

## CSE 3401: Intro to Artificial Intelligence Search I

- Required Readings: R & N Chapter 3, Sec. 1–4.
- Lecture slides adapted from those of Fahiem Bacchus.

## Why Search

- Successful
  - Success in game playing programs based on search.
  - Many other AI problems can be successfully solved by search.
- Practical
  - Many problems don't have a simple algorithmic solution. Casting these problems as search problems is often the easiest way of solving them. Search can also be useful in approximation (e.g., local search in optimization problems).
  - Often specialized algorithms cannot be easily modified to take advantage of extra knowledge. Heuristics in search provide a natural way of utilizing extra knowledge.
- Some critical aspects of intelligent behaviour, e.g., planning, can be naturally cast as search.

## Example, a holiday in Jamaica

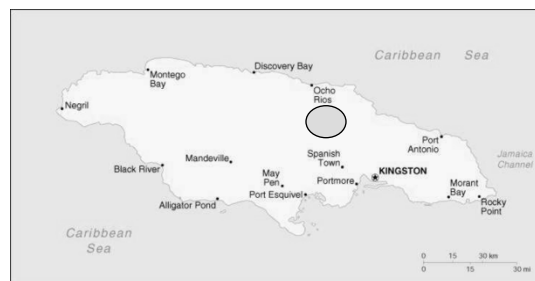


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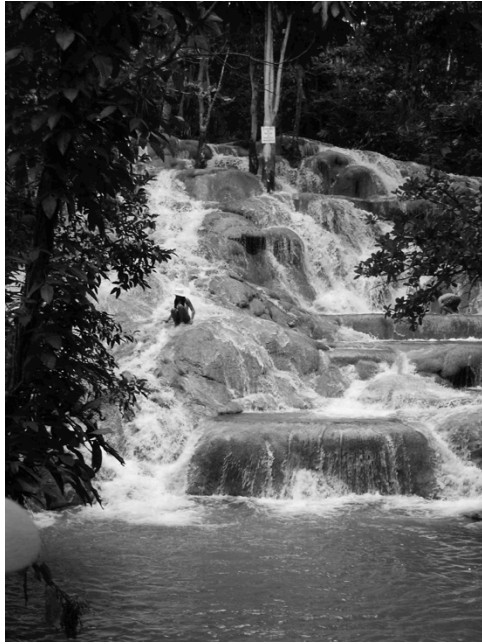
## Things to consider

- Prefer to avoid hurricane season.
- Rules of the road, larger vehicle has right of way (especially trucks).
- Want to climb up to the top of Dunns river falls.



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But you want to  
start your climb  
at 8:00 am  
before the  
crowds arrive!



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- Easier goal, climb to the top of Blue Mountain



- Near Kingston.
- Organized hikes available.
- Need to arrive on the peak at dawn, before the fog sets in.
- Can get some Blue Mountain coffee!

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## How do we plan our holiday?

- We must take into account various preferences and constraints to develop a schedule.
- An important technique in developing such a schedule is “hypothetical” reasoning.
  - e.g., if I fly into Kingston and drive a car to Port Antonio, I’ll have to drive on the roads at night. How desirable is this?
  - If I’m in Port Antonio and leave at 6:30am, I can arrive a Dunns river falls by 8:00am.

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## How do we plan our holiday?

- This kind of hypothetical reasoning involves asking
  - “what state will I be in after the following sequence of events?”
- From this we can reason about what sequence of events one should try to bring about to achieve a desirable state.
- Search is a computational method for capturing a particular version of this kind of reasoning.

## Search

- There are many difficult questions that are not resolved by search. In particular, the whole question of how does an intelligent system formulate its problem as a search problem is not addressed by search.
- Search only shows how to solve the problem once we have it correctly formulated.

## The formalism.

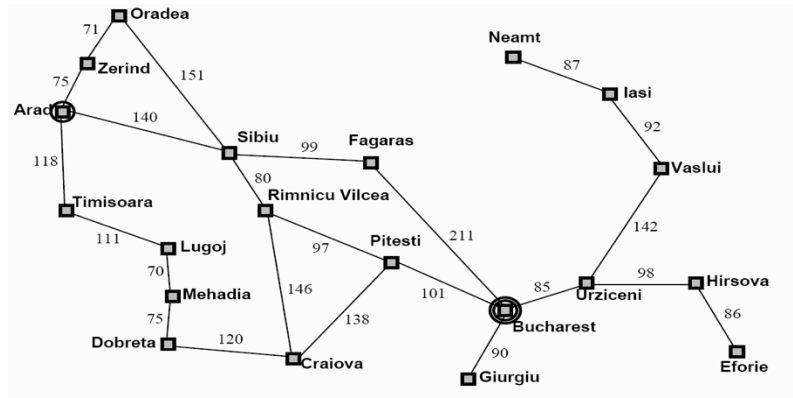
- To formulate a problem as a search problem we need the following components:
  - Formulate a state space over which to search. The state space necessarily involves abstracting the real problem.
  - Formulate actions that allow one to move between different states. The actions are abstractions of actions you could actually perform.
  - Identify the initial state that best represents your current state and the desired condition one wants to achieve.
  - Formulate various heuristics to help guide the search process.

## The formalism.

- Once the problem has been formulated as a state space search, various algorithms can be utilized to solve the problem.
  - A solution to the problem will be a sequence of actions/moves that can transform your current state into state where your desired condition holds.

## Example 1: Romania Travel.

Currently in Arad, need to get to Bucharest by tomorrow to catch a flight.



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## Example 1.

- State space.
  - States: the various cities you could be located in.
    - Note we are ignoring the low level details of driving, states where you are on the road between cities, etc.
  - Actions: drive between neighboring cities.
  - Initial state: in Arad
  - Desired condition (Goal): be in a state where you are in Bucharest. (How many states satisfy this condition?)
- Solution will be the route, the sequence of cities to travel through to get to Bucharest.

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## Example 2. The 8-Puzzle

7	2	4
5		6
8	3	1

Start State

1	2	3
4	5	6
7	8	

Goal State

- Can slide a tile into the blank spot.  
(Equivalently, can think of it as moving the blank around).

## Example 2. The 8-Puzzle

- State space.
  - States: The different configurations of the tiles.  
How many different states?
  - Actions: Moving the blank up, down, left, right.  
Can every action be performed in every state?
  - Initial state: as shown on previous slide.
  - Desired condition (Goal): be in a state where the tiles are all in the positions shown on the previous slide.
- Solution will be a sequence of moves of the blank that transform the initial state to a goal state.

## Example 2. The 8-Puzzle

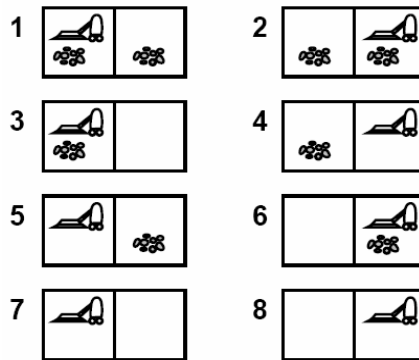
- Although there are  $9!$  different configurations of the tiles (362,880), in fact the state space is divided into two disjoint parts.
- Only when the blank is in the middle are all four actions possible.
- Our goal condition is satisfied by only a single state. But one could easily have a goal condition like
  - The 8 is in the upper left hand corner.
    - How many different states satisfy this goal?

## Example 3. Vacuum World.

- In the previous two examples, a state in the search space corresponded to a unique state of the world (modulo details we have abstracted away).
- However, states need not map directly to world configurations. Instead, a state could map to the agent's mental conception of how the world is configured: the agent's knowledge state.

## Example 3. Vacuum World.

- We have a vacuum cleaner and two rooms.
- Each room may or may not be dirty.
- The vacuum cleaner can move left or right (the action has no effect if there is no room to the right/left).
- The vacuum cleaner can suck; this cleans the room (even if the room was already clean).

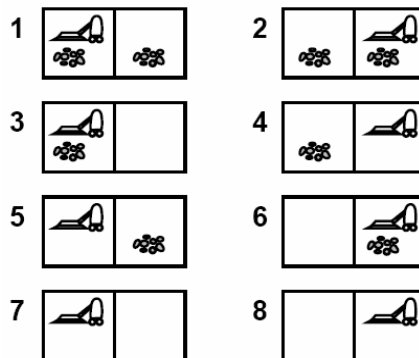


Physical states

## Example 3. Vacuum World.

Knowledge level State Space

- The state space can consist of a set of states. The agent knows that it is in one of these states, but doesn't know which.

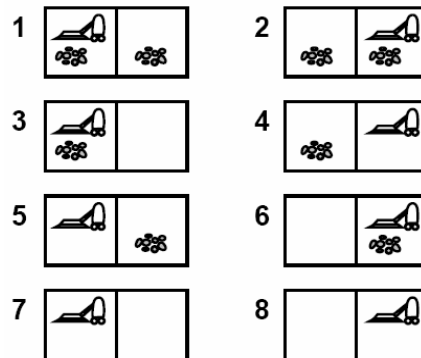


Goal is to have all rooms clean.

## Example 3. Vacuum World.

### Knowledge level State Space

- Complete knowledge of the world: agent knows exactly which state it is in. State space states consist of single physical states:
- Start in {5}:  
<right, suck>

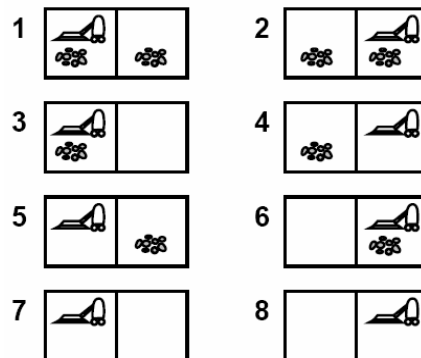


Goal is to have all rooms clean.

## Example 3. Vacuum World.

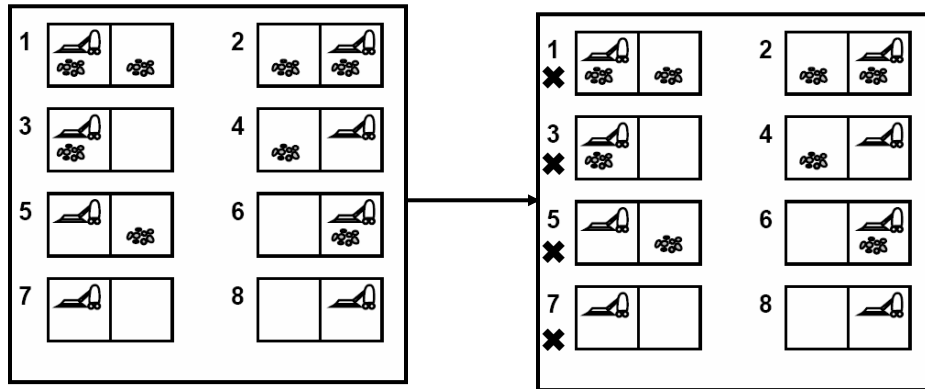
### Knowledge level State Space

- No knowledge of the world. States consist of sets of physical states.
- Start in {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8}, agent doesn't have any knowledge of where it is.
- Nevertheless, the actions <right, suck, left, suck> achieves the goal.



Goal is to have all rooms clean.

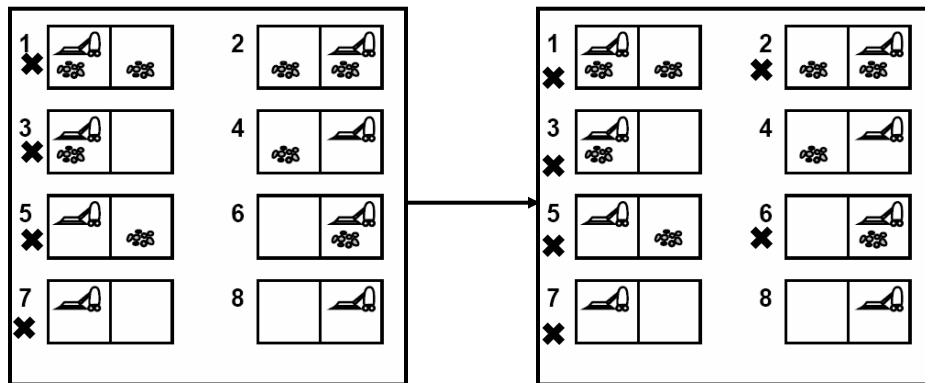
### Example 3. Vacuum World.



Initial state.  
 {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8}

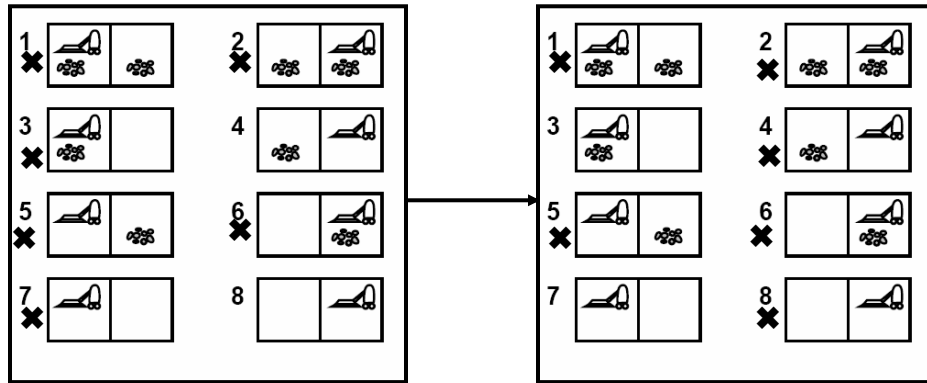
Right

### Example 3. Vacuum World.



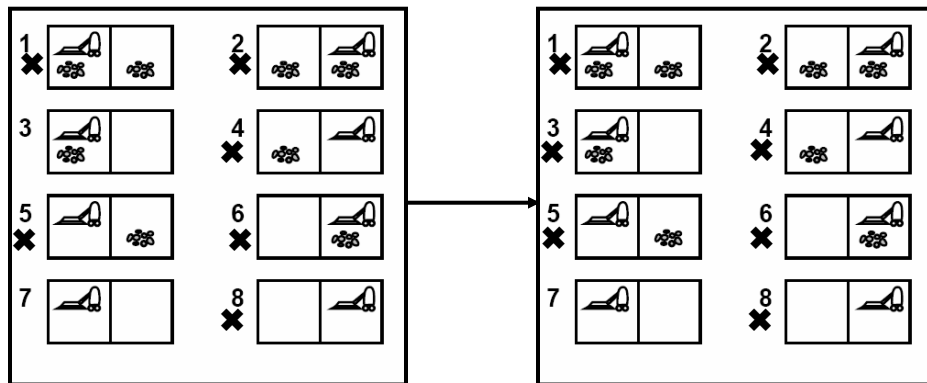
Suck

### Example 3. Vacuum World.



Left

### Example 3. Vacuum World.



Suck

## More complex situations.

- The agent might be able to perform some sensing actions. These actions change the agent's mental state, not the world configuration.
- With sensing can search for a contingent solution: a solution that is contingent on the outcome of the sensing actions
  - <right, if dirt then suck>
- Now the issue of interleaving execution and search comes into play.

## More complex situations.

- Instead of complete lack of knowledge, the agent might think that some states of the world are more likely than others.
- This leads to probabilistic models of the search space and different algorithms for solving the problem.
- Later we will see some techniques for reasoning and making decisions under uncertainty.

## Algorithms for Search.

- Inputs:

- a specified initial state (a specific world state or a set of world states representing the agent's knowledge, etc.)
- a successor function  $S(x) = \{\text{set of states that can be reached from state } x \text{ via a single action}\}$ .
- a goal test a function that can be applied to a state and returns true if the state satisfies the goal condition.
- A step cost function  $C(x,a,y)$  which determines the cost of moving from state  $x$  to state  $y$  using action  $a$ . ( $C(x,a,y) = \infty$  if  $a$  does not yield  $y$  from  $x$ )

## Algorithms for Search.

- Output:

- a sequence of states leading from the initial state to a state satisfying the goal test.
- The sequence might be
  - annotated by the name of the action used.
  - optimal in cost for some algorithms.



## Algorithms for Search

- Obtaining the action sequence.
  - The set of successors of a state  $x$  might arise from different actions, e.g.,
    - $x \rightarrow a \rightarrow y$
    - $x \rightarrow b \rightarrow z$
  - Successor function  $S(x)$  yields a set of states that can be reached from  $x$  via a (any) single action.
    - Rather than just return a set of states, we might annotate these states by the action used to obtain them:
      - $S(x) = \{ \langle y, a \rangle, \langle z, b \rangle \}$   
y via action a, z via action b.
      - $S(x) = \{ \langle y, a \rangle, \langle y, b \rangle \}$   
y via action a, also y via alternative action b.

## Tree search

- Assuming search space is a tree, not a graph.
- We use the successor state function to simulate an exploration of the state space.
- Initial call has Frontier = initial state.
  - Frontier/fringe is the set of states we haven't yet explored/expanded.

```
TreeSearch(Frontier, Successors, Goal? )
  If Frontier is empty return failure
  Curr = select state from Frontier
  If(Goal?(Curr)) return Curr.
  Frontier' = (Frontier - {Curr}) U Successors(Curr)
  return TreeSearch(Frontier', Successors, Goal?)
```

## Tree search in Prolog

```
treeS([[State|Path]|_],Soln) :-  
    Goal?(State), reverse([State|Path], Soln).  
treeS([[State|Path]|Frontier],Soln) :-  
    GenSuccessors(State,Path,NewPaths),  
    merge(NewPaths,Frontier,NewFrontier),  
    treeS(NewFrontier,Soln).
```