

Final project report on Path Finding Problem

CS 7750

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Abstract

In many occasions, we face the problem of finding a path from one place to another place. In such situations, we are not just trying to find the shortest distance; but the traveling time also an important factor to be taken into consideration. In artificial intelligence, search algorithms are mainly used for such problems. On the other hand, when it comes to differentiating between such algorithms, it is often useful to implement them on a path finding problem and compare their features. We have attempted to create a game map which can be used in a simple path finding problem. On the map, we have two points, source and destination. We are also free to create an arbitrary shape of walls between them to create a problem. We then have myriad of ways to examine the precise difference between search algorithms and compare them in terms of execution speed, accuracy, and overall performance. To solve the path finding problem, we have implemented six major search algorithms representing 3 main types of search algorithm families, namely Breadth-First Search, Depth-First Search, Greedy Best-First Search, A* Search, Hill-Climbing, and Simulated Annealing. The map is created using a grid structure, so as to have a precise depiction of the 'search movements' of each of the algorithms visually in terms of characteristics and performance.

1 Introduction

Wikipedia describes the pathfinding problem as "*Pathfinding* or *pathing* is the plotting, by a computer application, of the shortest route between two points". There are two main problems of pathfinding, which are:

- Finding a path between two nodes in a graph
- Finding the optimal path

Blind search algorithms such as breadth-first and depth-first search solve the first type of problem by exhaustively checking all possibilities, starting with the given node. They iterate through all possible paths until they find the destination node. Because of their blindness, such algorithms can be either ineffective or too expensive.

Then we have an even more complicated problem finding the optimal path. In this case however, it is not required to check all possible paths in order to find the optimal one. By using heuristics (additional knowledge of the problem space), we can strategically eliminate unnecessary paths. We will find out that this informed approach is more powerful and "gets the job done" efficiently most of the time.

We also have a type of search algorithms that try to explore the search space unsystematically. This is relative to the fact that, in some problems, the path to the goal is irrelevant what matters is the final state after the search effort. Local search algorithms are such algorithms in which the paths followed are not retained.

We have implemented six different algorithms reflecting the above three different approaches:

- Uninformed search
 - Breadth-first search
 - Depth-first search
- Heuristic search
 - Greedy best-first search
 - A* search
- Local search
 - Hill-climbing search
 - Simulated annealing

2 Algorithms and Implementations

There will be obstacles between the source and the destination squares, and our implementation shows graphically how each algorithm manage to reach the destination in its own term. This very activity will in turn allow us to visually enjoy the actual performance of each of those algorithms in real world problems. We made use of Manhattan distance heuristics for the informed search algorithms and as the scoring/objective function for local searches.

2.1 Breadth-first search algorithm:

BFS is a strategy for searching in a graph when search is limited to essentially two operations: (a) visit and inspect a node of a graph; (b) gain access to visit the nodes that neighbor the currently visited node. The BFS begins at a root node and inspects all the neighboring nodes. Then for each of those neighbor nodes in turn, it inspects their neighbor nodes which were unvisited, and so on.

The algorithm uses a queue data structure to store intermediate results as it traverses the graph, as follows:

1. Enqueue the root node
2. Dequeue a node in first-in-first-out manner and examine it
 - If the element sought is found in this node, quit the search and return a result.
 - Otherwise enqueue any successors (the direct child nodes) that have not yet been discovered.

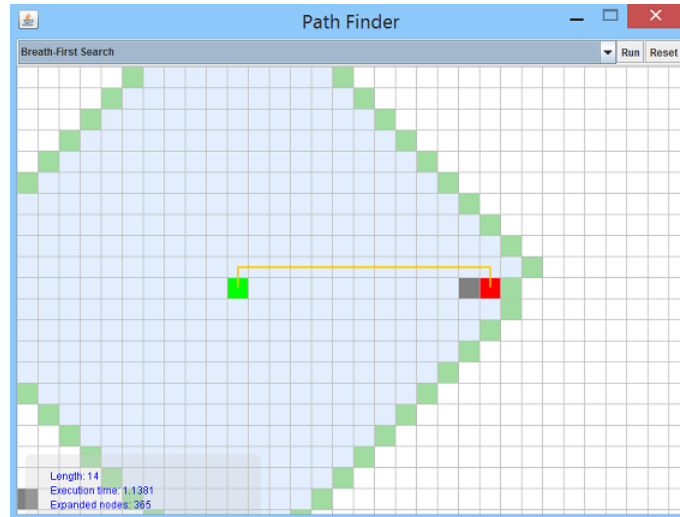


Figure 1: BFS with a block between two points

3. If the queue is empty, every node on the graph has been examined quit the search and return "not found".
4. If the queue is not empty, repeat from Step 2.

2.2 Depth-first search algorithm:

DFS starts at the root(selecting some arbitrary node as the root in the case of a graph) and explores as far as possible along each branch before backtracking.

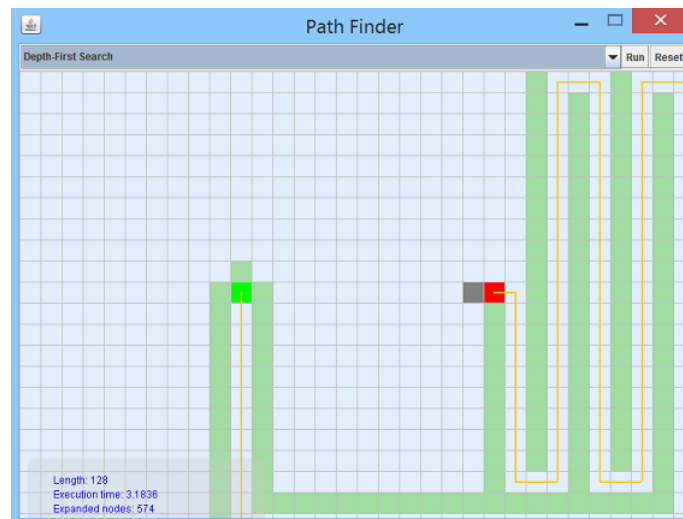


Figure 2: DFS with a block between two points

DFS always expands the deepest node in the current frontier of the search tree. As seen above, the search proceeds immediately to the deepest level of the search tree, where the nodes have no successors.

2.3 Best-first search algorithm:

It is a search algorithm which explores a graph by expanding the most promising node chosen solely according to additional knowledge about the problem given by its designer in term heuristic function.

We used "best-first search" to refer specifically to a search with a heuristic function that attempts to predict how close the end of a path is to a solution, so that paths which are judged to be closer to a solution are extended first. This specific type of search is called **greedy best-first search**.

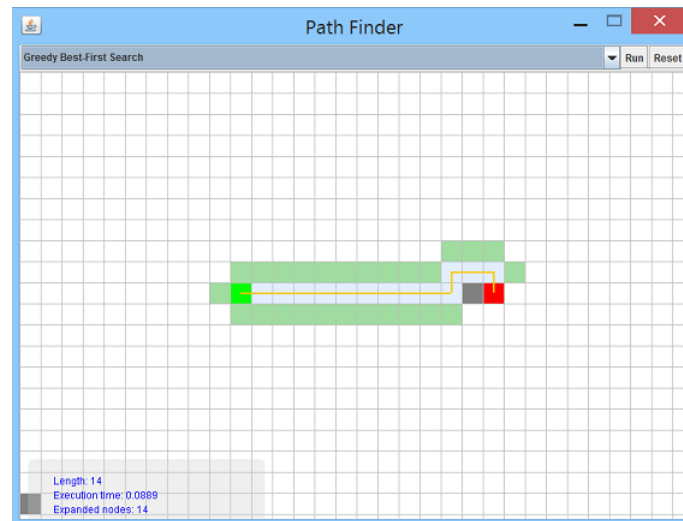


Figure 3: Greedy best-first search with a block between two points

By using a greedy algorithm, we expand the root and add its successors to the queue then pick the successor that is the closest to the goal node depend entirely on the prediction of the heuristic function.

Manhattan distance heuristic: Think of the grid map, the root node, and goal node in our PathFinding program as a cartesian plane with two separate points x and y . What is your best estimate about the distance from x to y ? One might give the straight-line distance (euclidean distance) estimate however the sum of the difference between x and y coordinates (manhattan distance) would yield a more admissible prediction and in fact it is the perfect estimate as we define our grid to allow only horizontal and vertical move but not diagonal or straight a cross every square.

2.4 A* search algorithm:

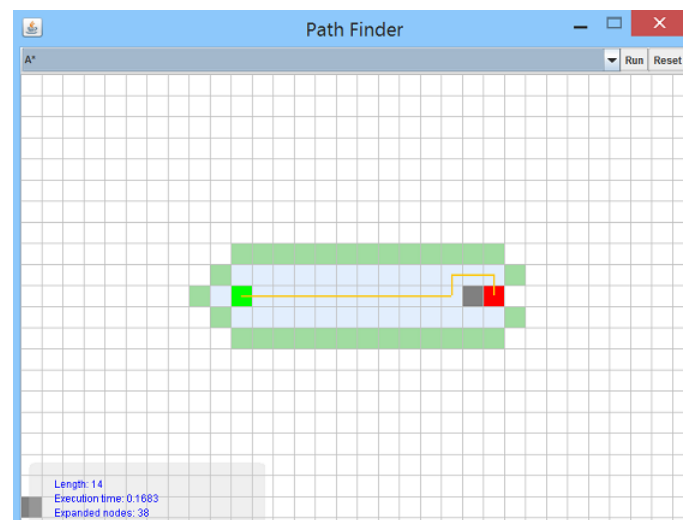


Figure 4: A* with a block between two points

As compared to the Best-first search algorithm, A* explores a graph not only by expanding the most promising node based on the heuristic function, but also on take into account the cost to reach that intermediate node itself. We made use of the Manhattan distance heuristic function with A* search. Since Manhattan distance is a consistent heuristic, we are guaranteed to find an optimal path in case of A*.

The key difference from the implementation of Best-first search is that we keep a sorted priority queue (fringe) of alternate path segments in case of A*. Therefore, at each step, we remove the node with the lowest $f(x)$ value from the queue until reaching a goal square.

2.5 Hill-climbing algorithm:

A local search algorithm starts from a candidate solution and then iteratively moves to a neighbors solution. When no improving configurations are present in the neighborhood, local search is stuck at a locally optimal point.

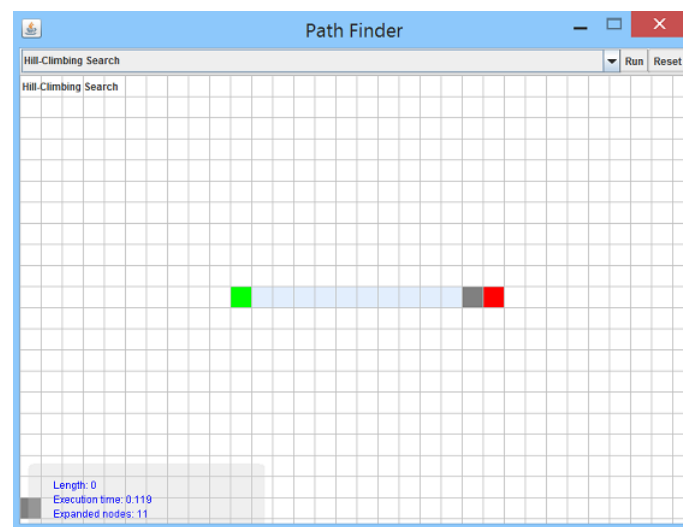


Figure 5: Hill-climbing search with a block between two points

It is an iterative algorithm that starts with an arbitrary solution to a problem, then attempts to find a better solution by incrementally changing a single element of the solution. If the change produces a better solution, an incremental change is made to the new solution, repeating until no further improvements can be found. Hill climbing is good for finding a local optimum (a solution that cannot be improved by considering a neighboring configuration) but it is not necessarily guaranteed to find the best possible solution (the global optimum) out of all possible solutions (the search space).

2.6 Simulated annealing algorithm:

At each step, the SA heuristic considers some neighboring state of the current state, and probabilistically decides between moving the system to that state or staying in the current state. These probabilities ultimately lead the system to move to states of lower energy. Typically this step is repeated until the system reaches a state that is good enough for the application, or until a given computation budget has been exhausted.

The innermost loop of the simulated-annealing algorithm is quite similar to hill climbing. Instead of picking the best move, however, it picks a random move. If the move improves the situation, it is always accepted. Otherwise, the algorithm accepts the move with some probability less than 1.

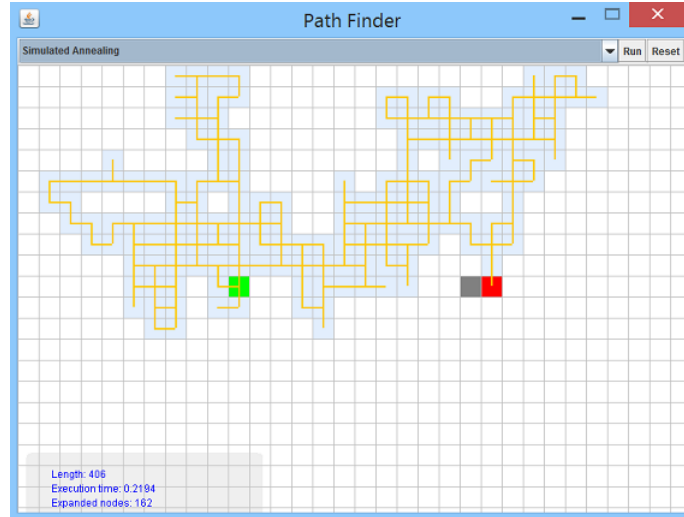


Figure 6: Simulated annealing with a block between two points

Use of grids: Grids are widely used in games to represent a playground such as maps (Warcraft), playing surfaces (pool, tennis, poker), playing fields (baseball, football), boards (chess, Monopoly, Connect Four), and abstract spaces (Tetris).

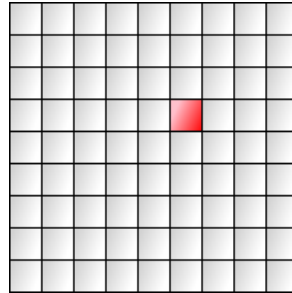


Figure 7: Square grida

We build grids by repeating simple shapes. A square grid is the most common type. It is the simplest type and very easy to work with, therefore the most common type of grid. We can represent locations using simple coordinates (x, y) system. The square coordinate system is the same even if your map squares are angled on screen in an isometric or axonometric projection. The default choice of heuristic function on a grid is understandably Manhattan distance heuristics, because of its block-type structure.

3 Results and Analysis

The results we have obtained, after running these algorithms individually both with and without a block between the points A and B, are pretty astonishing and is a pleasure for anyone to watch how these algorithms get the job done through such distinctive methodologies.

Let us compare the six algorithms in an exactly same problem case with a single square block in between the two points.

As we can see here, in breadth-first search algorithm, all the nodes are expanded at a given depth in the search tree before any nodes at the next level are expanded. Therefore the shape of the search space covered is guaranteed to be a square on a grid and the expanded node is the largest in case of BFS. The CPU execution time is also the longest since the algorithm is doing an exhaustive search to reach the destination node. We can see how blind (and wasteful) an uninformed search actually is. Breadth-first

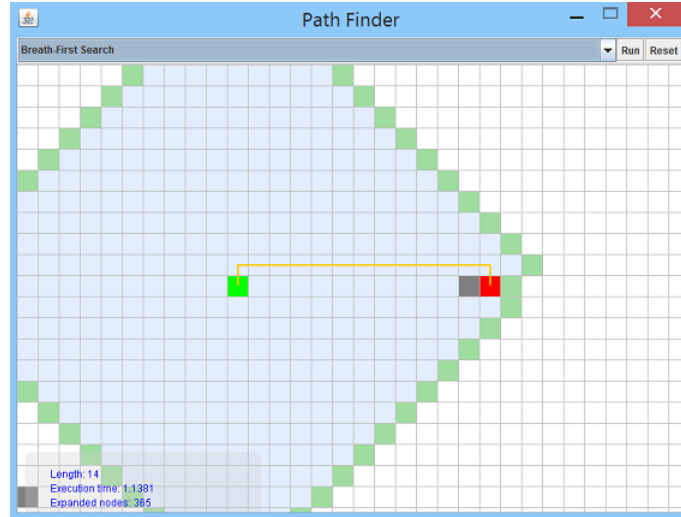


Figure 8: BFS with a block between two points

search is guaranteed to find the optimal path, so we can see that the path-cost is 14 in above case.

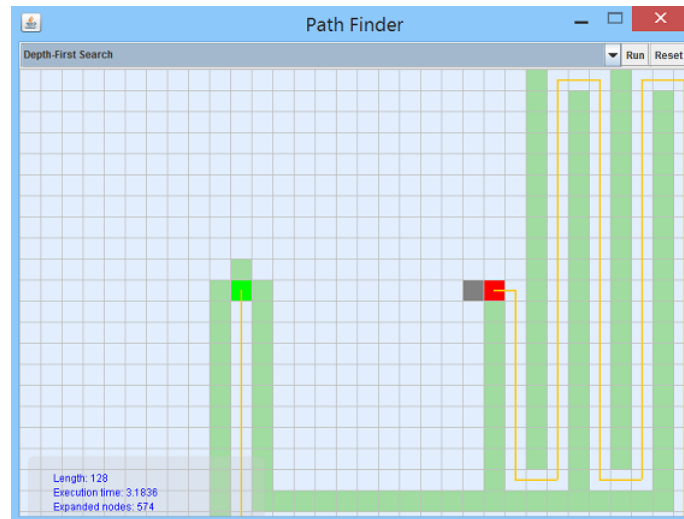


Figure 9: DFS with a block between two points

As we can see here, DFS expands the deepest node in the current frontier. Therefore the path cost is quite high in this example and the CPU execution time as well. It also expanded much more nodes than BFS, therefore proving that DFS is non-optimal.

We can see from the above picture how smart the heuristic search compared to the uninformed search is. A* actually has a sense of direction to look for the destination and is very effective in finding it. The length of the path is same as BFS, therefore guarantees an optimal path, because of an admissible heuristic function. We can see that the expanded node is greatly reduced and the CPU execution time accordingly.

The greedy best-first search is the most effective in this case with a minimum expanded nodes of 14, thereby having the least CPU execution time. This proves that a greedy algorithm can be very effective in the right circumstance. Instead of selecting the vertex closest to the starting point, it selects the vertex closest to the goal. Greedy Best-First-Search is not guaranteed to find a shortest path. However, it runs much quicker than A* algorithm.

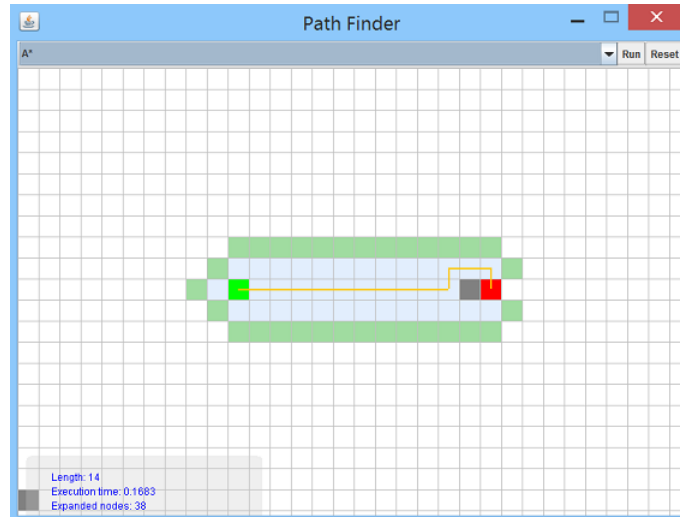


Figure 10: A* with a block between two points

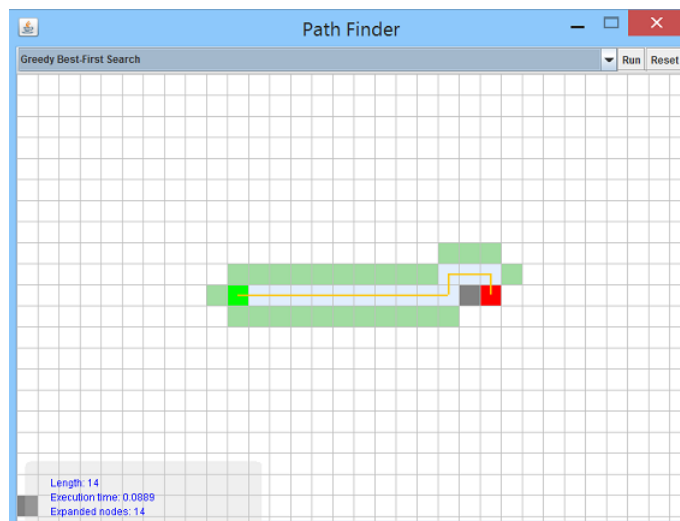


Figure 11: Greedy best-first search with a block between two points

As we can see (in Figure 6), a local search algorithm operate using a single current node (rather than multiple paths) and generally move only to neighbors of that node. Also the paths followed by the search are not retained. So we can testify from above that the hill-climbing search is simply a loop that continually moves in the direction of increasing value that is, uphill. And since theres an obstacle, it failed to find the path to the destination, because it simply did not keep track of alternative routes. Hence we can see the clear limitations of the hill-climbing search here.

Simulated annealing is the most ineffective choice as per this example as the path length is 406 steps as shown. However, the CPU execution time and the expanded node are much less than uninformed search algorithms because of its randomness.

4 Conclusion

So the obvious question is "which algorithm should we use for finding paths on a game map?"

- If you want to find paths from or to all locations, use Breadth First Search.
- If you want to find paths to one location, use Greedy Best First Search or A*. We would prefer A* in most cases since it is optimal.

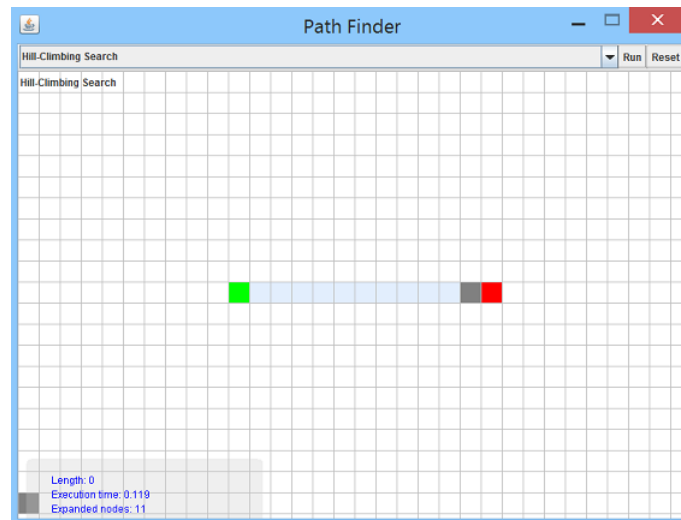


Figure 12: Hill-climbing search with a block between two points

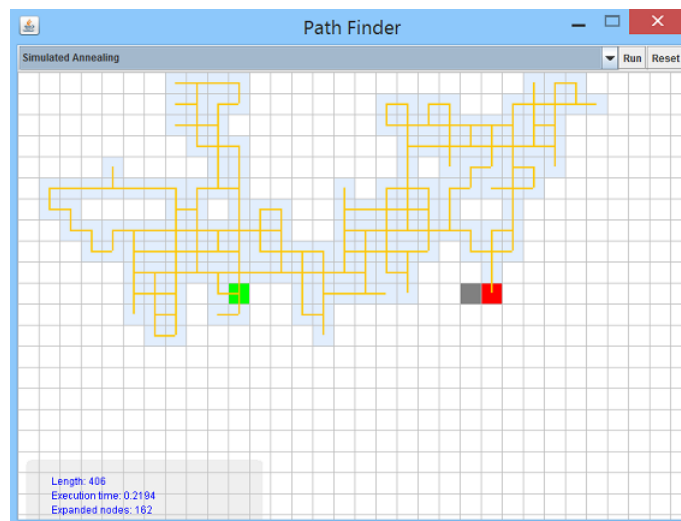


Figure 13: Simulated annealing with a block between two points

What about optimal paths? Breadth First Search is guaranteed to find the shortest path given the input graph. Greedy Best First Search is not. A* is guaranteed to find the shortest path if the heuristic is never larger than the true distance. As the heuristic becomes larger, A* turns into Greedy Best First Search.

What about performance? The best thing to do is to eliminate unnecessary locations in your graph. Reducing the size of the graph helps all the graph search algorithms. It also can be noticed that simpler queues run faster. Greedy Best First Search typically runs faster but doesn't produce optimal paths. A* is a good choice for most pathfinding needs.