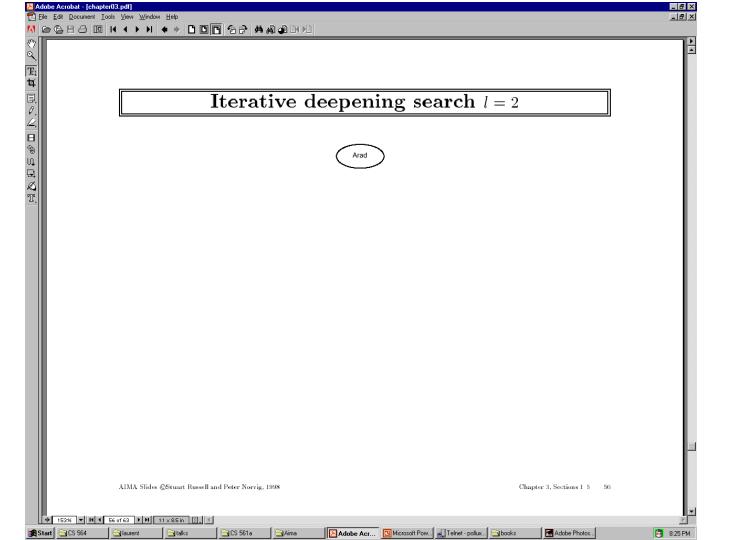
Romania with step costs in km

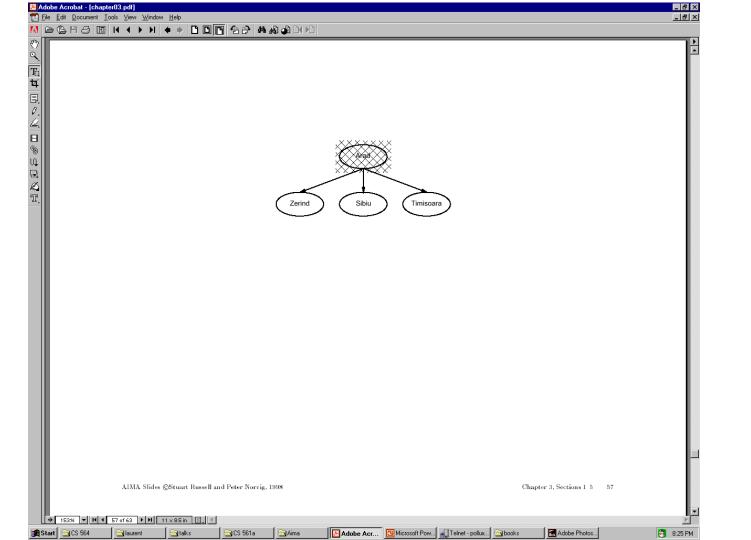


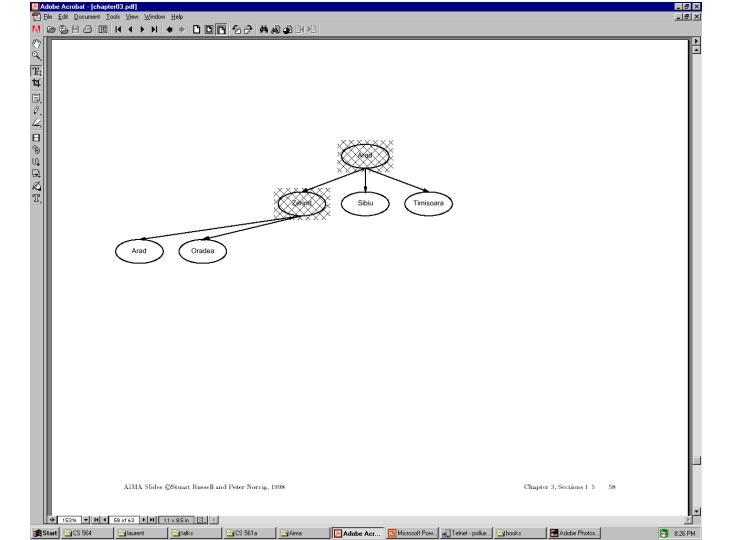


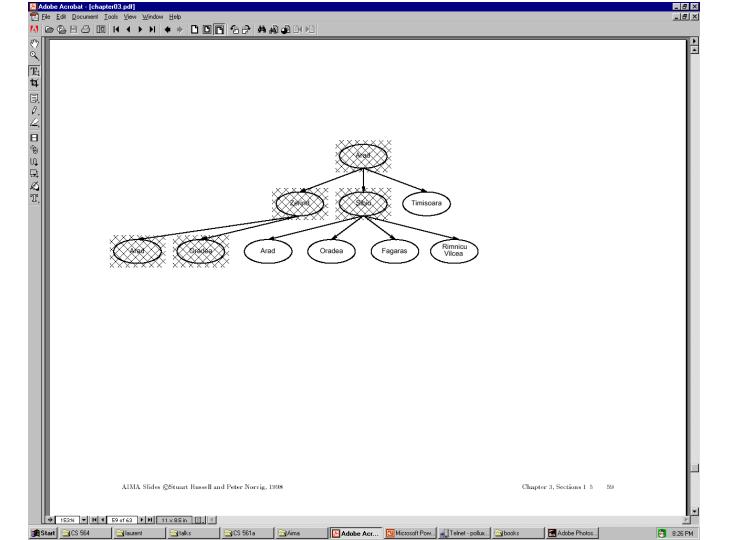


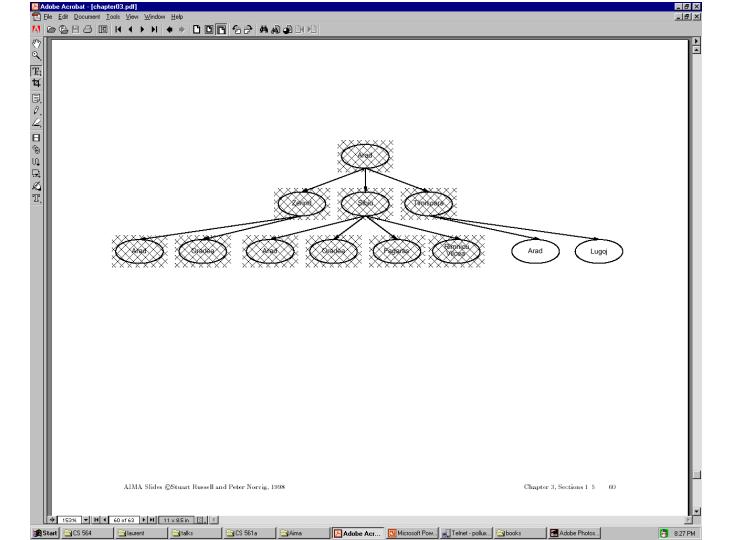












Iterative deepening complexity

- Iterative deepening search may seem wasteful because so many states are expanded multiple times.
- In practice, however, the overhead of these multiple expansions is small, because most of the nodes are towards leaves (bottom) of the search tree:

thus, the nodes that are evaluated several times (towards top of tree) are in relatively small number.

Iterative deepening complexity

In iterative deepening, nodes at bottom level are expanded once, level above twice, etc. up to root (expanded d+1 times) so total number of expansions is:
 (d+1)1 + (d)b + (d-1)b^2 + ... + 3b^(d-2) + 2b^(d-1) + 1b^d = O(b^d)

• In general, iterative deepening is preferred to depth-first or breadth-first when search space large and depth of solution not known.

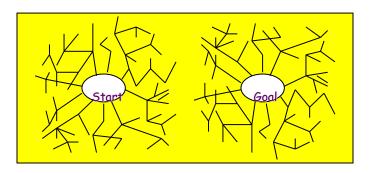
BI-DIRECTIONAL SEARCH

- Both search forward from initial state, and backwards from goal.
- Stop when the two searches meet in the middle.
- Problem: how do we search backwards from goal??
 - predecessor of node n = all nodes that have n as successor
 - this may not always be easy to compute!

• if several goal states, apply predecessor function to them just as we applied successor (only works well if goals are explicitly known; may be difficult if goals only characterized

implicitly).

- Problem: how do we search backwards from goal?? (cont.)
 - ...
 - for bidirectional search to work well, there must be an efficient way to check whether a given node belongs to the other search tree.
 - select a given search algorithm for each half.



- 1. QUEUE1 <-- path only containing the root; QUEUE2 <-- path only containing the goal;
- 2. <u>WHILE</u> both QUEUEs are not empty <u>AND</u> QUEUE1 and QUEUE2 do NOT share a state
 - <u>DO</u> remove their first paths; create their new paths (to all children); reject their new paths with loops; add their new paths to back;
- 3. <u>IF</u> QUEUE1 and QUEUE2 share a state <u>THEN</u> success; ELSE failure;

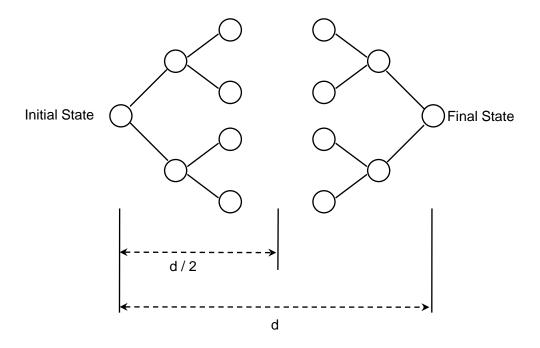
• Completeness: Yes,

• Time complexity: $2*O(b^{d/2}) = O(b^{d/2})$

• Space complexity: $O(b^{m/2})$

• Optimality: Yes

- To avoid one by one comparison, we need a hash table of size $O(b^{m/2})$
- If hash table is used, the cost of comparison is O(1)



- Bidirectional search merits:
 - Big difference for problems with branching factor b in both directions
 - A solution of length d will be found in $O(2b^{d/2}) = O(b^{d/2})$
 - For b = 10 and d = 6, only 2,222 nodes are needed instead of 1,111,111 for breadth-first search

- Bidirectional search issues
 - *Predecessors* of a node need to be generated
 - Difficult when operators are not reversible
 - What to do if there is no explicit list of goal states?
 - For each node: *check if it appeared in the other search*
 - Needs a hash table of O(b^{d/2})
 - What is the best search strategy for the two searches?

Comparing uninformed search strategies

Criterion	Breadth- first	Uniform cost	Depth- first	Depth- limited	Iterative deepening	Bidirectional (if applicable)
Time	b^d	b^d	b^m	b^l	b^d	b^(d/2)
Space	b^d	b^d	bm	bl	bd	b^(d/2)
Optimal?	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes
Complete?	Yes	Yes	No	Yes, if l≥d	Yes	Yes

- b − max branching factor of the search tree
- *d* depth of the least-cost solution
- m max depth of the state-space (may be infinity)
- /- depth cutoff

Summary

- Problem formulation usually requires abstracting away real-world details to define a state space that can be explored using computer algorithms.
- Once problem is formulated in abstract form, complexity analysis helps us picking out best algorithm to solve problem.
- Variety of uninformed search strategies; difference lies in method used to pick node that will be further expanded.
- Iterative deepening search only uses linear space and not much more time than other uniformed search strategies.