Uninformed Search

Chapter 3

(Based on slides by Stuart Russell, Subbarao Kambhampati, Dan Weld, Oren Etzioni, Henry Kautz, Richard Korf, and other UW-AI faculty)

What is a State?

• All information about the environment

• All information necessary to make a decision for the task at hand.

Agent's Knowledge Representation

Туре	State representation	Focus
Atomic	States are indivisible; No internal structure	Search on atomic states;
Propositional (aka Factored)	States are made of state variables that take values (Propositional or Multi- valued or Continuous)	Search+inference in logical (prop logic) and probabilistic (bayes nets) representations
Relational	States describe the objects in the world and their inter-relations	Search+Inference in predicate logic (or relational prob. Models)
First-order	+functions over objects	Search+Inference in first order logic (or first order probabilistic models)

Illustration with Vacuum World



Relational:

World made of objects: Roomba; L-room, R-room Relations: In (<robot>, <room>); dirty(<room>) If you add a second roomba, or more rooms, only the objects increase.

If you want to consider noisiness, you just need to add one other relation

Propositional/Factored: States made up of 3 state variables Dirt-in-left-room T/F Dirt-in-right-room T/F Roomba-in-room L/R

Each state is an assignment of Values to state variables 2³ Different states

Actions can just mention the variables they affect

Note that the representation is compact (logarithmic in the size of the state space)

If you add a second roomba, the Representation increases by just one More state variable. If you want to consider "noisiness" of rooms, we need *two* variables, one for

Fach room

Atomic Agent

Input:

- Set of states
- Operators [and costs]
- Start state
- Goal state [test]

Output:

- Path: start \Rightarrow a state satisfying goal test
- [May require shortest path]

Why is search interesting?

- Many (all?) AI problems can be formulated as search problems!
- Examples:
 - Path planning
 - Games
 - Natural Language Processing
 - Machine learning

Example: The 8-puzzle

7	2	4
5		6
8	3	1



Start State

Goal State

- <u>states?</u>
- <u>actions?</u>
- goal test?
- path cost?

Example: The 8-puzzle





Start State

Goal State

- <u>states?</u> locations of tiles
- <u>actions?</u> move blank left, right, up, down
- goal test? = goal state (given)
- path cost? 1 per move
- •
- [Note: optimal solution of *n*-Puzzle family is NP-hard]

Search Tree Example: Fragment of 8-Puzzle Problem Space



Example: robotic assembly



- <u>states</u>: real-valued coordinates of robot joint angles parts of the object to be assembled
- •
- <u>actions</u>?: continuous motions of robot joints
- •
- <u>goal test?</u>: complete assembly
- •
- <u>path cost?</u>: time to execute
- •

Example: Romania

- On holiday in Romania; currently in Arad.
- Flight leaves tomorrow from Bucharest
- •
- Formulate goal:
 - be in Bucharest
 - _
- Formulate problem:
 - states: various cities
 - actions: drive between cities
 - ____
- Find solution:
 - sequence of cities, e.g., Arad, Sibiu, Fagaras, Bucharest

Example: N Queens

- Input:
 Set of states
 - Operators [and costs]
 - Start state
 - Goal state (test)
- Output

		Q	
Q			
			Q
	Q		

Implementation: states vs. nodes

• A state is a (representation of) a physical configuration

.

• A node is a data structure constituting part of a search tree includes state, parent node, action, path cost g(x), depth



• The Expand function creates new nodes, filling in the various fields and using the SuccessorFn of the problem to create the corresponding states.

Search strategies

- A search strategy is defined by picking the order of node expansion
- Strategies are evaluated along the following dimensions:
 - completeness: does it always find a solution if one exists?
 - time complexity: number of nodes generated
 - space complexity: maximum number of nodes in memory
 - optimality: does it always find a least-cost solution?
 - systematicity: does it visit each state at most once?
- Time and space complexity are measured in terms of
 - *b*: maximum branching factor of the search tree
 - d: depth of the least-cost solution
 - *m*: maximum depth of the state space (may be ∞)

Uninformed search strategies

- Uninformed search strategies use only the information available in the problem definition
- Breadth-first search
- Depth-first search
- Depth-limited search
- Iterative deepening search

Repeated states

• Failure to detect repeated states can turn a linear problem into an exponential one!



Depth First Search

- Maintain stack of nodes to visit
- Evaluation
 - Complete? No
 - Time Complexity?
 - Space Complexity?



Breadth First Search: shortest first

- Maintain queue of nodes to visit
- Evaluation
 - Complete? Yes (b is finite)
 - Time Complexity? $O(b^d)$ - Space Complexity? $O(b^d)$ - Optimal? Yes, if stepcost=1 d e f gh

Uniform Cost Search: cheapest first

- Maintain queue of nodes to visit
- Evaluation
 - Complete? Yes (b is finite)
 - Time Complexity? $O(b^{(C^*/e)})$ a - Space Complexity? $O(b^{(C^*/e)})$ b - Optimal? Yes 2 6 1 3 4 d e f g h

DFS



http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dtoFAvtVE4U





http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=z6lUnb9ktkE

Memory Limitation

Suppose:
2 GHz CPU
1 GB main memory
100 instructions / expansion
5 bytes / node

200,000 expansions / sec Memory filled in 100 sec ... < 2 minutes

Time vs. Memory

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	

Figure 3.13 Time and memory requirements for breadth-first search. The numbers shown assume branching factor b = 10; 1 million nodes/second; 1000 bytes/node.

Idea 1: Beam Search

- Maintain a constant sized frontier
- Whenever the frontier becomes large
 - Prune the worst nodes

Optimal: no

Complete: no

Idea 2: Iterative deepening search

function ITERATIVE-DEEPENING-SEARCH(*problem*) returns a solution, or failure

inputs: problem, a problem

```
for depth \leftarrow 0 to \infty do

result \leftarrow DEPTH-LIMITED-SEARCH(problem, depth)

if result \neq cutoff then return result
```

Limit = 0Þ.









• Number of nodes generated in a depth-limited search to depth *d* with branching factor *b*:

•
$$N_{DLS} = b^0 + b^1 + b^2 + \dots + b^{d-2} + b^{d-1} + b^d$$

- Number of nodes generated in an iterative deepening search to depth *d* with branching factor *b*:
 - $N_{IDS} = (d+1)b^0 + d b^{1} + (d-1)b^{2} + ... + 3b^{d-2} + 2b^{d-1} + 1b^d$
- Asymptotic ratio: (b+1)/(b-1)
- For *b* = 10, *d* = 5,

٠

• Overhead = (123,456 - 111,111)/111,111 = 11%

• <u>Complete?</u>

– Yes

• <u>Time?</u>

 $- (d+1)b^{0} + d b^{1} + (d-1)b^{2} + \dots + b^{d} = O(b^{d})$

- <u>Space?</u>
 - O(bd)
- Optimal?
 - Yes, if step cost = 1
 - Can be modified to explore uniform cost tree (iterative lengthening)
- Systematic?

Cost of Iterative Deepening

b	ratio ID to DLS		
2	3		
3	2		
5	1.5		
10	1.2		
25	1.08		
100	1.02		

Forwards vs. Backwards



vs. Bidirectional



When is bidirectional search applicable?

- Generating predecessors is easy
- Only 1 (or few) goal states

Bidirectional search

- <u>Complete?</u> Yes
- <u>Time?</u>
 O(b^{d/2})
- <u>Space?</u>
 O(b^{d/2})
- Optimal?

- Yes if uniform cost search used in both directions

Summary of algorithms

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

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 $\geq \epsilon$ for positive ϵ ; ^{*c*} optimal if step costs are all identical; ^{*d*} if both directions use breadth-first search.



BFS: A,B,G DFS: A,B,C,D,G IDDFS: (A), (A, B, G)

> Note that IDDFS can do fewer expansions than DFS on a graph shaped search space.



BFS: A,B,G DFS: A,B,A,B,A,B,A,B,A,B IDDFS: (A), (A, B, G)

Note that IDDFS can do fewer expansions than DFS on a graph shaped search space.

Search on undirected graphs or directed graphs with cycles... Cycles galore...

Graph (instead of tree) Search: Handling repeated nodes

- Repeated expansions is a bigger issue for DFS than for BFS or IDDFS
 - Trying to remember all previously expanded nodes and comparing the new nodes with them is infeasible
 - Space becomes exponential
 - duplicate checking can also be expensive
- Partial reduction in repeated expansion can be done by
 - Checking to see if any children of a node n have the same state as the parent of n
 - Checking to see if any children of a node n have the same state as any ancestor of n (at most d ancestors for n—where d is the depth of n)





Problem

• All these methods are slow (blind)



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Solution → add guidance ("heuristic estimate")
 → "informed search"