

# Problem-Solving via Search

## Lecture 3

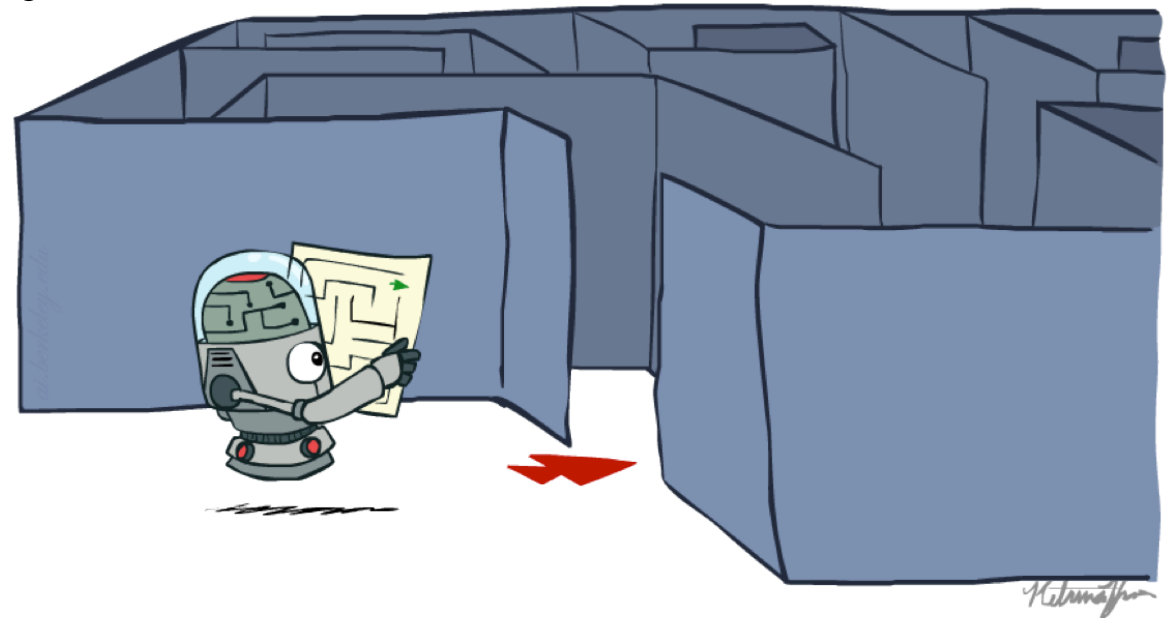
What is a search problem?

How do search algorithms work and how do we evaluate their performance?



# Agenda

- An example problem
- Problem formulation
- Infrastructure for search algorithms
  - Complexity analysis



# A Motivating Problem

- Start: Arad, Romania
- Goal: Bucharest, Romania
  - Roads leading to Sibiu, Timisoara, Zerind

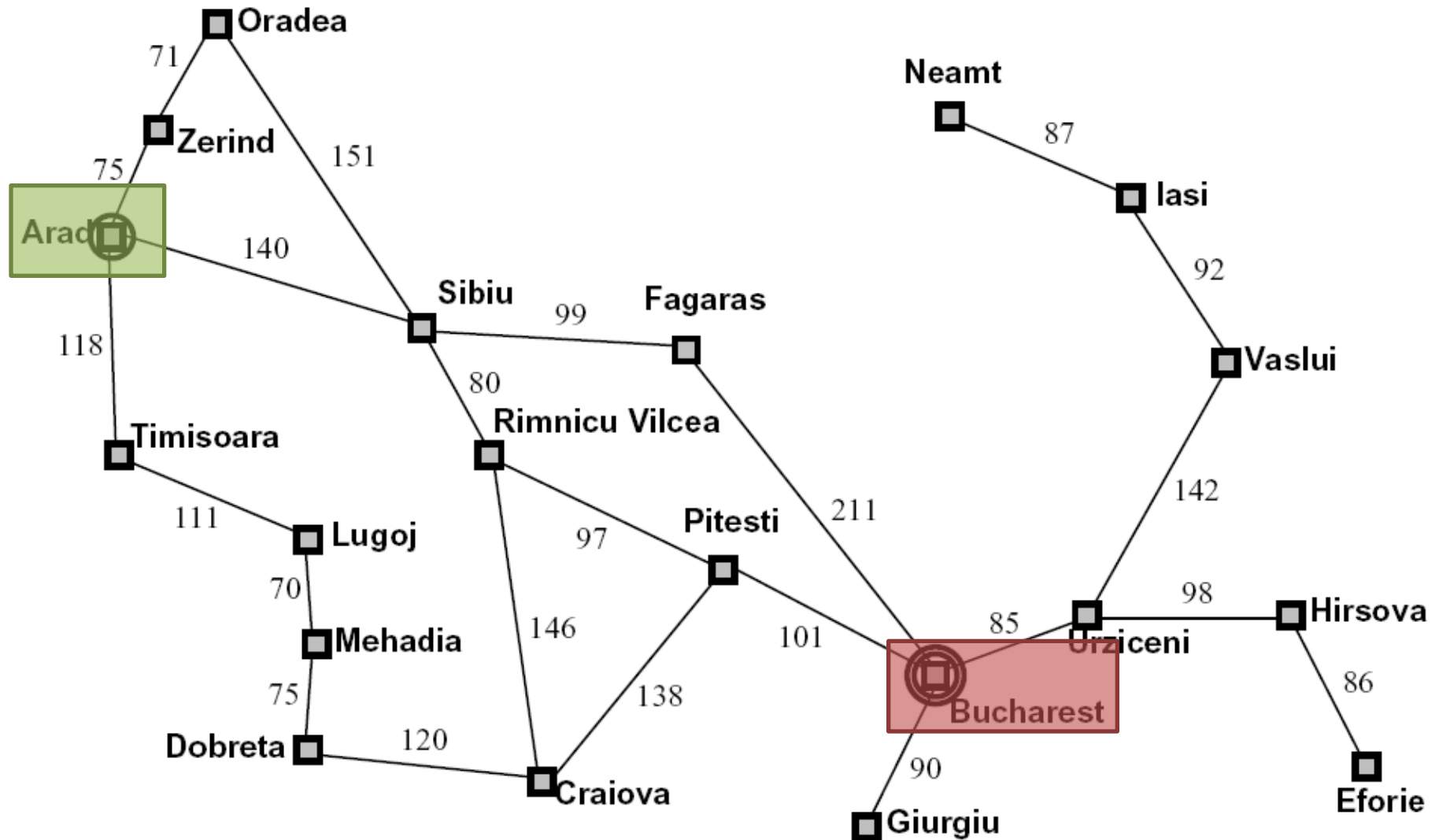
*What is a rational agent to do?*



# Add Geographical Knowledge



# Add Abstraction



# Describe the Task

- Observability
- Certainty
- Representation
- A priori
- Full
- Deterministic
- Discrete
- Known

*Under these conditions we can **search** for a problem **solution**, a fixed sequence of actions*

- *Given a perfect model, can be done **open-loop** (i.e. ignore percepts)*



# Search Problem Formalism

Defined via the following components:

- The **initial state** the agent starts in
- A **successor/transition function**
  - $S(x) = \{\text{action+cost} \rightarrow \text{state}\}$
- A **goal test**, which determines whether a given state is a goal state
- A **path cost** that assigns a numeric cost to each path

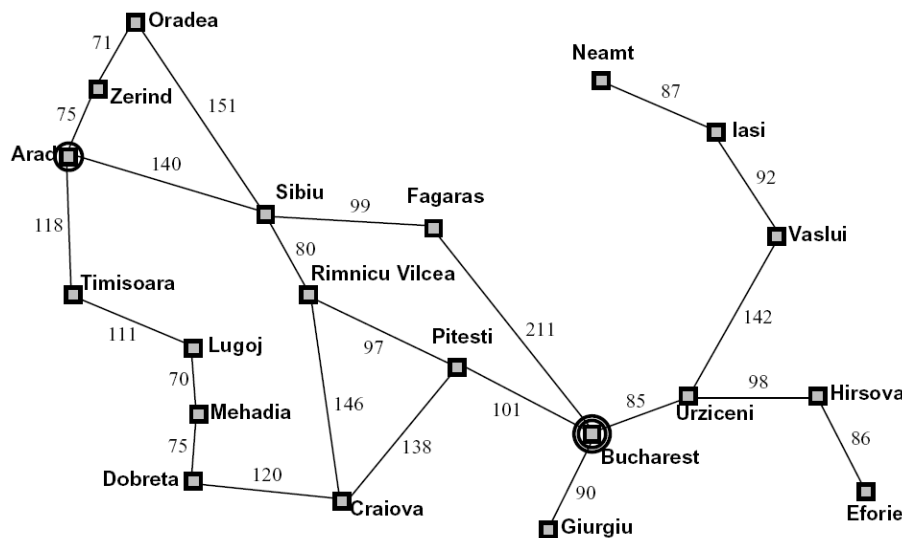
A **solution** is a sequence of actions leading from initial state to a goal state. (**Optimal** = lowest path cost.)

Together the initial state and successor function implicitly define the **state space**, the set of all reachable states



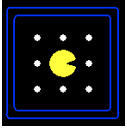
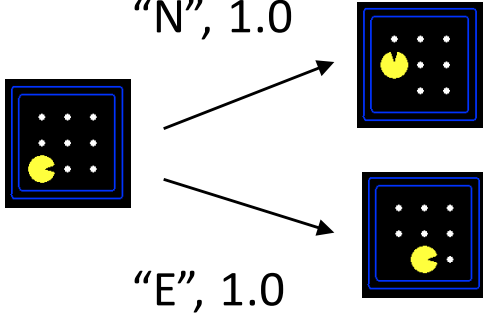
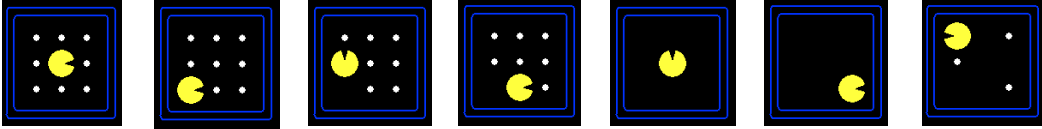
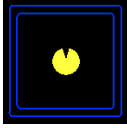
# Example: Romanian Travel

- Initial state
  - Arad
- Successor
  - Go to adjacent city, cost=distance
- Goal test
  - City == Bucharest
- State space
  - Cities





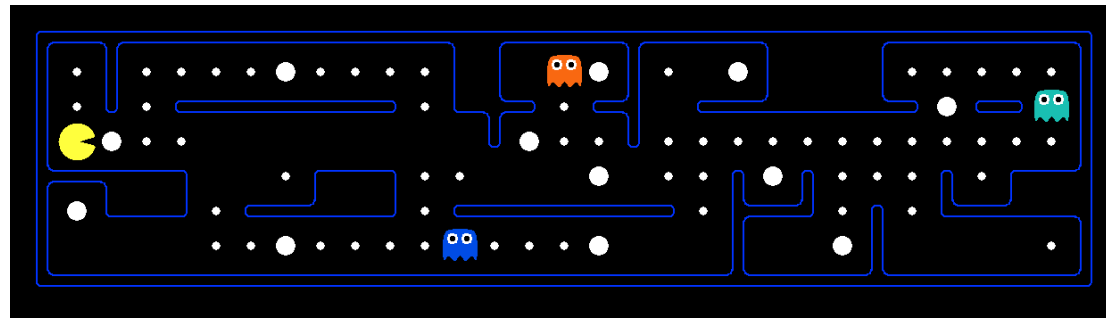
# Example: Pacman

- Initial state 
- Successor function 
- State space 
- Goal test: no more food (e.g. )



# State Abstraction

- Often world states are absurdly complex



- To solve a particular problem, we abstract the search state to only represent details necessary to solve the problem



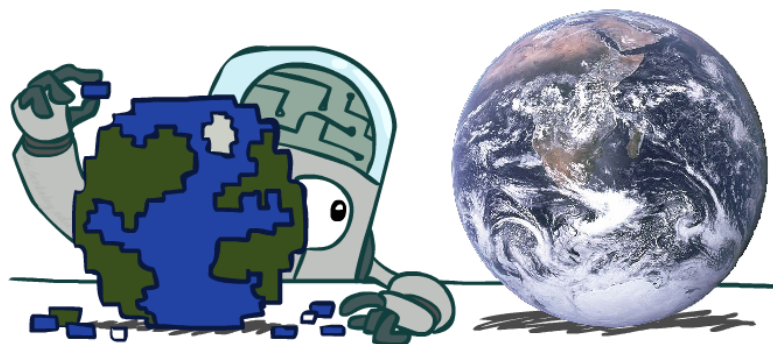
# Example Abstractions

## Path Planning

- States:  $(x,y)$
- Actions: NSEW
- Successor:  $(x',y')$
- Goal test:  $(x,y)=\text{END}$

## Eat All the Dots

- States:  $\{(x,y), \text{T/F grid}\}$
- Actions: NSEW
- Successor:  $(x',y')$ , possibly T/F change
- Goal test: grid = all F's



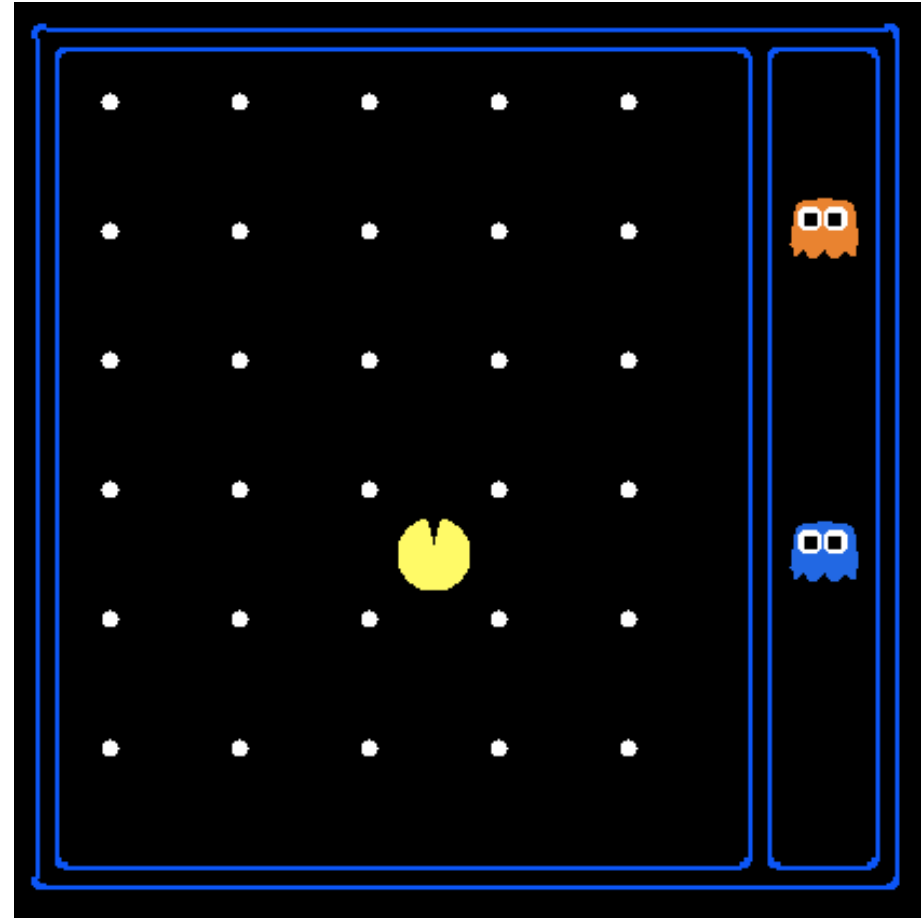
# Abstraction is Necessary

## World state

- Agent positions: 120
- Food count: 30
- Ghost positions: 12
- Agent facing: NSEW

## How many...

- World states?
  - $120 \times (2^{30}) \times (12^2) \times 4$
- States for path planning?
  - 120
- States for eat-all-dots?
  - $120 \times (2^{30})$



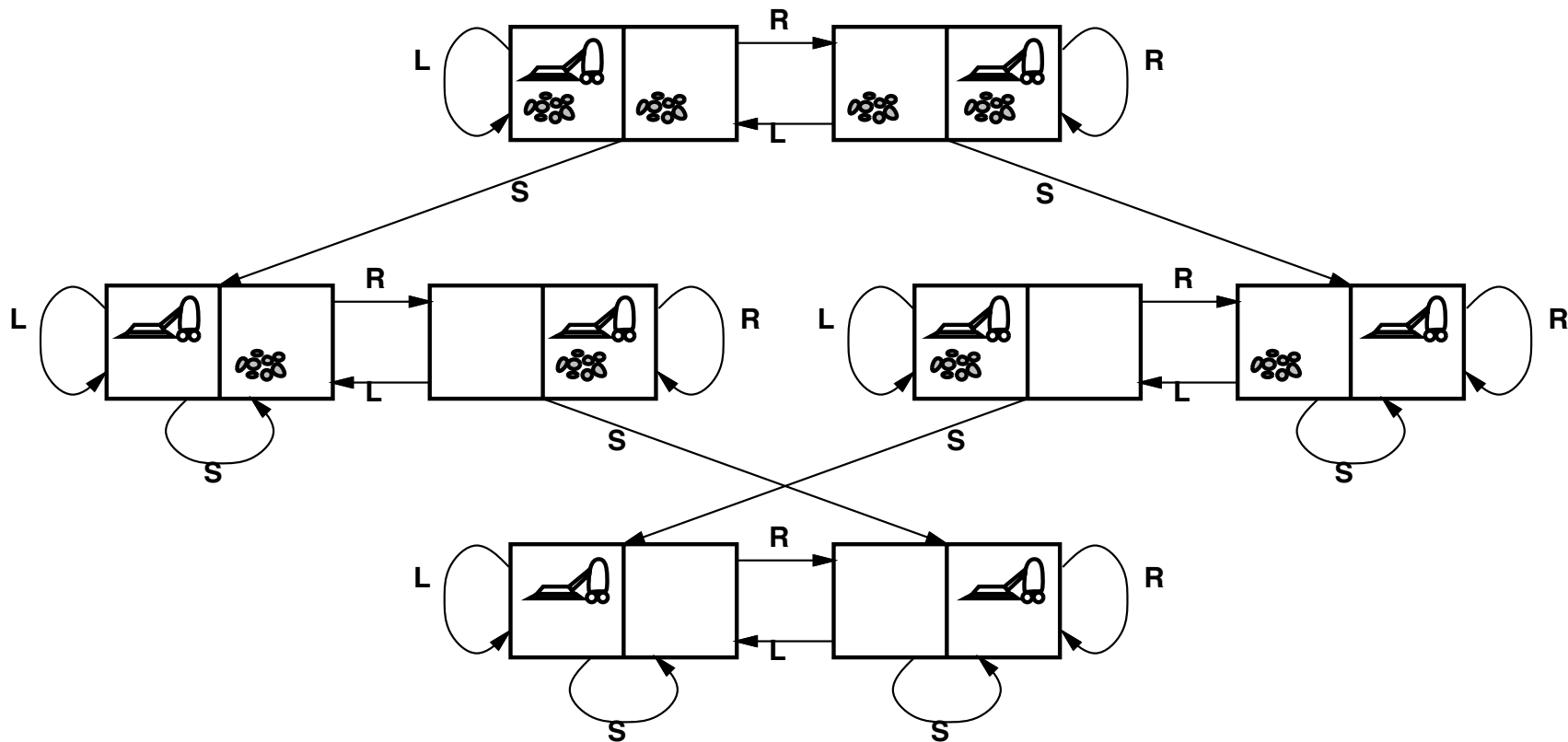
# Exercise

Describe the **vacuum-cleaner** world search problem:

- World state representation
- Search state representation
- Transition model
  - State space
- Goal test

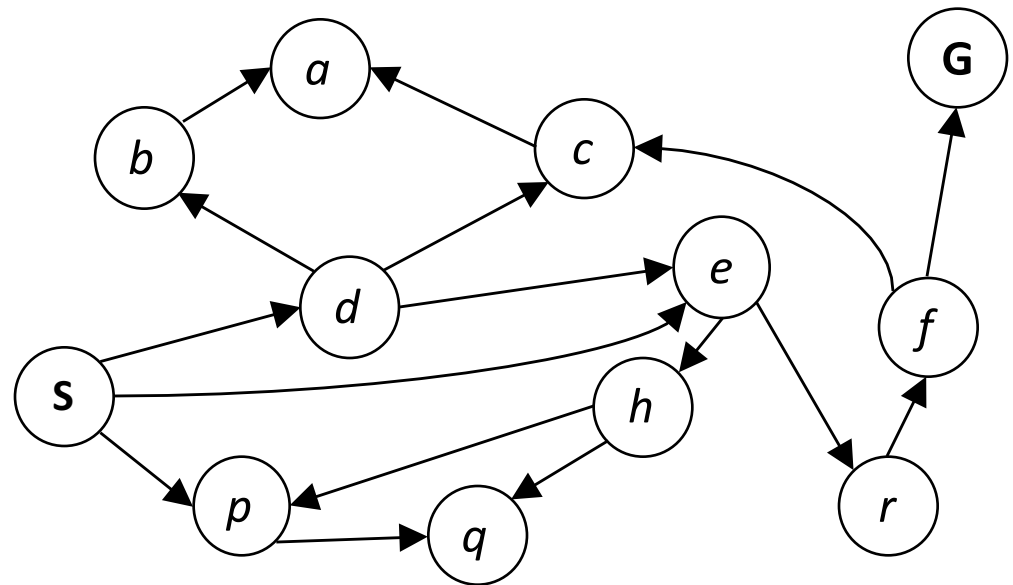


# Solution State Space Graph



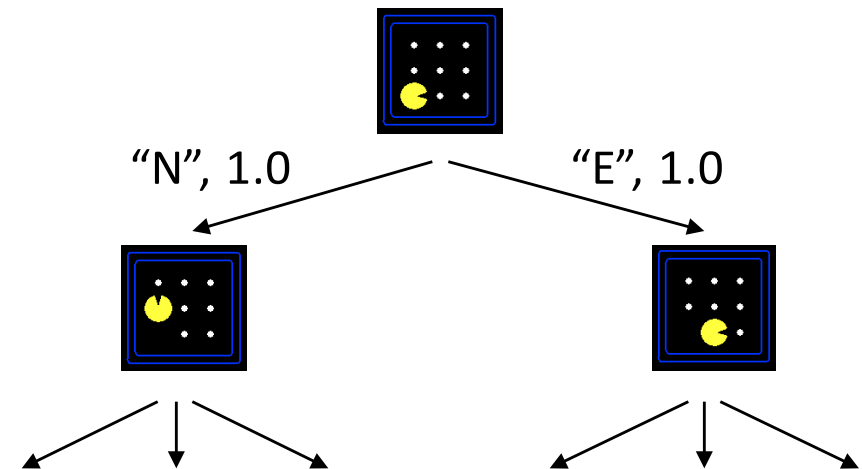
# State Space Graph

- State space graph: A mathematical representation of a search problem
  - Nodes are (abstracted) world configurations
  - Arcs represent successors (action results)
  - The goal test is a set of goal node(s)
- In a search graph, each state occurs only once!
- **We can rarely build this full graph in memory (it's too big), but it's a useful idea**



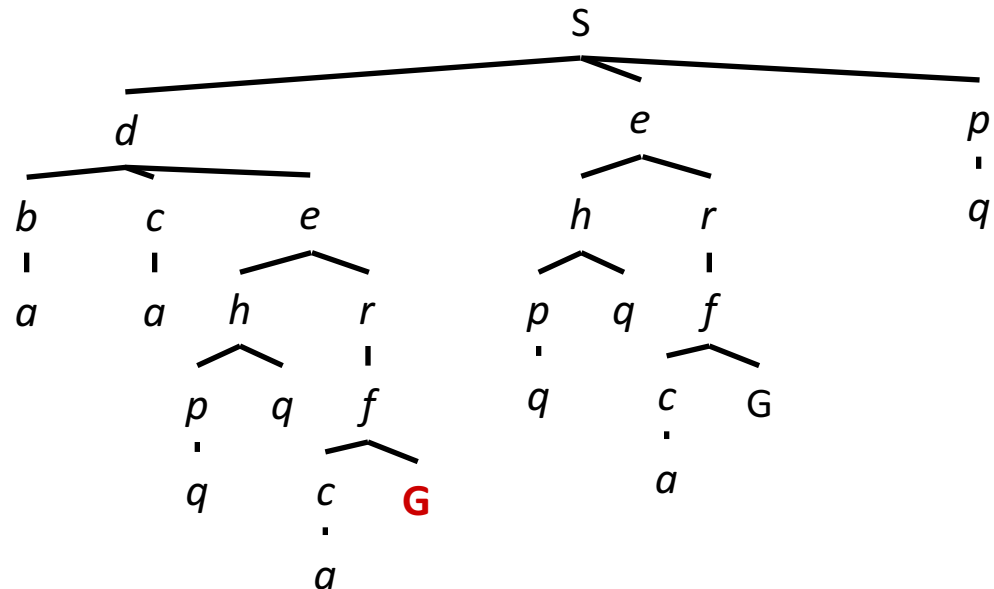
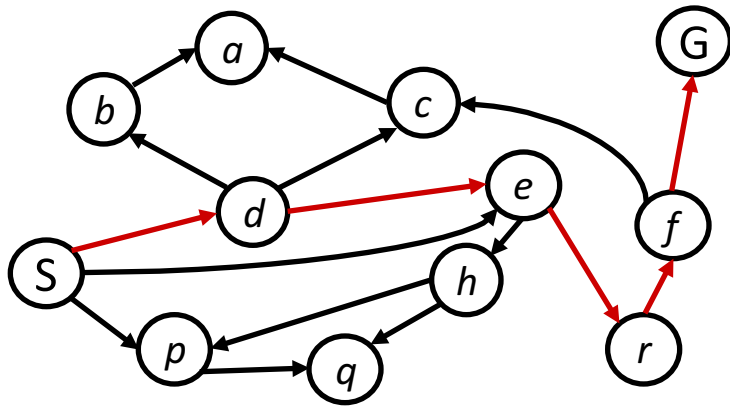
# Search Tree

- A “what if” tree of plans and their outcomes
- The start state is the root node
- Children correspond to successors
- Nodes show states, but correspond to PLANS that achieve those states
- **For most problems, we can never actually build the whole tree**





# State Space Graph vs. Search Tree

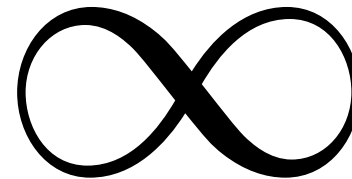
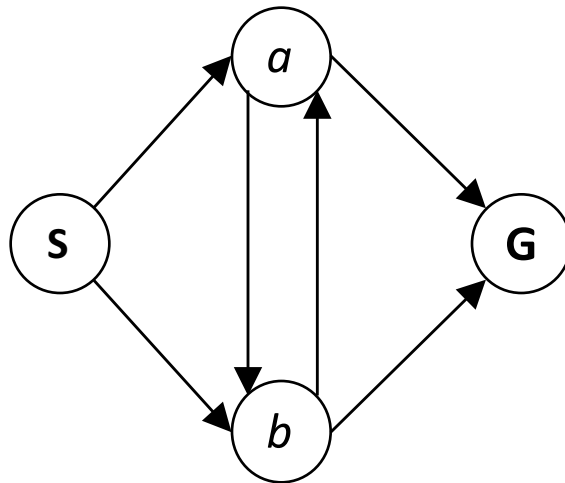


- Each NODE in in the search tree is an entire PATH in the state space graph.
- We construct both on demand – and we construct as little as possible.

# Exercise

Consider the following  
4-state state space  
graph...

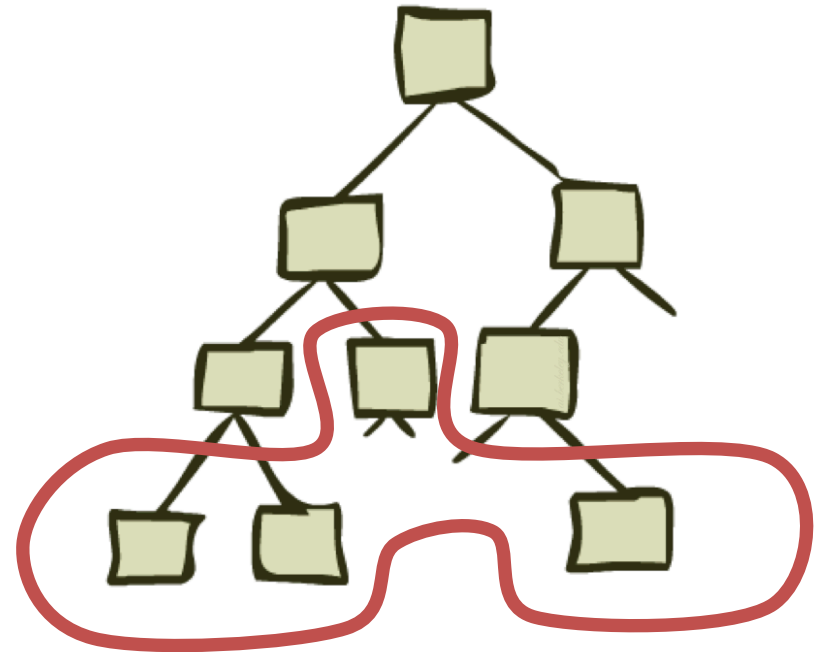
How big is its search  
tree (from S)?



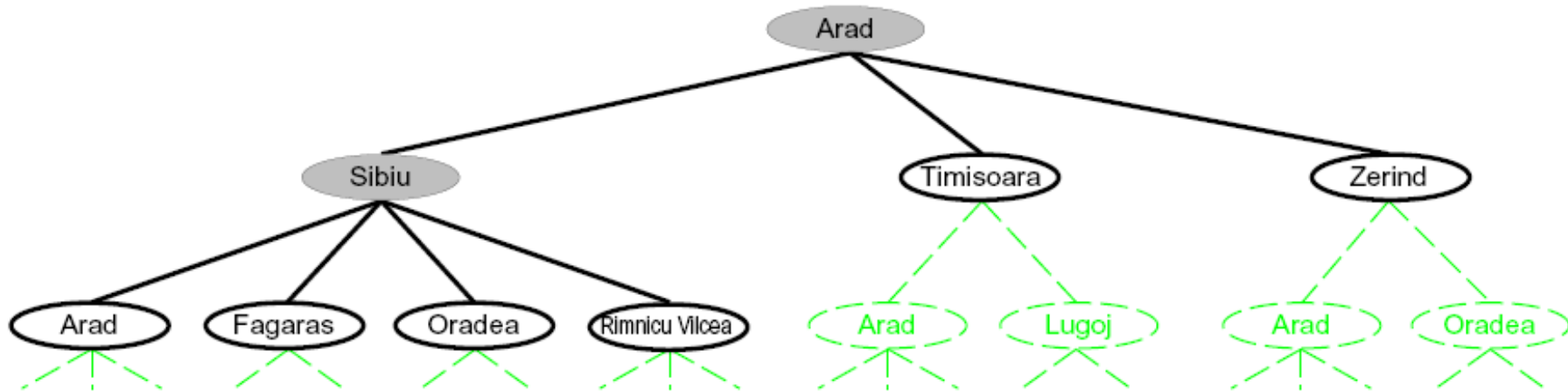
# Searching for Solutions

Basic idea: incrementally build a search tree until a goal state is found

- Root = initial state
- Expand via transition function to create new nodes
- Nodes that haven't been expanded are **leaf nodes** and form the **frontier (open list)**
- Different **search strategies** (next lecture) choose next node to expand (as few as possible!)
- Use a **closed list** to prevent expanding the same state more than once



# General Algorithm



**function** GRAPH-SEARCH(*problem*, *fringe*) **returns** a solution, or failure

*closed* ← an empty set

*fringe* ← INSERT(MAKE-NODE(INITIAL-STATE[*problem*]), *fringe*)

**loop do**

**if** *fringe* is empty **then return** failure

*node* ← REMOVE-FRONT(*fringe*)

**if** GOAL-TEST(*problem*, STATE[*node*]) **then return** *node*

**if** STATE[*node*] is not in *closed* **then**

add STATE[*node*] to *closed*

*fringe* ← INSERTALL(EXPAND(*node*, *problem*), *fringe*)

**end**

**Queue (FIFO)**  
**Stack (LIFO)**  
**Priority Queue**



# Evaluating a Search Strategy

## Solution

- **Completeness:** does it always find *a* solution if one exists?
- **Optimality:** does it always find a least-cost solution?

## Efficiency

- **Time Complexity:**  
number of nodes generated/expanded
- **Space Complexity:**  
maximum number of nodes in memory



# Computational Complexity (A.1)

- We are going to be comparing several algorithms
  - How do we tell if one is faster/leaner than another?
- **Benchmarking** involves running the algorithm on a computer and measuring performance (e.g. time in sec, memory in bytes)
  - Unsatisfactory: specific to machine, implementation, compiler, inputs, ...
- **Complexity Analysis** is a mathematical approach that abstracts away from these details



# Asymptotic Analysis

Basic idea: get a sense of “rate of growth” of an algorithm, which tells us how “bad” it will get as problem size grows

## Example

```
def summation(l):  
    sum = 0  
    for n in l:  
        sum += n  
    return sum
```



# Step 1: Identify Size Parameter

- We need to abstract over the input and just identify what parameter characterizes the size of the input
- For the example what matters is the length of the input list
  - We'll refer to this as  $n$

```
def summation(l):  
    sum = 0  
    for n in l:  
        sum += n  
    return sum
```





## Step 2: Identify Performance Measure

- Again, abstract over the implementation and find a measure that reflects running time (or memory usage), not tied to a particular computer
- In this case it could be lines executed, or operations (additions, assignments) performed
  - Call this  $f(n)$

```
def summation(l):  
    sum = 0  
    for n in l:  
        sum += n  
    return sum
```

If  $f(n)$  measures lines executed  
 $f(n) = 2n + 2$



# Step 3: Identify Comparison Metric

- It is typically not possible to identify *exactly* the size parameter (i.e. one that perfectly characterizes the performance), and so we settle for a representative metric
- Most common is **worst case**
  - Sometimes best case, average case



# Step 4: Approximation

- Typically it is hard to *exactly* compute  $f(n)$ , and so we settle for an approximation
- For worst-case, **Big-O notation**,  $O()$ , yields this formal asymptotic analysis...

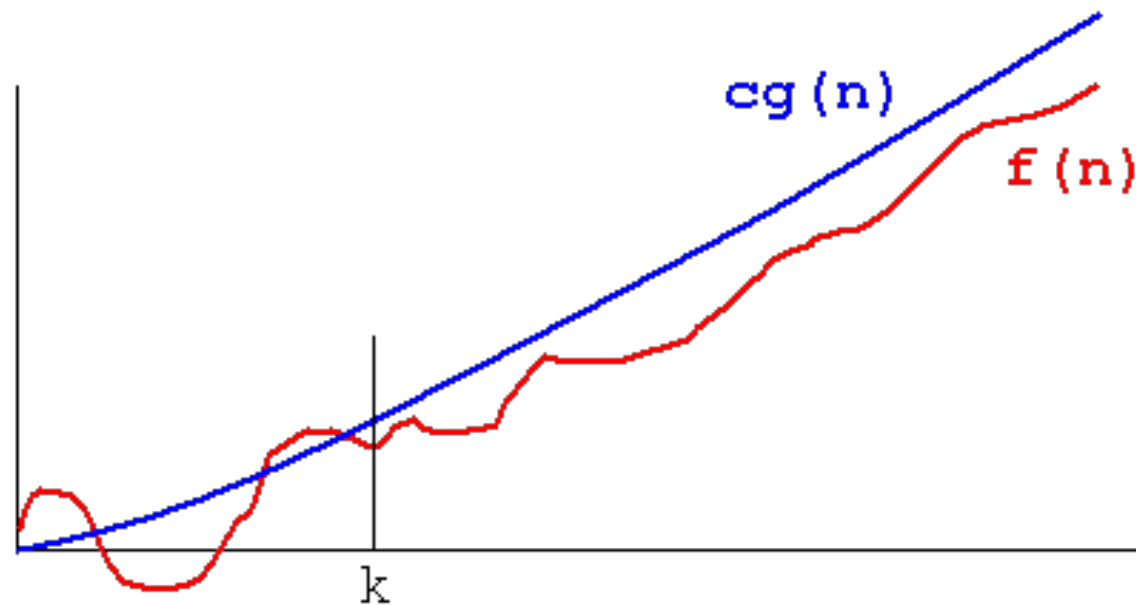
$$f(n) = \mathcal{O}(g(n)) \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\equiv \exists c \in \mathbb{N}, k \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t.}$$

$$\forall n > k \quad |f(n)| \leq c|g(n)|$$



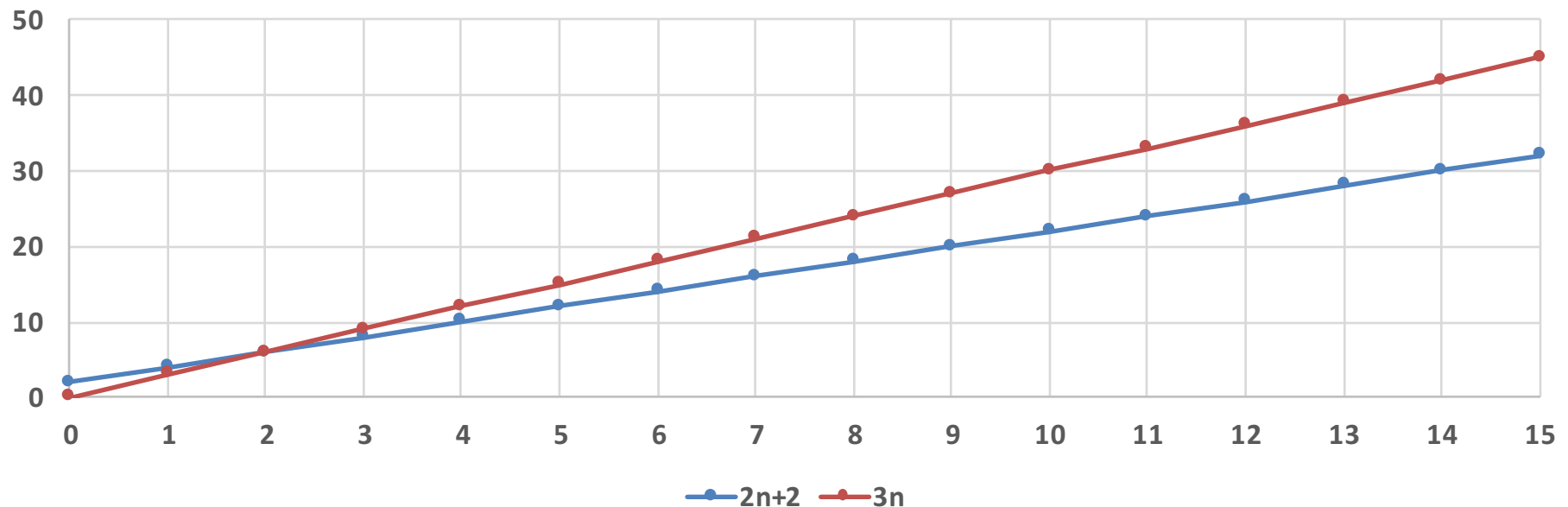
# Big-O Definition Visually



# Example

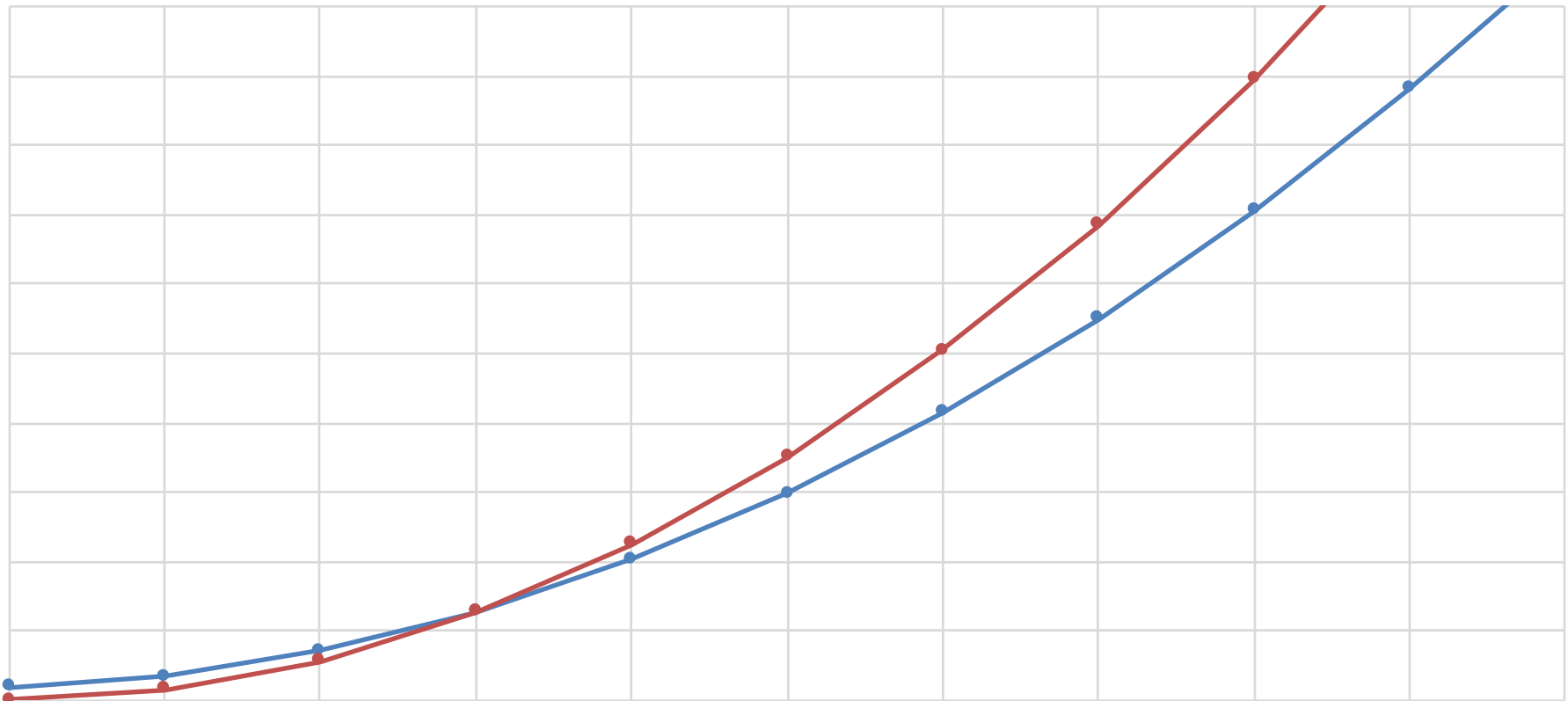
- Since  $f(n) = 2n + 2$ , we can show that this function is  $O(n)$ 
  - $c=3, k=2$

```
def summation(1):  
    sum = 0  
    for n in 1:  
        sum += n  
    return sum
```



# Exercise

Prove:  $5n^2 + 3n + 9 = O(n^2)$



# Solution

Find  $c$  and  $k$  such that...

$$\forall n > k \quad cn^2 > 5n^2 + 3n + 9$$

1. Solve:  $cn^2 = 5n^2 + 3n + 9$

2. Let  $n=k$ , solve:  $c = 5 + \frac{3}{k} + \frac{9}{k^2}$   
– If  $k=3$ ,  $c=7$

3. So...  $7n^2 > 5n^2 + 3n + 9 \quad \forall n > 3$

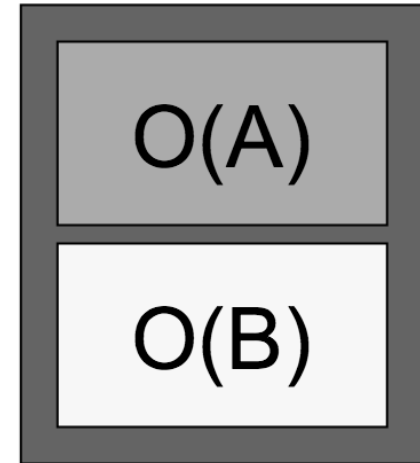
– And thus...  $5n^2 + 3n + 9 = \mathcal{O}(n^2)$



# Order of Complexity

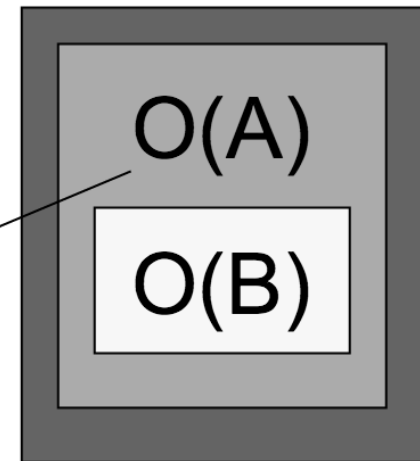
- $O(A) + O(B) = \max(O(A), O(B))$ 
  - Slower parts of an algorithm dominate faster parts

Algorithm



- $O(A) * O(B) = O(A * B)$ 
  - Nesting

Algorithm



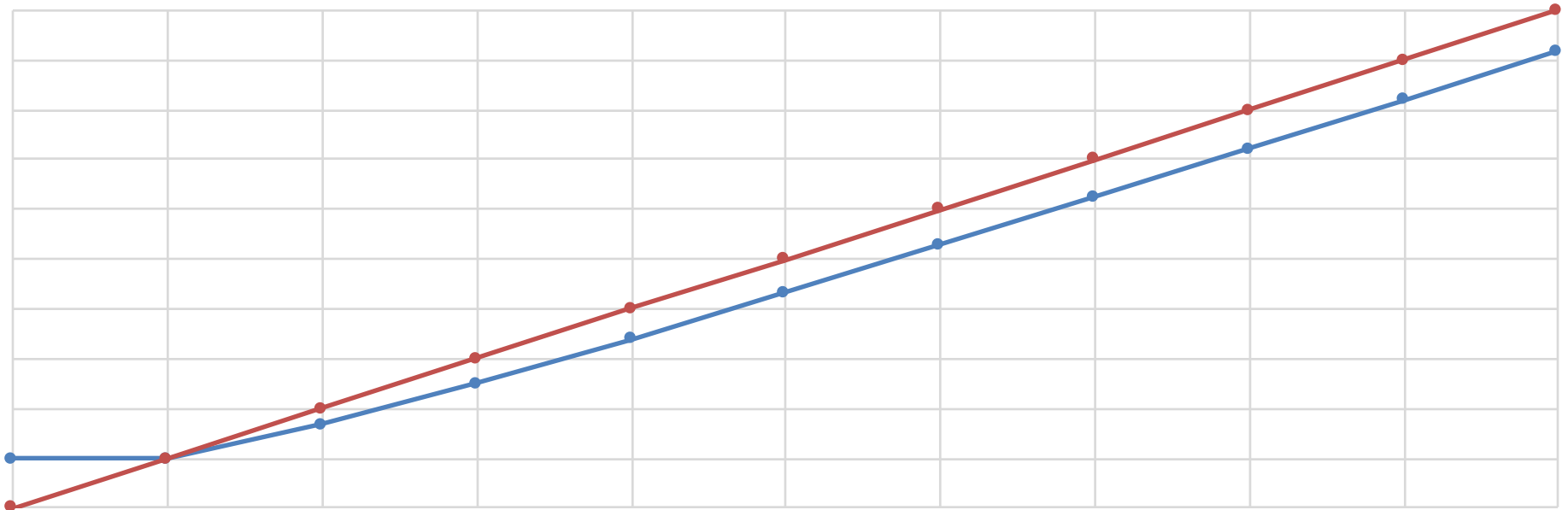
$O(A)$  does not include complexity of part B of algorithm





# Exercise

Prove:  $\frac{x^2 + 1}{x + 1} = \mathcal{O}(x)$



# Solution

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{x^2 + 1}{x + 1}\right) &= \frac{\mathcal{O}(x^2 + 1)}{\mathcal{O}(x + 1)} \\ &= \frac{\mathcal{O}(x^2)}{\mathcal{O}(x)} \\ &= \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{x^2}{x}\right) \\ &= \mathcal{O}(x)\end{aligned}$$



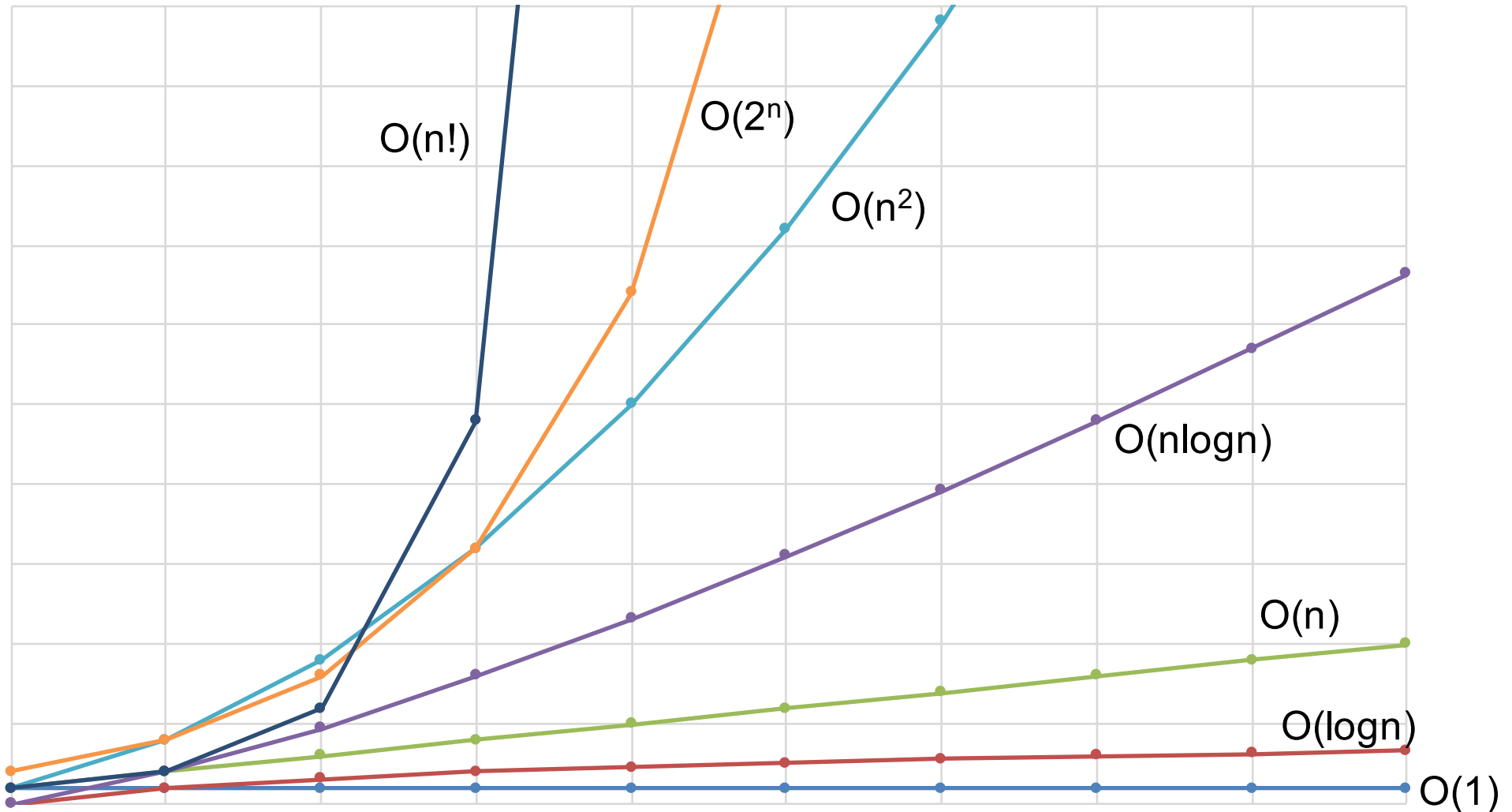
# Big-O Numerically

Big-O	Term	Cost for n=10
$O(1)$	Constant	1
$O(\log n)$	Logarithmic	3
$O(n)$	Linear	10
$O(n \log n)$	Log-Linear, Linearithmic	33
$O(n^2)$	Quadratic	100
$O(2^n)$	Exponential	1,024
$O(n!)$	Factorial	3,628,800

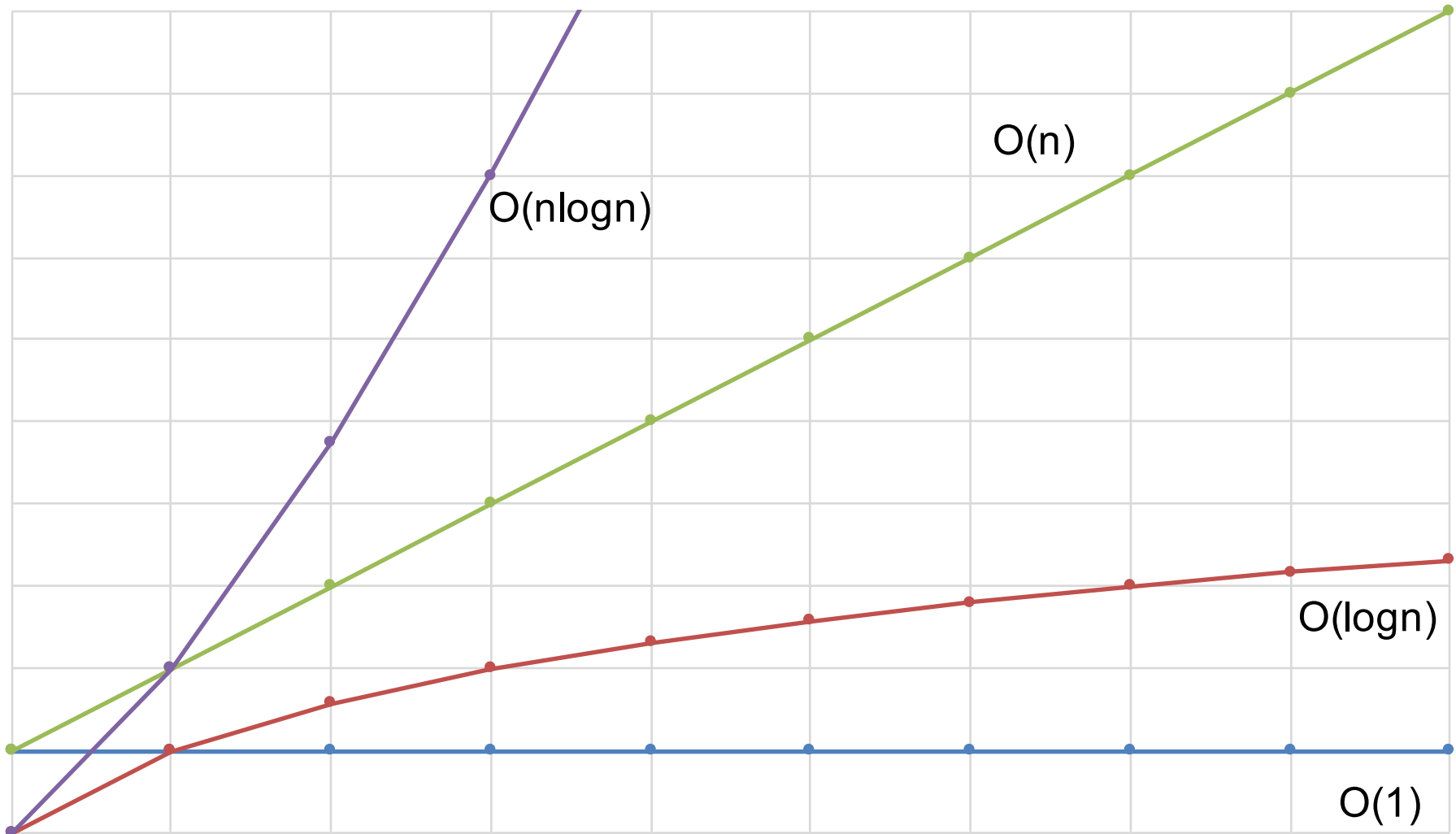
**It's important to know this ranking of growth!**



# Asymptotic Visual



# Asymptotic Visual (zoom)



# Example: $O(1)$

Stays constant regardless of problem size

- Check even/odd
- Hash computation
- Array indexing



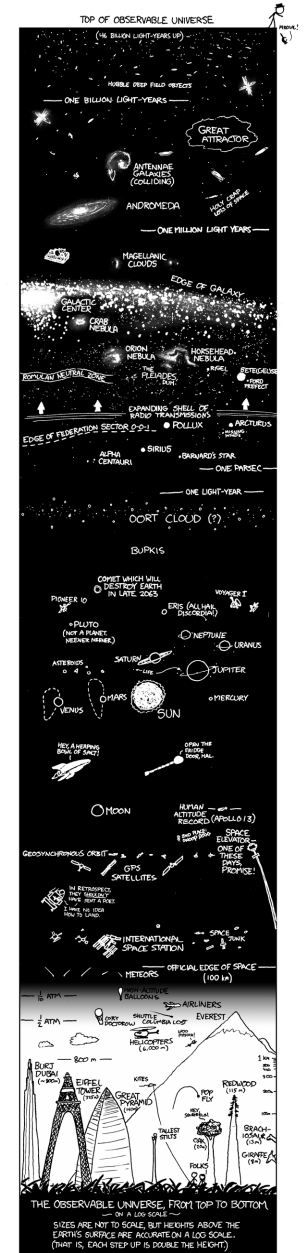
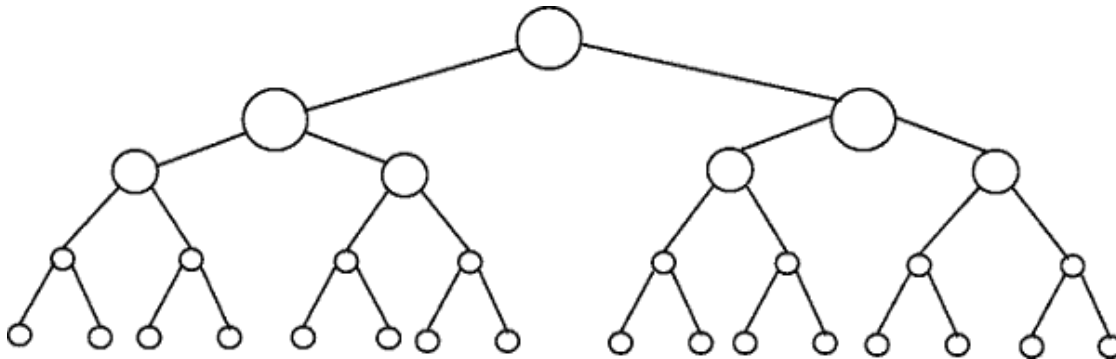
```
int getRandomNumber()  
{  
    return 4; // chosen by fair dice roll.  
             // guaranteed to be random.  
}
```



# Example: $O(\log n)$

Inverse of exponential: as you double the problem size, resource consumption increases by a constant

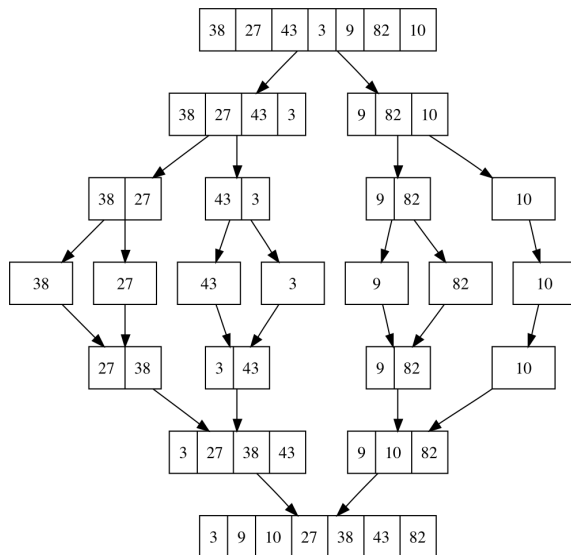
- Binary search
- Balanced tree search



# Example: $O(n \log n)$

Performing an  $O(\log n)$  operation for each item in your input

– Typical of efficient sorting



## INEFFECTIVE SORTS

```

DEFINE HALFHEARTEDMERGESORT(LIST):
  IF LENGTH(LIST) < 2:
    RETURN LIST
  PIVOT = INT(LENGTH(LIST) / 2)
  A = HALFHEARTEDMERGESORT(LIST[:PIVOT])
  B = HALFHEARTEDMERGESORT(LIST[PIVOT:])
  // UMMMMMM
  RETURN [A, B] // HERE. SORRY.
  
```

```

DEFINE FASTBOGOSORT(LIST):
  // AN OPTIMIZED BOGOSORT
  // RUNS IN  $O(N \log N)$ 
  FOR N FROM 1 TO LOG(LENGTH(LIST)):
    SHUFFLE(LIST):
    IF ISSORTED(LIST):
      RETURN LIST
  RETURN "KERNEL PAGE FAULT (ERROR CODE: 2)"
  
```

```

DEFINE JOBINERVIEWQUICKSORT(LIST):
  OK SO YOU CHOOSE A PIVOT
  THEN DIVIDE THE LIST IN HALF
  FOR EACH HALF:
    CHECK TO SEE IF IT'S SORTED
    NO, WAIT, IT DOESN'T MATTER
    COMPARE EACH ELEMENT TO THE PIVOT
    THE BIGGER ONES GO IN A NEW LIST
    THE EQUAL ONES GO INTO, UH
    THE SECOND LIST FROM BEFORE
    HANG ON, LET ME NAME THE LISTS
    THIS IS LIST A
    THE NEW ONE IS LIST B
    PUT THE BIG ONES INTO LIST B
    NOW TAKE THE SECOND LIST
    CALL IT LIST, UH, A2
    WHICH ONE WAS THE PIVOT IN?
    SCRATCH ALL THAT
    IT JUST RECURSIVELY CALLS ITSELF
    UNTIL BOTH LISTS ARE EMPTY
    RIGHT?
  NOT EMPTY, BUT YOU KNOW WHAT I MEAN
  AM I ALLOWED TO USE THE STANDARD LIBRARIES?
  
```

```

DEFINE PANICSORT(LIST):
  IF ISSORTED(LIST):
    RETURN LIST
  FOR N FROM 1 TO 10000:
    PIVOT = RANDOM(0, LENGTH(LIST))
    LIST = LIST[PIVOT:] + LIST[:PIVOT]
  IF ISSORTED(LIST):
    RETURN LIST
  IF ISSORTED(LIST): // THIS CAN'T BE HAPPENING
    RETURN LIST
  IF ISSORTED(LIST): // COME ON COME ON
    RETURN LIST
  // OH JEEZ
  // I'M GONNA BE IN SO MUCH TROUBLE
  LIST = [ ]
  SYSTEM("SHUTDOWN -H +5")
  SYSTEM("RM -RF .")
  SYSTEM("RM -RF ~/*")
  SYSTEM("RM -RF /")
  SYSTEM("RD /S /Q C:\*") // PORTABILITY
  RETURN [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
  
```

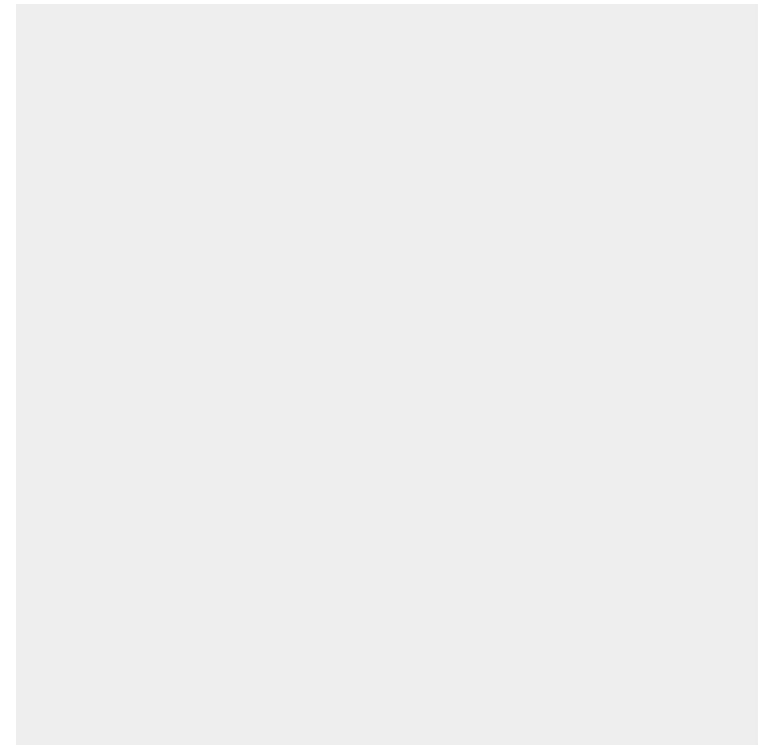




# Example: $O(n^2)$

For each item, perform an operation with each other item

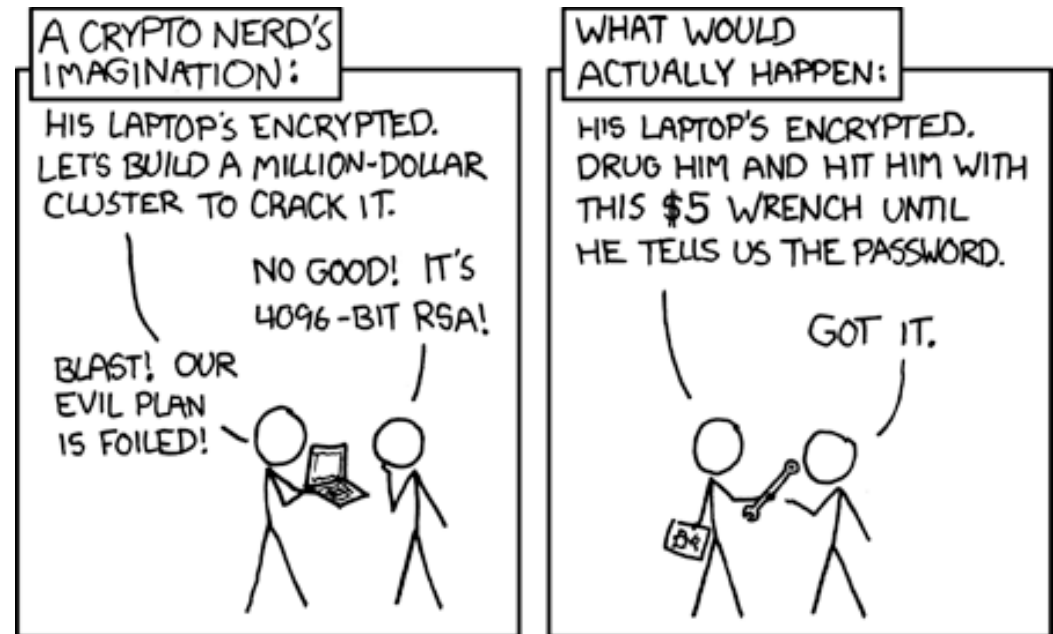
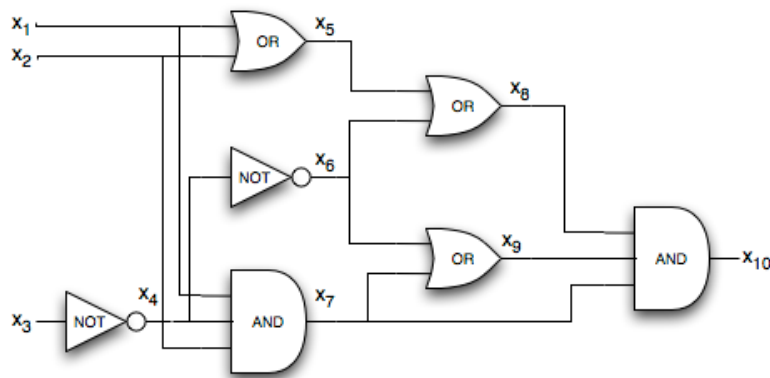
- Duplication detection
- Pairwise comparison
- Bubble sort



# Example: $O(2^n)$

For every added element, resource consumption doubles

- Hardware verification
- Cryptography

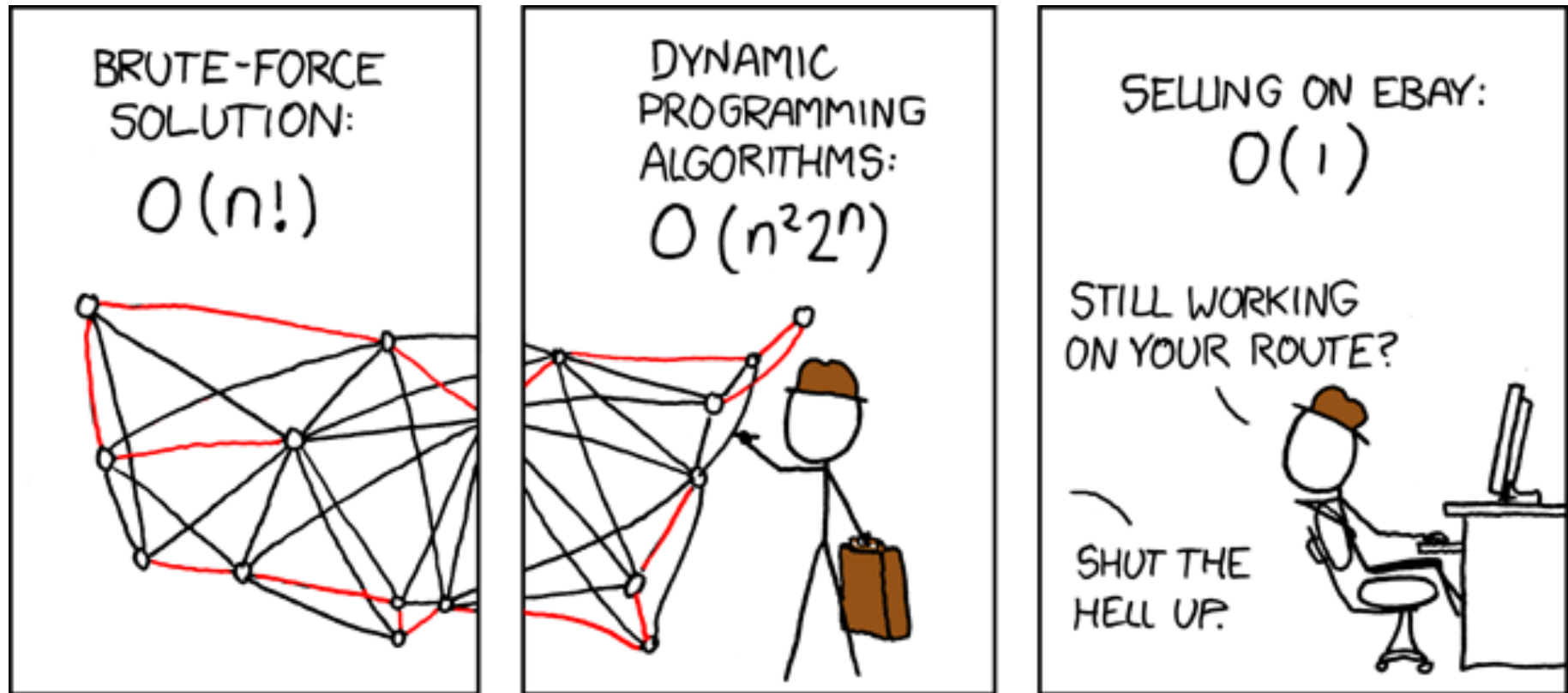


# Complexity Analysis

- Thus far we have analyzed algorithms, but **complexity analysis** focuses on problems, and classes of problems
- Problems that can be solved in polynomial time,  $O(n^k)$ , form class **P**
  - Generally considered “easy”  
(but could have large  $c$ )
- Problems in which you can verify a solution in polynomial time form **NP**
  - The “hardest” in NP are **NP-complete**
- Open question:  $P \stackrel{?}{=} NP$ 
  - Most computer scientists assume not
  - If correct, there can be no algorithm that solves *all* such problems in polynomial time
  - AI is interested in developing algorithms that perform efficiently on *typical* problems drawn from a pre-determined distribution



# Complex[ity] Humor (TSP)



# Complex[ity] Humor (AI)



IN CS, IT CAN BE HARD TO EXPLAIN  
THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE EASY  
AND THE VIRTUALLY IMPOSSIBLE.



# Summary

- We can represent deterministic, fully observable, discrete, known tasks as **search problems**
  - **Initial state, transition function, goal test, path cost**
    - **State space**: all states reachable from initial
  - **Solution**: actions sequence, initial->goal
    - **Optimal**: least path cost
- We **abstract** search state representation depending on the search problem for computational tractability
- Once formulated, we solve a search problem by incrementally forming a **search tree** until a goal state is found
  - We evaluate algorithms with respect to solution **completeness/optimalty** and time/space **complexity**
  - More next lecture!

