

Artificial Intelligence

Uniformed Search

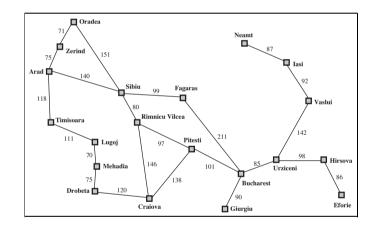
LESSON 4

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Search Strategies

 Search algorithms differ only in the criterion to choose one of the partial solutions to follow up at each step





which of the six partial solutions should one choose?

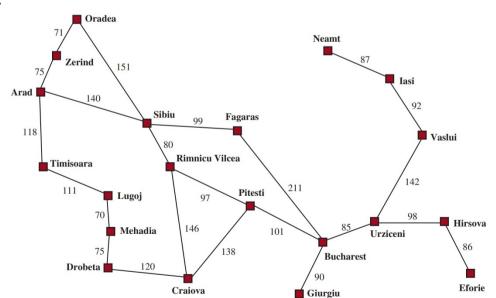
- Two kinds of strategies exist, depending on the available information about which choice is better than another
 - No information: Uninformed search strategies must be used
 - Some information: Informed search strategies can be used

Uninformed Search Strategies

- Rationale
 - In absence of any information about the best partial solution, systematically explore the state space
- Main strategies
 - Breadth-first
 - Depth-first
 - Uniform-cost
 - Depth-limited
 - Iterative-deepening depth first

Avoiding repeated states

- Search algorithms may waste time by expanding different nodes associated with the same state
 - Action are reversible, allowing loops
 - Arad -> Zerind -> Arad-> Zerind ...
 - Different paths can lead to the same state, e.g.,:
 - Arad -> Sibiu, and Arad -> Zerind -> Oradea -> Sibiu
 - Cyclical paths exist
 - Arad -> Zerind -> Oradea -> Sibiu -> Arad

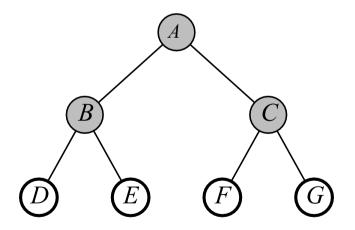


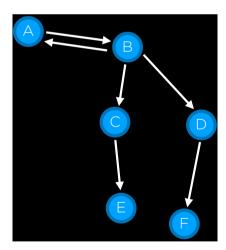
Avoiding repeated states

- Three approaches possible
 - Remember all previously reached states
 - Allows us to detect redundant paths
 - Appropriate for state spaces with many redundant paths
 - It is the choice when the list of the reached states fits in memory
 - Don't worry about the past
 - For some problems, where it is impossible for two paths to reach the same state
 - Compromise ancd check for cycles but not for redundant path in general
- Observation
 - A cycle generates a repeated state (loopy path) and is a special case of a redundant path

Tree-like and Graph Search

- When looking for a path toward a goal state the search is
 - A tree-like search, if we don't worry about possibly repeated states
 - This could lead to a cycle or repeated paths toward a solution
 - A graph search if we try to avoid repeated states





Measuring Search Strategies Performance

- A strategy is defined by picking the order of node expansion
- Strategies are evaluated along the following dimensions
 - Effectiveness: how good is the solution found?
 - Completeness: is the algorithm guaranteed to find a solution, when there is one?
 - Optimality: when a solution is found, is its path cost minimal?
 - Efficiency: what is the processing cost of finding a solution (computational complexity)?
 - Time complexity: how long does it take to find a solution?
 - Space complexity: how much memory is needed?
 - · Time and space complexity are measured in terms of
 - b maximum branching factor of a node that needs to be considered
 - d depth of the least-cost solution
 - m maximum depth of the state space
- Often a trade-off between effectiveness and efficiency is required

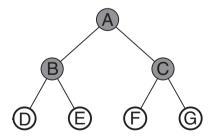
Computational complexity of search algorithms

- Worst-case time complexity
 - The highest number of nodes that are generated before a solution is found (if any)
- Worst-case space complexity:
 - The highest number of nodes that must be simultaneously stored in memory

Evaluating BFS

- In terms of effectiveness, it can be easily shown that BFS is
 - Complete: a solution is always found if one exists
 - Non-optimal: it is not guaranteed that the solution with minimum path cost is found (if any) unless the path cost is a non-decreasing function of depth

- In the specific case of BSF, it is not difficult to see that computational complexity depends on two main factors
 - The number of successors of each node of the search tree
 - The depth d of the shallowest solution, which is the one found by BFS
- Since different nodes can have a different number of successors (see e.g., 8-puzzle and route finding on maps), to simplify computations a constant number of successors b, named branching factor, is considered
- For instance, for b=2 we have a binary tree



- Fixed b, the computational complexity can be evaluated as a function of d only
- Time complexity
 - In the worst case, the goal state is in the last node to be expanded among all the ones at depth d
 - This means that all the other nodes at depth d are expanded before
 - The number of generated nodes can be computed by evaluating the number of nodes that are generated at each depth

Depth	Number of generated nodes
0	1 (root node)
1	b
2	b^2
3	b^3
• • •	•••
d	b^d
d+1	$b^{d+1}-b$
Total:	$1+b+b^2+b^3+\ldots+b^d+(b^{d+1}-b)$

- Space complexity
 - All generated nodes in memory until a solution is found
 - It follows that the space complexity equals the time complexity
- The worst-case time and space complexity of BFS, given b and the shallowest solution at depth d, are

$$1 + b + b^2 + b^3 + \ldots + b^d + (b^{d+1} - b) = O(b^{d+1})$$

- As an example of what exponential complexity means, consider a search problem with the following settings
 - Branching factor b = 10
 - Time for generating one node: 10-4 s
 - Storage required for a single node: 1.000 bytes
- Worst-case time and space complexity of BFS, as a function of the depth d of the shallowest solution

Depth	Nodes	Time	Memory
2	1,100	0.11 sec.	1 megabyte
4	111, 100	11 sec.	106 megabytes
6	10 ⁷	0.19 minutes	10 gigabytes
8	10^{9}	31 hours	1 terabyte
10	10^{11}	129 days	101 terabytes
12	10^{13}	35 years	10 petabytes
14	10^{15}	3,523 years	1 exabyte

Summarizing properties of BFS

- Complete
 - A solution is always found if any
- Non-optimal
 - It is not guaranteed that the solution with minimum path cost is found (if any) unless the path cost is a non-decreasing function of depth
- Exponential time and space complexity w.r.t. the depth of the shallowest solution

What about DFS?

- DFS effectiveness
 - DFS can get stuck carrying on with very long paths
 - Infinite paths possible
 - DFS has limited memory requirements
 - If all paths from a given node are all explored with no solutions found, the sub-tree rooted in that node is removed from memory
 - Only a single path from the root to a leaf node needs to be stored in memory during the search
 - The unexpanded sibling nodes for each node on the path also

- DFS complexity is evaluated by assuming
 - All nodes have the same number of successors b (branching factor)
 - All solutions have the same depth m
 - m is also the maximum depth of the search tree, when loops are avoided (worst case)
- In the worst case, the goal state is in the last path explored
- Time complexity
 - All nodes up to length m are generated before the solution is found
- Space complexity
 - · Only a single path from the root to a leaf node needs to be stored

	Time complexity	Space complexity	
Depth	N. of generated nodes	N. of stored nodes	
0	1 (root node)	1 (root node)	
1	b	b	
2	b^2	b	
m	b^m	b	
Total:	$1+b+\ldots+b^m=\mathcal{O}(b^m)$	$1 + mb = \mathcal{O}(m)$	

- Time complexity exponential w.r.t. depth m
- Space complexity linear

Properties of DFS

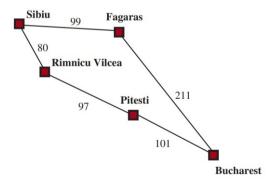
- Complete
 - Unless there are infinite paths
- Non-optimal
 - A deeper, suboptimal solution can be found along a path that is explored before an optimal solution path at a smaller depth
- Exponential time complexity and linear space complexity

Other strategies

- Uniform-cost
 - Expands the leaf node with the lowest path cost
- Depth-limited
 - Depth-first search with a predefined depth limit (avoid infinite paths, but not complete)
- Iterative-deepening depth-first
 - Repeated depth-limited search with depth limit 1, 2, 3, ..., until a solution is found (avoid infinite paths and complete)
- Bidirectional
 - Simultaneously searching forward from the initial state and backwards from the goal sate, until the two searches meet

Uniform-cost Search

- When actions have different costs the node to expand is the one with minimal cost, where the cost of the path from the root to the current node is considered
- Expand the least-cost unexpanded node
 - The frontier is ordered by path cost, the lowest first
 - Equivalent to BFS if step costs are all equal



Depth-limited Search

- The depth-limited search keeps DFS from wandering down an infinite path, setting a depth limit I
 - It treats all nodes at depth I as if they had no further nodes to move on
- Sometimes a good depth limit can be chosen based on knowledge of the problem
 - For example, on the map of Romania there are 20 cities, so l=19 is a valid limit
 - However, any city can be reached from any other city in at most 9 actions. This number, known as the diameter of the state-space graph, gives us a better depth limit
- For most problems, we will not know a good depth limit until we have solved the problem

Iterative Deepening Search

- Iterative deepening search solves the problem of picking a good value for I by trying all values: first 0, then 1, then 2, and so on
 - until either a solution is found, or the depth-limited search returns the failure value
- Iterative deepening combines many of the benefits of depth-first and breadth-first search
- In general, iterative deepening is the preferred uninformed search method when
 - the search state space is larger than can fit in memory and
 - the depth of the solution is not known

Bidirectional Search

- An alternative approach called bidirectional search simultaneously searches forward from the initial state and backward from the goal state(s), hoping that the two searches will meet
- We need to track of two frontiers and two tables of explored states
- Reasoning backwards
 - if state **t** is a successor of **s** in the forward direction, then we need to know that s is a successor of **t** in the backward direction
 - A solution is when the two frontiers collide

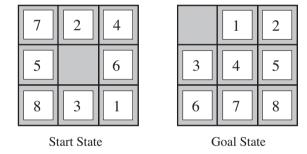
Uninformed search algorithms

Criterion	Breadth- First	Uniform- Cost	Depth- First	Depth- Limited	Iterative Deepening	Bidirectional (if applicable)
Complete? Optimal cost? Time Space	Yes^1 Yes^3 $O(b^d)$ $O(b^d)$	$ ext{Yes}^{1,2} \ ext{Yes} \ O(b^{1+\lfloor C^*/\epsilon floor}) \ O(b^{1+\lfloor C^*/\epsilon floor})$	No No $O(b^m)$ $O(bm)$	No No $O(b^\ell)$ $O(b\ell)$	Yes^1 Yes^3 $O(b^d)$ $O(bd)$	Yes 1,4 Yes 3,4 $O(b^{d/2})$ $O(b^{d/2})$

Figure 3.15 Evaluation of search algorithms. b is the branching factor; m is the maximum depth of the search tree; d is the depth of the shallowest solution, or is m when there is no solution; ℓ is the depth limit. Superscript caveats are as follows: ℓ complete if ℓ is finite, and the state space either has a solution or is finite. ℓ complete if all action costs are ℓ or uniform-cost.

Effectiveness of uninformed search

- One may think that the high computational complexity of uninformed search strategies is an issue only for real-world problems, not for toy ones
- Consider again 8-puzzle, apparently a very simple toy problem:



How long does it take to solve it using, for instance, BFS?

Effectiveness of uninformed search

8-puzzle

- the state space contains 9! = 362.880 distinct states (only 9!/2 = 181.440 are reachable from any given initial state)
- it can be shown that the average solution depth (over all possible pairs of initial and goal states) is about 22
- the average branching factor b (over all possible states) is about 3 (note that from each state 2 to 4 actions can be performed)
- How many nodes does BFS generate and store, when the shallowest solution has depth d = 22 (i.e., in the average case)?
- Remember that the worst-case time and space complexity of BFS is $O(b^{d+1})$, which in this case amounts to $3^{23} \approx 9 \times 10^{10}$...
- For instance, considering that representing a state requires at least $\lceil \log_2 9! \rceil = 19$ bits, storing 3^{23} states requires about $19 \times 9 \times 10^{10}$ bits, i.e., more than 200 GB...

Suggested exercises

- 1.Implement the **general tree-search algorithm**, and the related data structures, in Python
- 2.Implement the additional, specific functions for breadth-first, depth-first and uniform-cost search
- 3.Implement the additional, specific data structures and functions for the 8-puzzle problem, and the route-finding problem in the Romania map
- 4.Run the above search algorithms on specific problem instances, and evaluate the number of generated and stored nodes