Problem solving and search

Chapter 3

Outline

- ♢ Problem-solving agents
- ♢ Problem types
- ♢ Problem formulation
- ♢ Example problems
- ♢ Basic search algorithms

Problem-solving agents

Restricted form of general agent:

```
function SIMPLE-PROBLEM-SOLVING-AGENT(percept) returns an action
  static: seq, an action sequence, initially empty
          state, some description of the current world state
          goal, a goal, initially null
          problem, a problem formulation

  state ← UPDATE-STATE(state, percept)
  if seq is empty then
      goal ← FORMULATE-GOAL(state)
      problem ← FORMULATE-PROBLEM(state, goal)
      seq ← SEARCH(problem)
  action ← RECOMMENDATION(seq, state)
  seq ← REMAINDER(seq, state)
  return action
```

Note: this is offline problem solving; solution executed "eyes closed."
Online problem solving involves acting without complete knowledge.

Example: Romania

On holiday in Romania; currently in Arad.
Flight leaves tomorrow from Bucharest

Formulate goal:

be in Bucharest

Formulate problem:

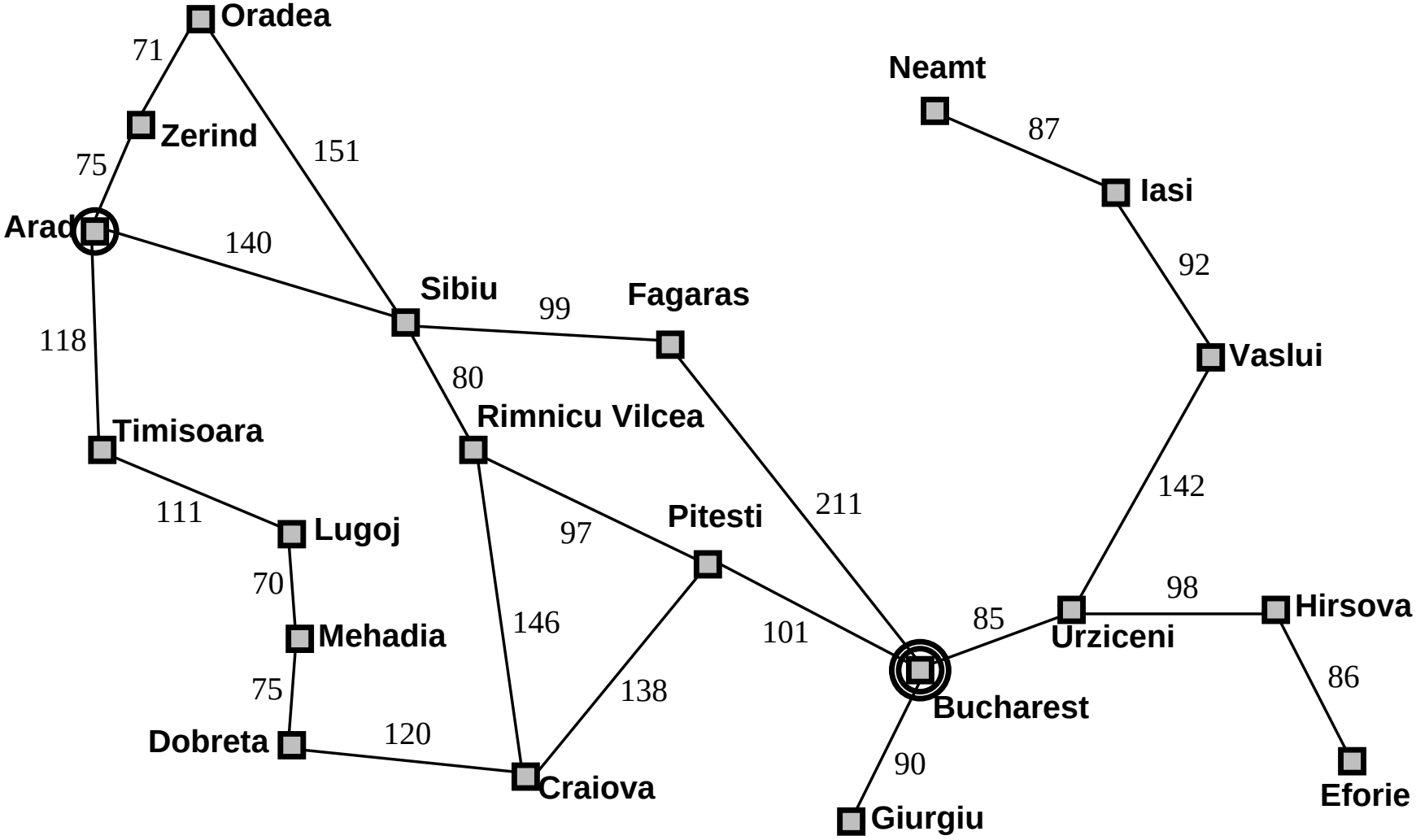
states: various cities

actions: drive between cities

Find solution:

sequence of cities, e.g., Arad, Sibiu, Fagaras, Bucharest

Example: Romania



Single-state problem formulation

A problem is defined by four items:

initial state e.g., "at Arad"

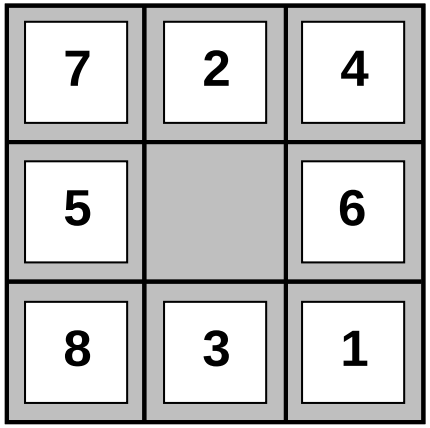
successor function $S(x)$ = set of action–state pairs
e.g., $S(Arad) = \{\langle Arad \rightarrow Zerind, Zerind\rangle, \ldots\}$

goal test, can be
explicit, e.g., $x =$ "at Bucharest"
implicit, e.g., $NoDirt(x)$

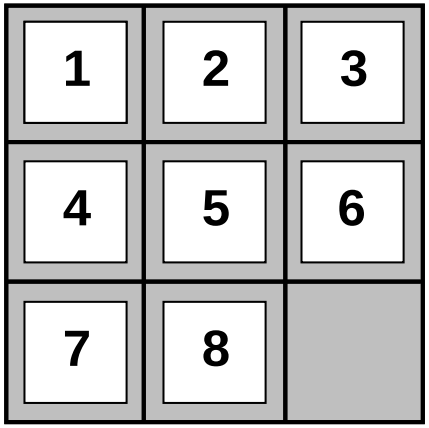
path cost (additive)
e.g., sum of distances, number of actions executed, etc.
$c(x, a, y)$ is the step cost, assumed to be ≥ 0

A solution is a sequence of actions
leading from the initial state to a goal state

Example: The 8-puzzle



Start State



Goal State

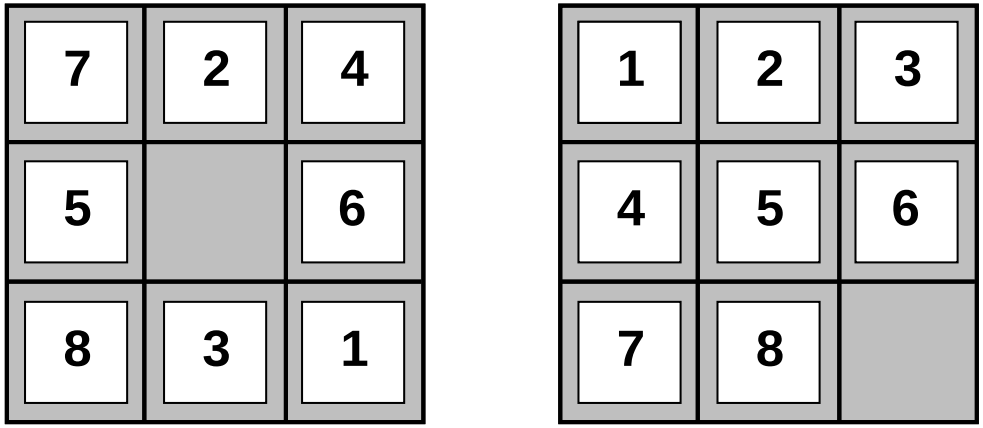
states??

actions??

goal test??

path cost??

Example: The 8-puzzle



Start State **Goal State**

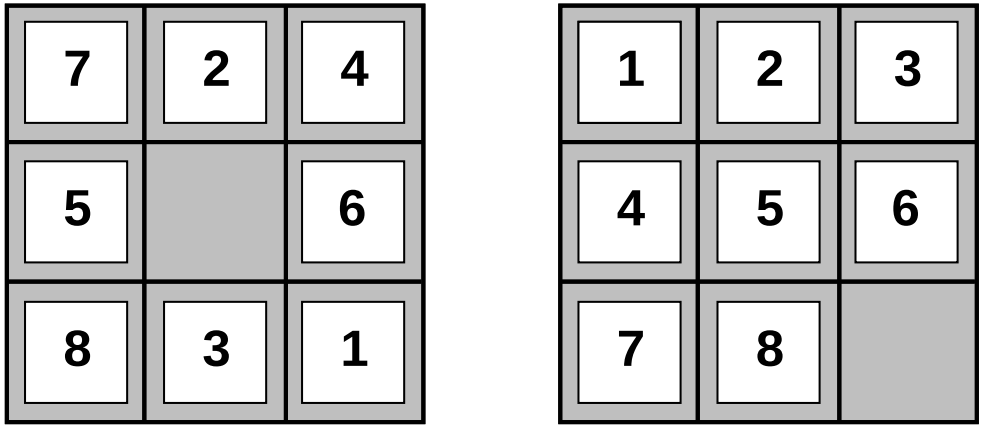
states??: integer locations of tiles (ignore intermediate positions)

actions??

goal test??

path cost??

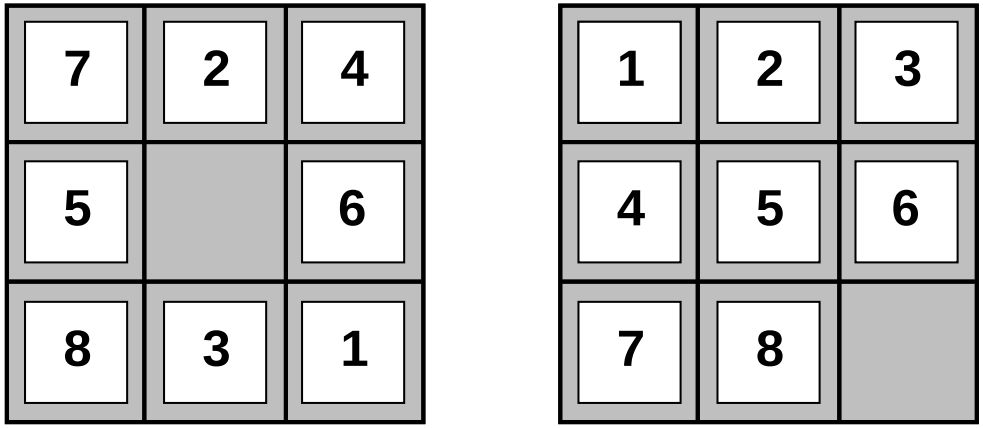
Example: The 8-puzzle



Start State **Goal State**

states??: integer locations of tiles (ignore intermediate positions)
actions??: move blank left, right, up, down (ignore unjamming etc.)
goal test??
path cost??

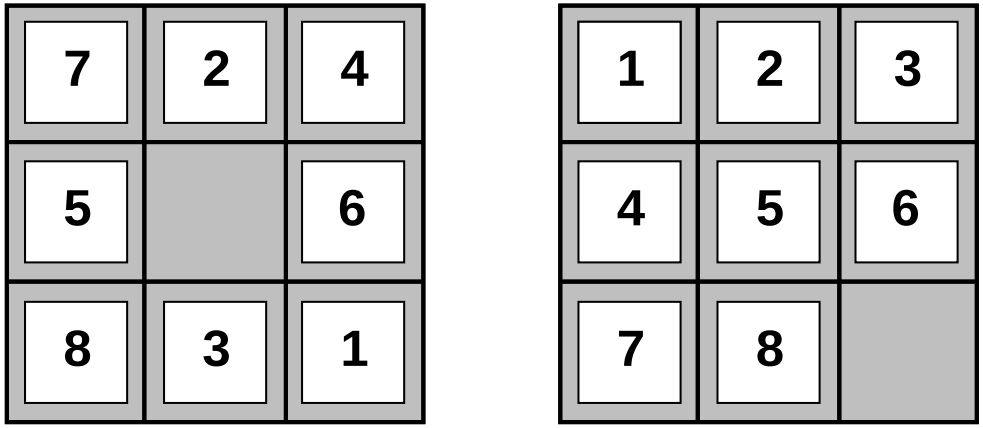
Example: The 8-puzzle



Start State **Goal State**

states??: integer locations of tiles (ignore intermediate positions)
actions??: move blank left, right, up, down (ignore unjamming etc.)
goal test??: = goal state (given)
path cost??

Example: The 8-puzzle



Start State **Goal State**

states??: integer locations of tiles (ignore intermediate positions)
actions??: move blank left, right, up, down (ignore unjamming etc.)
goal test??: $=$ goal state (given)
path cost??: 1 per move

[Note: optimal solution of n-Puzzle family is NP-hard]

Tree search algorithms

Basic idea:

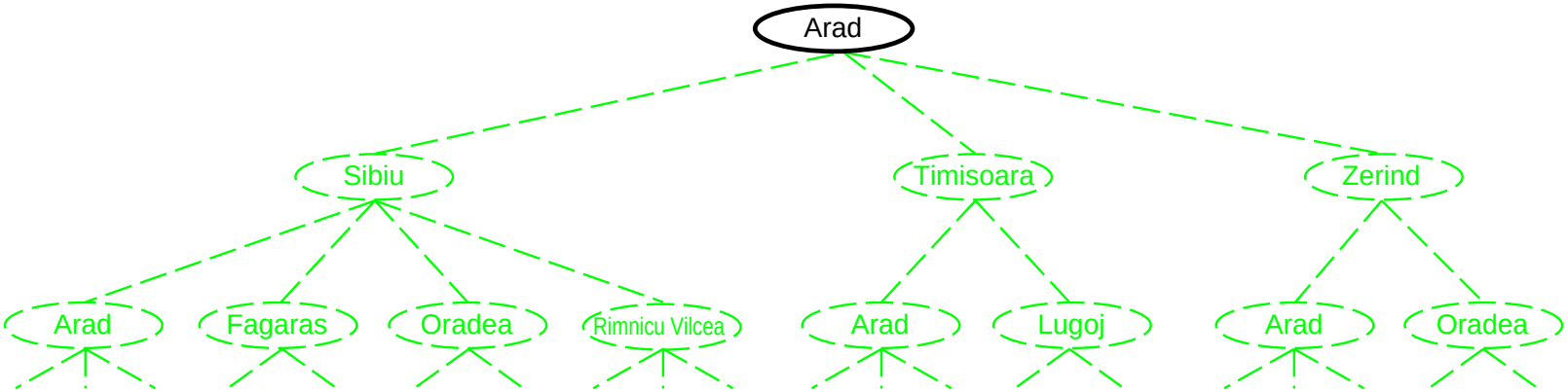
offline, simulated exploration of state space

by generating successors of already-explored states

(a.k.a. expanding states)

```
function TREE-SEARCH( problem, strategy) returns a solution, or failure
  initialize the search tree using the initial state of problem
  loop do
    if there are no candidates for expansion then return failure
    choose a leaf node for expansion according to strategy
    if the node contains a goal state then return the corresponding solution
    else expand the node and add the resulting nodes to the search tree
  end
```

Tree search example



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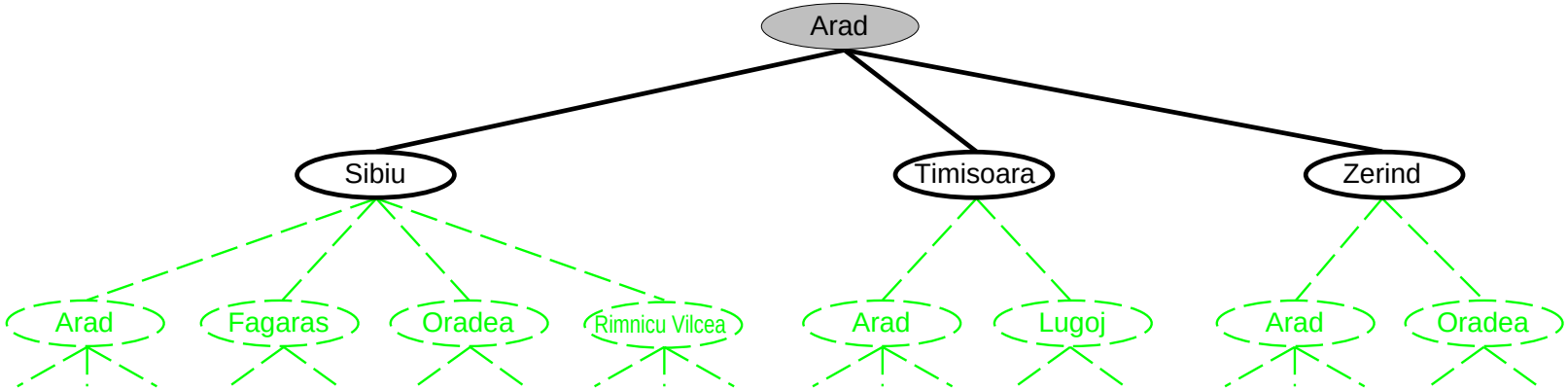

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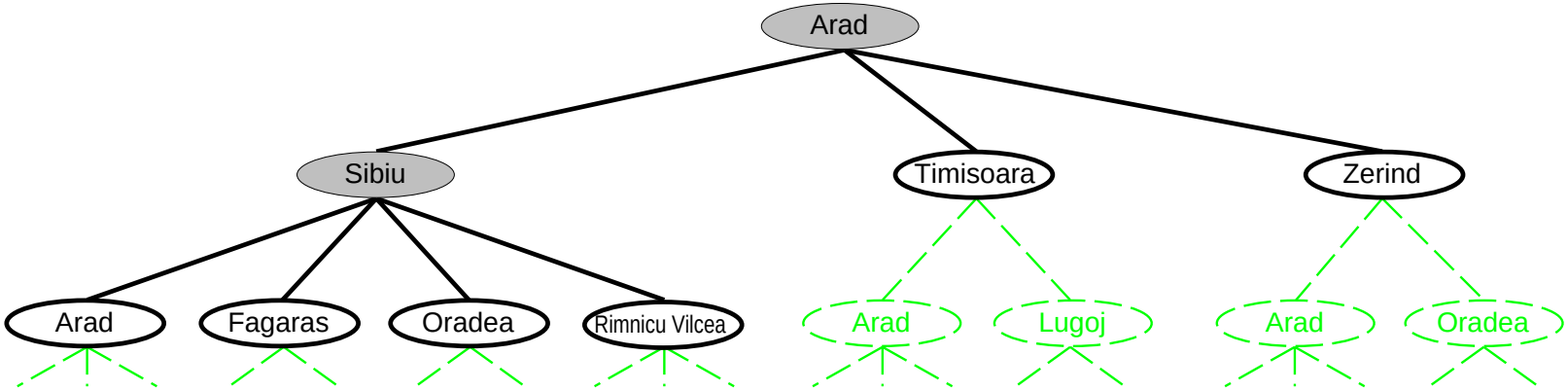


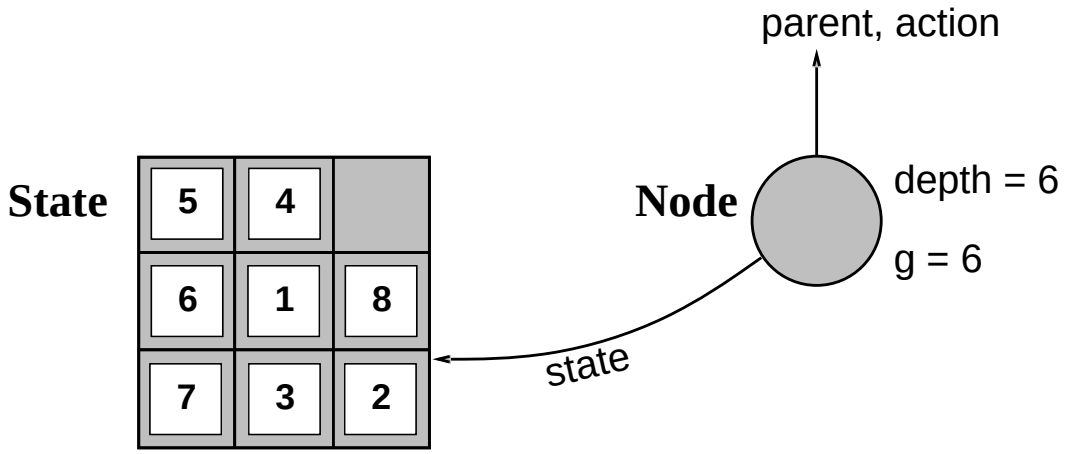
Implementation: states vs. nodes

A state is a (representation of) a physical configuration

A node is a data structure constituting part of a search tree

includes parent, children, depth, path cost $g(x)$

States do not have parents, children, depth, or path cost!



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

Implementation: general tree search

```
function TREE-SEARCH( problem, fringe) returns a solution, or failure
    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
        fringe ← INSERTALL(EXPAND(node, problem), fringe)
```

```
function EXPAND( node, problem) returns a set of nodes
    successors ← the empty set
    for each action, result in SUCCESSOR-FN(problem, STATE[node]) do
        s ← a new NODE
        PARENT-NODE[s] ← node;  ACTION[s] ← action;  STATE[s] ← result
        PATH-COST[s] ← PATH-COST[node] + STEP-COST(node, action, s)
        DEPTH[s] ← DEPTH[node] + 1
        add s to successors
    return successors
```

Search strategies

A 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/expanded
- space complexity—maximum number of nodes in memory
- optimality—does it always find a least-cost solution?

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 strategies use only the information available in the problem definition

Breadth-first search

Uniform-cost search

Depth-first search

Depth-limited search

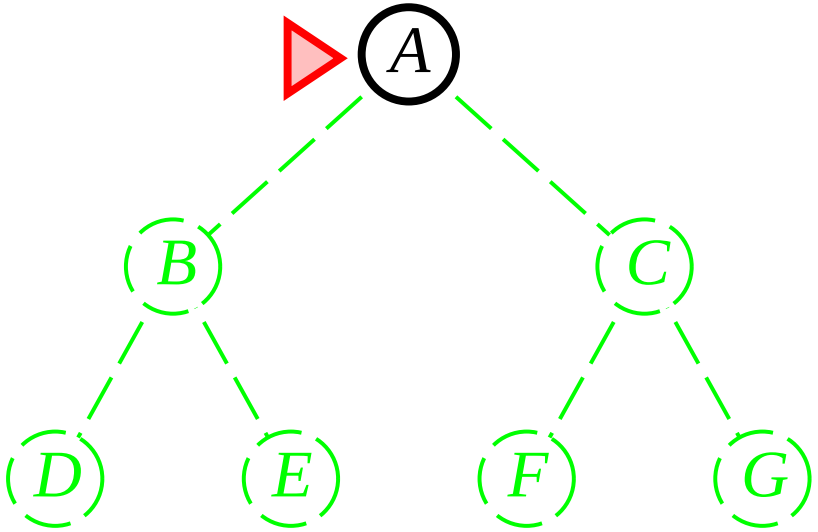
Iterative deepening search

Breadth-first search

Expand shallowest unexpanded node

Implementation:

fringe is a FIFO queue, i.e., new successors go at end



Breadth-first search

Expand shallowest unexpanded node

Implementation:

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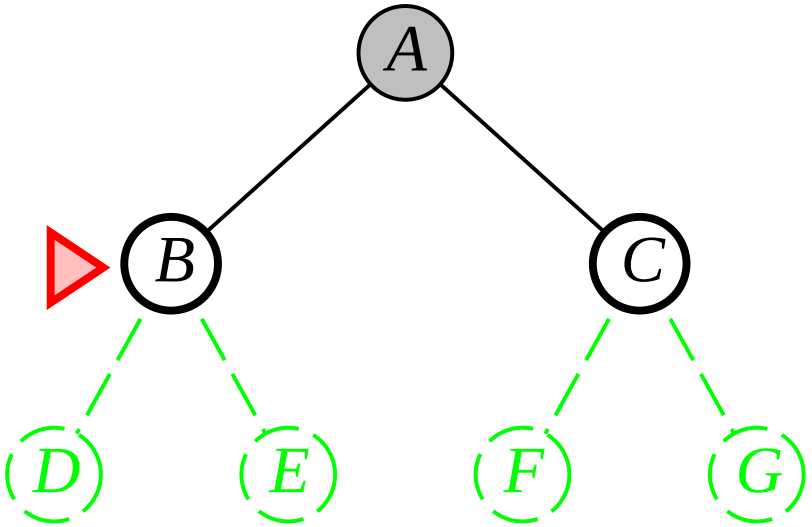

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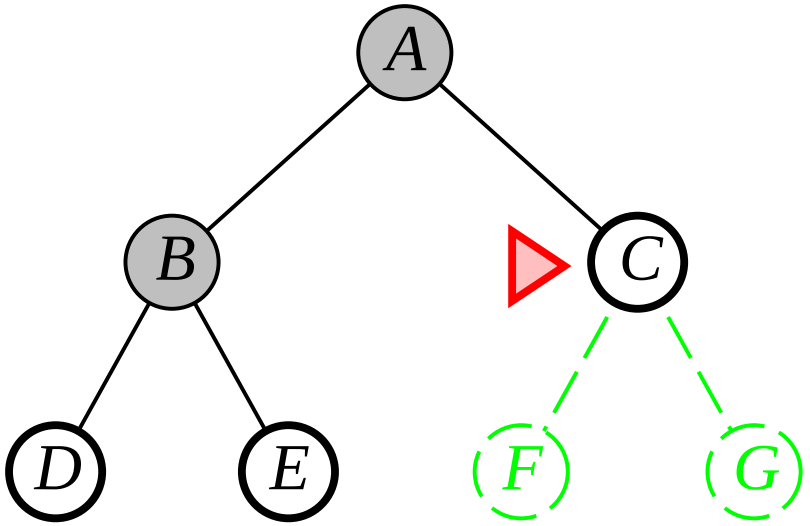

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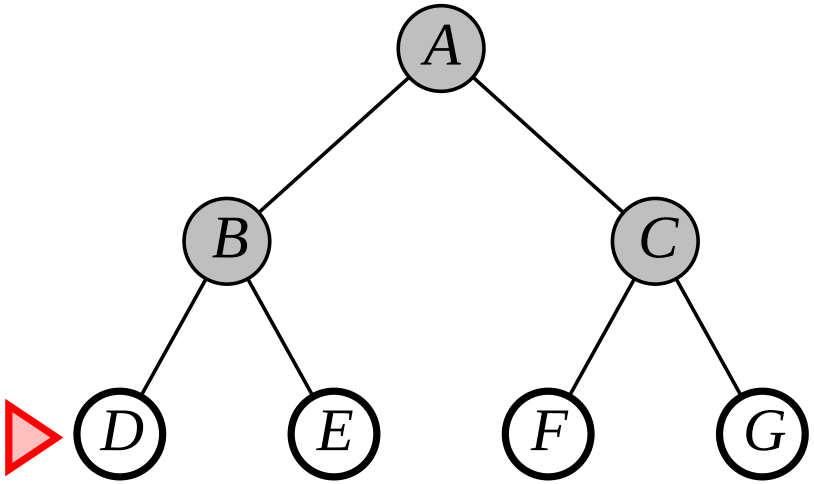


Properties of breadth-first search

Complete??

Properties of breadth-first search

Complete?? Yes (if b is finite)

Time??

Properties of breadth-first search

Complete?? Yes (if b is finite)

Time?? $1 + b + b^2 + b^3 + \ldots + b^d + b(b^d - 1) = O(b^{d+1})$, i.e., exp. in d

Space??

Properties of breadth-first search

Complete?? Yes (if b is finite)

Time?? $1 + b + b^2 + b^3 + \ldots + b^d + b(b^d - 1) = O(b^{d+1})$, i.e., exp. in d

Space?? $O(b^{d+1})$ (keeps every node in memory)

Optimal??

Properties of breadth-first search

Complete?? Yes (if b is finite)

Time?? $1 + b + b^2 + b^3 + \ldots + b^d + b(b^d - 1) = O(b^{d+1})$, i.e., exp. in d

Space?? $O(b^{d+1})$ (keeps every node in memory)

Optimal?? Yes (if cost $= 1$ per step); not optimal in general

Space is the big problem; can easily generate nodes at 100MB/sec
so 24hrs $=$ 8640GB.

Uniform-cost search

Expand least-cost unexpanded node

Implementation:

$fringe$ = queue ordered by path cost, lowest first

Equivalent to breadth-first if step costs all equal

Complete?? Yes, if step cost $\geq \epsilon$

Time?? # of nodes with $g \leq$ cost of optimal solution, $O(b^{\lceil C^*/\epsilon \rceil})$
where C^* is the cost of the optimal solution

Space?? # of nodes with $g \leq$ cost of optimal solution, $O(b^{\lceil C^*/\epsilon \rceil})$

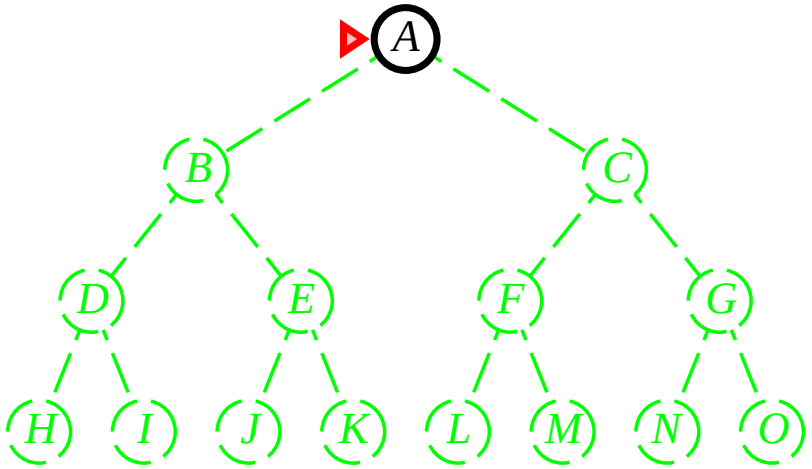
Optimal?? Yes—nodes expanded in increasing order of $g(n)$

Depth-first search

Expand deepest unexpanded node

Implementation:

$fringe$ = LIFO queue, i.e., put successors at front



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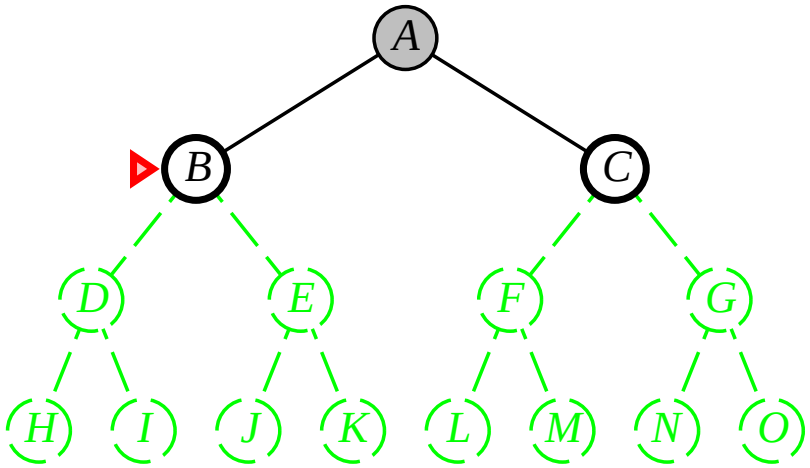

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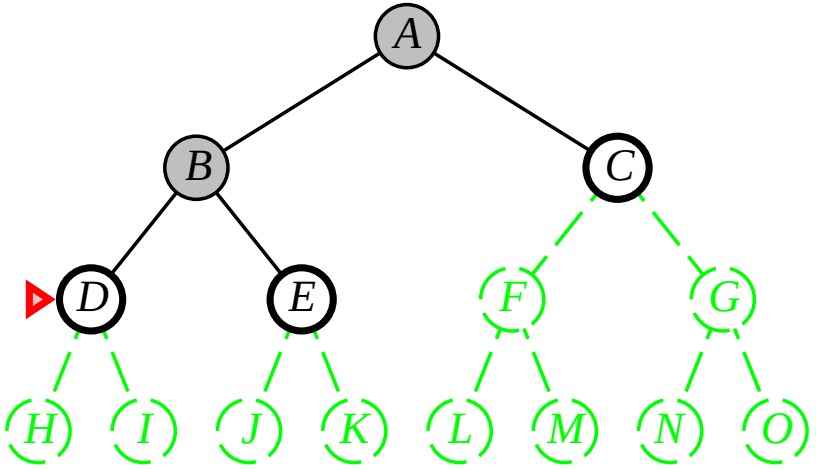

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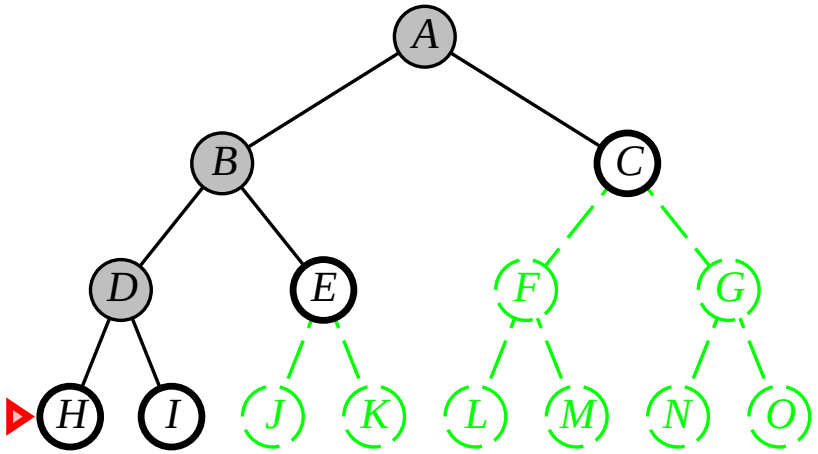

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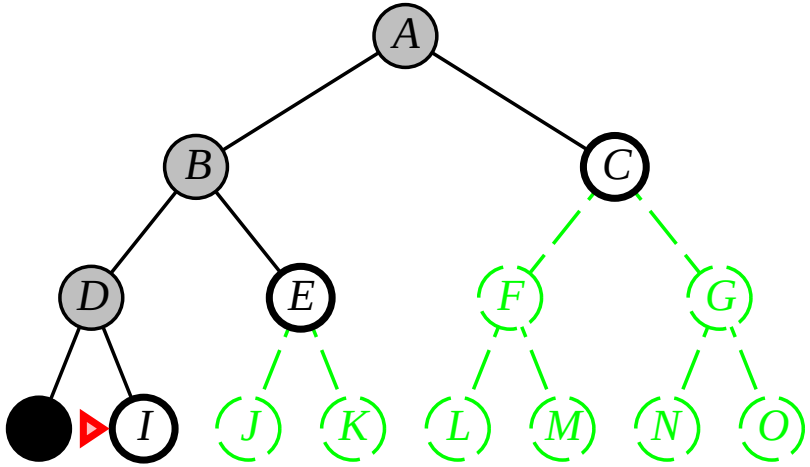

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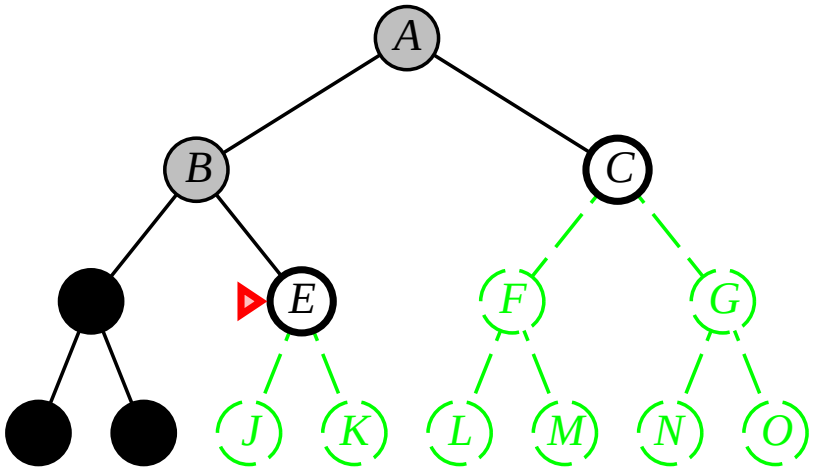

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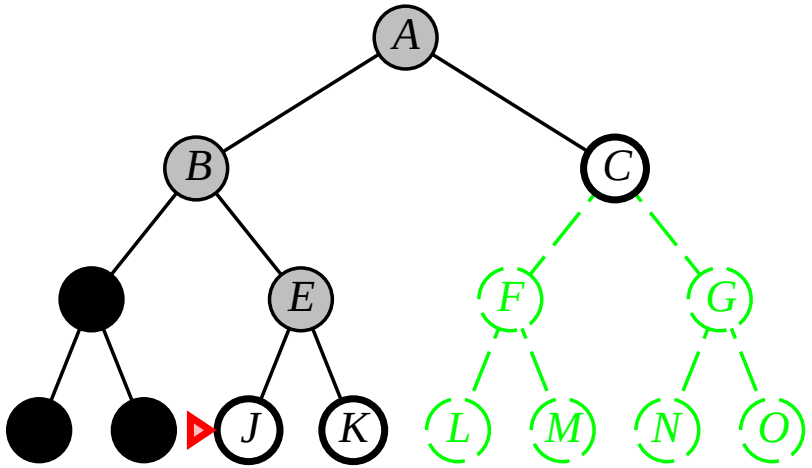

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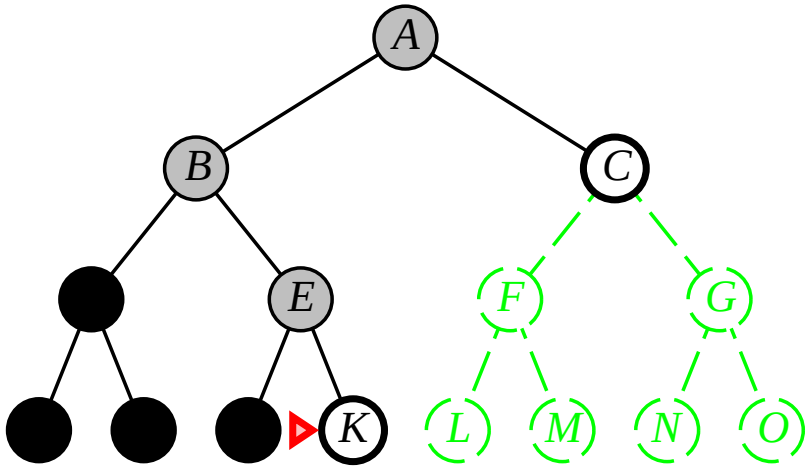

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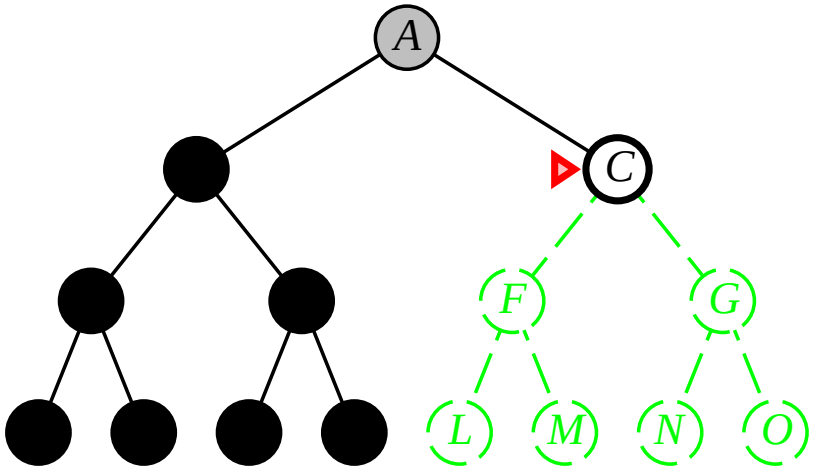

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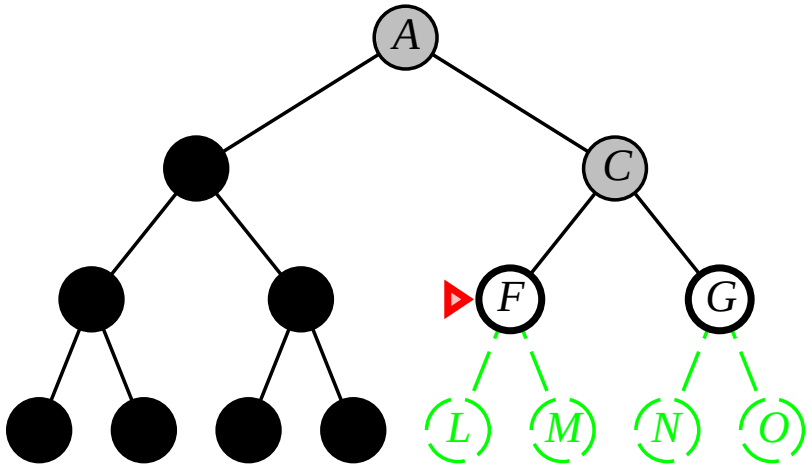

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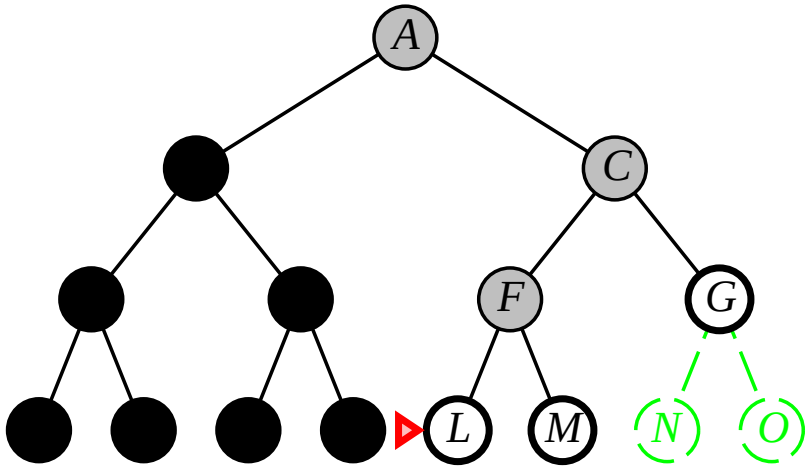

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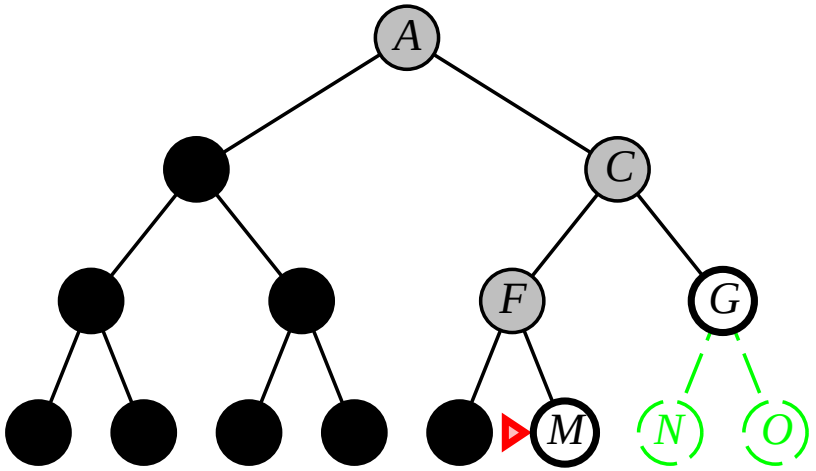


Properties of depth-first search

Complete??

Properties of depth-first search

Complete?? No: fails in infinite-depth spaces, spaces with loops

Modify to avoid repeated states along path

$\Rightarrow$ complete in finite spaces

Time??

Properties of depth-first search

Complete?? No: fails in infinite-depth spaces, spaces with loops

Modify to avoid repeated states along path

$\Rightarrow$ complete in finite spaces

Time?? $O(b^m)$: terrible if m is much larger than d

but if solutions are dense, may be much faster than breadth-first

Space??

Properties of depth-first search

Complete?? No: fails in infinite-depth spaces, spaces with loops

Modify to avoid repeated states along path

$\Rightarrow$ complete in finite spaces

Time?? $O(b^m)$: terrible if m is much larger than d

but if solutions are dense, may be much faster than breadth-first

Space?? $O(bm)$, i.e., linear space!

Optimal??

Properties of depth-first search

Complete?? No: fails in infinite-depth spaces, spaces with loops

Modify to avoid repeated states along path

$\Rightarrow$ complete in finite spaces

Time?? $O(b^m)$: terrible if m is much larger than d

but if solutions are dense, may be much faster than breadth-first

Space?? $O(bm)$, i.e., linear space!

Optimal?? No

Depth-limited search

= depth-first search with depth limit l,
i.e., nodes at depth l have no successors

Recursive implementation:

```
function DEPTH-LIMITED-SEARCH( problem, limit) returns soln/fail/cutoff
    RECURSIVE-DLS(MAKE-NODE(INITIAL-STATE[problem]), problem, limit)

function RECURSIVE-DLS(node, problem, limit) returns soln/fail/cutoff
    cutoff-occurred? ← false
    if GOAL-TEST(problem, STATE[node]) then return node
    else if DEPTH[node] = limit then return cutoff
    else for each successor in EXPAND(node, problem) do
        result ← RECURSIVE-DLS(successor, problem, limit)
        if result = cutoff then cutoff-occurred? ← true
        else if result ≠ failure then return result
    if cutoff-occurred? then return cutoff else return failure
```

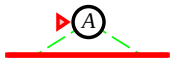
Iterative deepening search

```
function ITERATIVE-DEEPENING-SEARCH( problem) returns a solution
    inputs: problem, a problem

    for depth ← 0 to ∞ do
        result ← DEPTH-LIMITED-SEARCH( problem, depth)
        if result ≠ cutoff then return result
    end
```

Iterative deepening search $l = 0$

Limit = 0

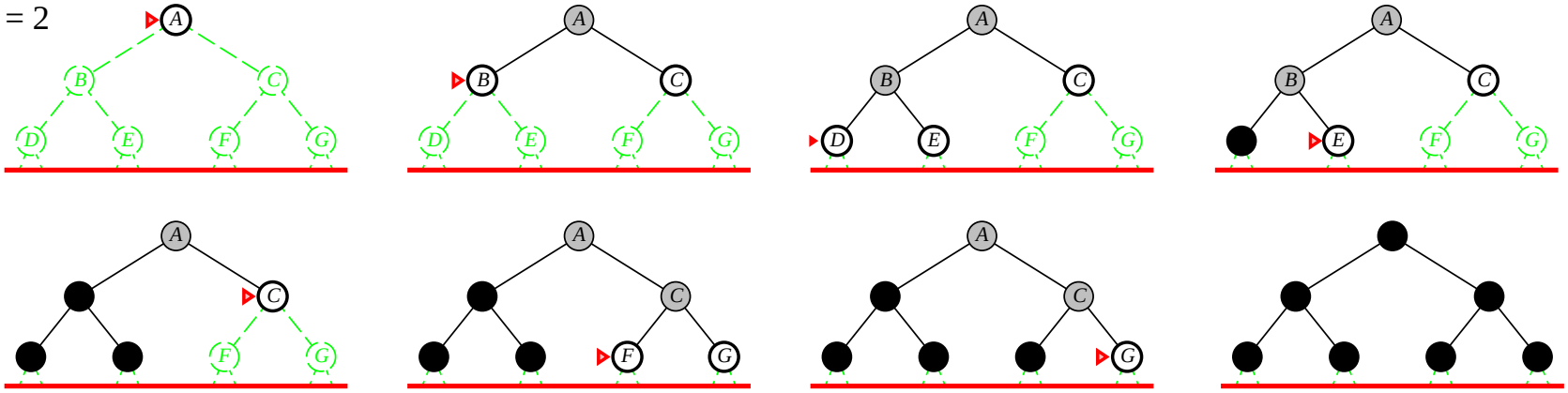


Iterative deepening search $l = 1$

Limit = 1

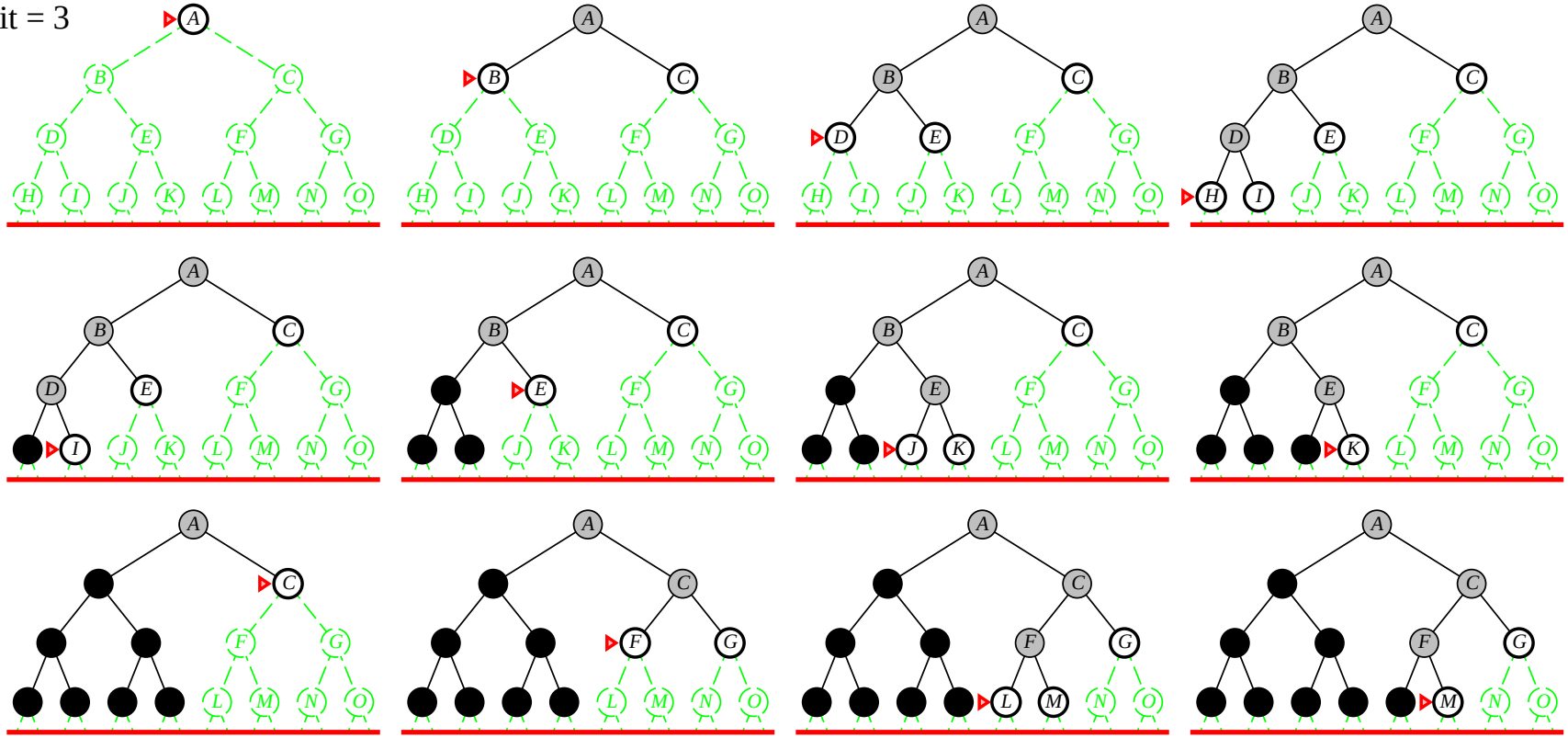
Iterative deepening search $l = 2$

Limit = 2



Iterative deepening search $l = 3$

Limit = 3



Properties of iterative deepening search

Complete??

Properties of iterative deepening search

Complete?? Yes

Time??

Properties of iterative deepening search

Complete?? Yes

Time?? $(d+1)b^0 + db^1 + (d-1)b^2 + \ldots + b^d = O(b^d)$

Space??

Properties of iterative deepening search

Complete?? Yes

Time?? $(d+1)b^0 + db^1 + (d-1)b^2 + \ldots + b^d = O(b^d)$

Space?? $O(bd)$

Optimal??

Properties of iterative deepening search

Complete?? Yes

Time?? $(d+1)b^0 + db^1 + (d-1)b^2 + \ldots + b^d = O(b^d)$

Space?? $O(bd)$

Optimal?? Yes, if step cost $= 1$
Can be modified to explore uniform-cost tree

Numerical comparison for $b = 10$ and $d = 5$, solution at far right leaf:

$$N(\text{IDS}) = 50 + 400 + 3,000 + 20,000 + 100,000 = 123,450$$
$$N(\text{BFS}) = 10 + 100 + 1,000 + 10,000 + 100,000 + 999,990 = 1,111,100$$

IDS does better because other nodes at depth d are not expanded

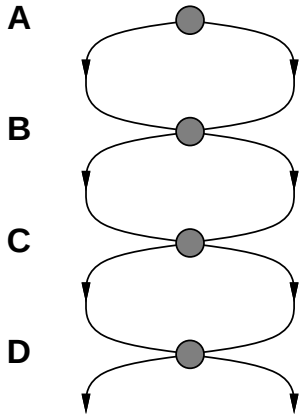
BFS can be modified to apply goal test when a node is **generated**

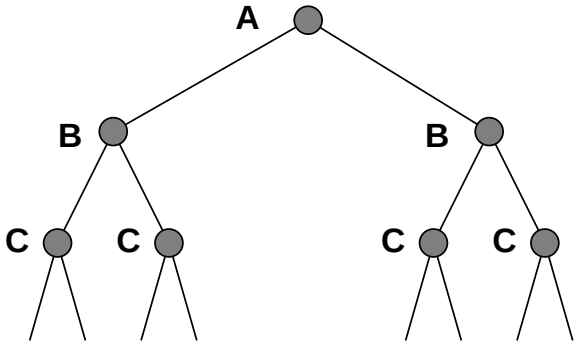
Summary of algorithms

Criterion	Breadth-First	Uniform-Cost	Depth-First	Depth-Limited	Iterative Deepening
Complete?	Yes*	Yes*	No	Yes, if $l \geq d$	Yes
Time	b^{d+1}	$b^{\lceil C^*/\epsilon \rceil}$	b^m	b^l	b^d
Space	b^{d+1}	$b^{\lceil C^*/\epsilon \rceil}$	bm	bl	bd
Optimal?	Yes*	Yes	No	No	Yes*

Repeated states

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





Graph search

```
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
```

Summary

Problem formulation usually requires abstracting away real-world details to define a state space that can feasibly be explored

Variety of uninformed search strategies

Iterative deepening search uses only linear space
and not much more time than other uninformed algorithms

Graph search can be exponentially more efficient than tree search

Informed search algorithms

Chapter 4, Sections 1–2

Outline

- ♢ Best-first search
- ♢ A* search
- ♢ Heuristics

Review: Tree search

```
function TREE-SEARCH( problem, fringe) returns a solution, or failure
    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] applied to STATE(node) succeeds return node
        fringe ← INSERTALL(EXPAND(node, problem), fringe)
```

A strategy is defined by picking the **order of node expansion**

Best-first search

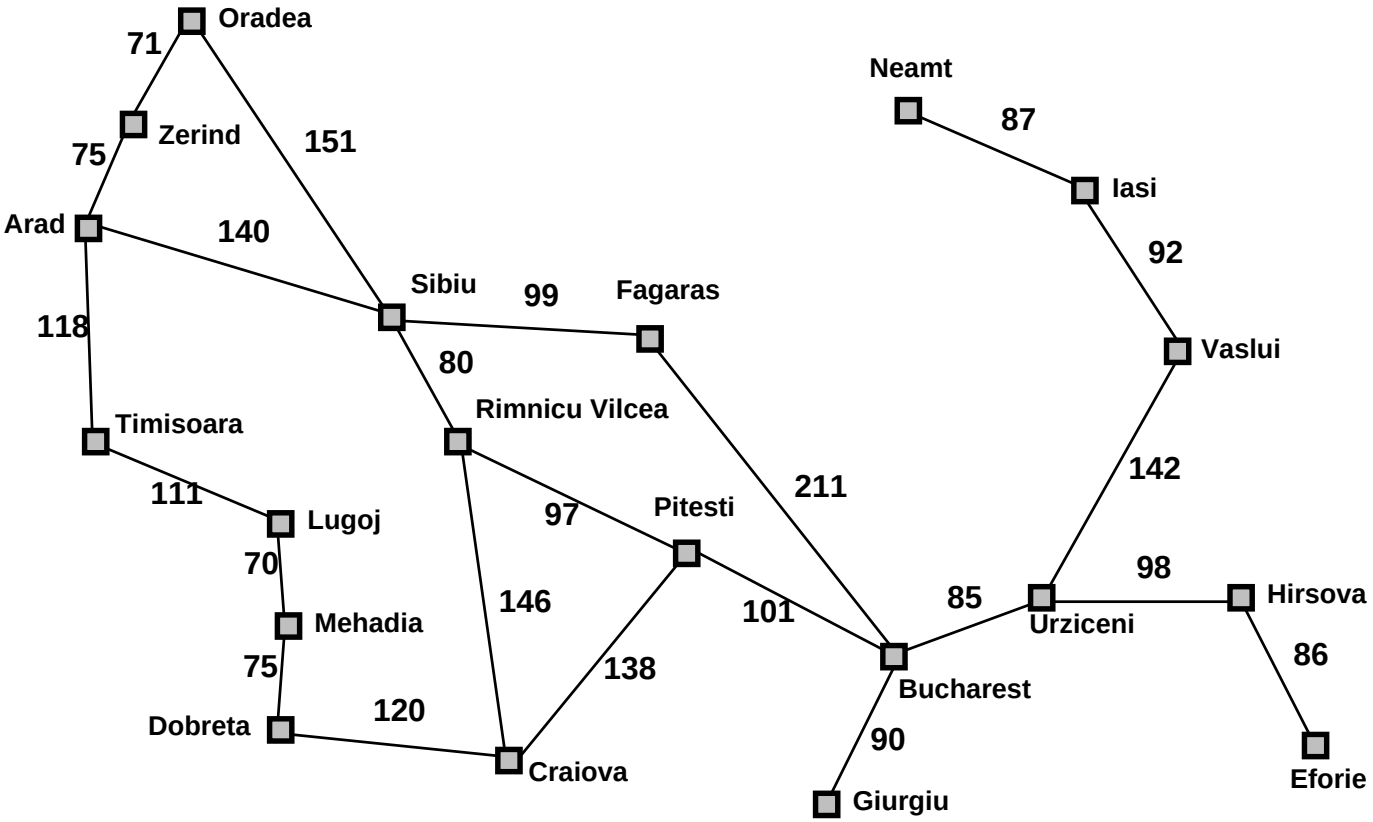
Idea: use an evaluation function for each node
– estimate of "desirability"

$\Rightarrow$ Expand most desirable unexpanded node

Implementation:
fringe is a queue sorted in decreasing order of desirability

Special cases:
greedy search
A* search

Romania with step costs in km



Straight−line distance to Bucharest	
Arad	366
Bucharest	0
Craiova	160
Dobreta	242
Eforie	161
Fagaras	178
Giurgiu	77
Hirsova	151
Iasi	226
Lugoj	244
Mehadia	241
Neamt	234
Oradea	380
Pitesti	98
Rimnicu Vilcea	193
Sibiu	253
Timisoara	329
Urziceni	80
Vaslui	199
Zerind	374

Greedy search

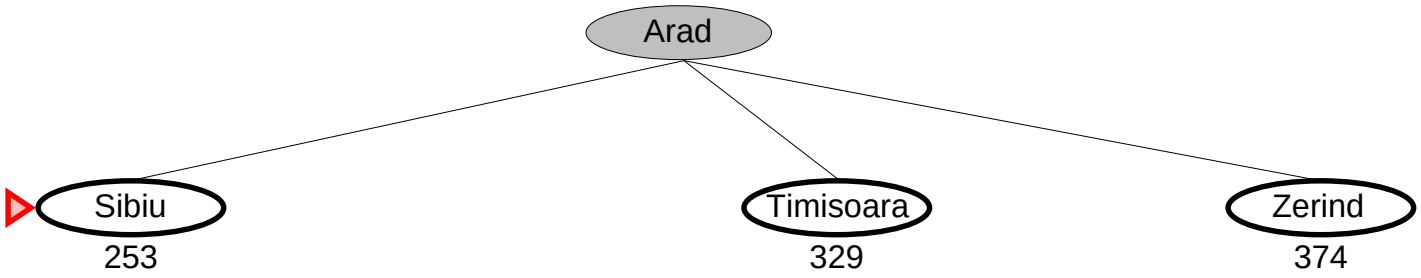
Evaluation function $h(n)$ (**h**euristic)
$=$ estimate of cost from n to the closest goal

E.g., $h_{\mathrm{SLD}}(n) =$ straight-line distance from n to Bucharest

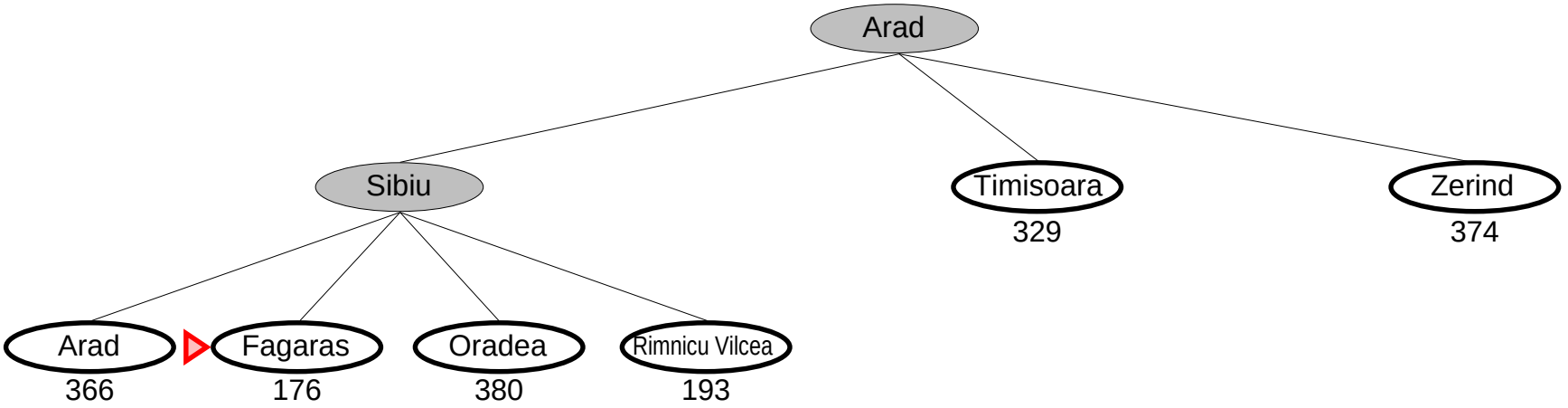
Greedy search expands the node that **appears** to be closest to goal

Greedy search example

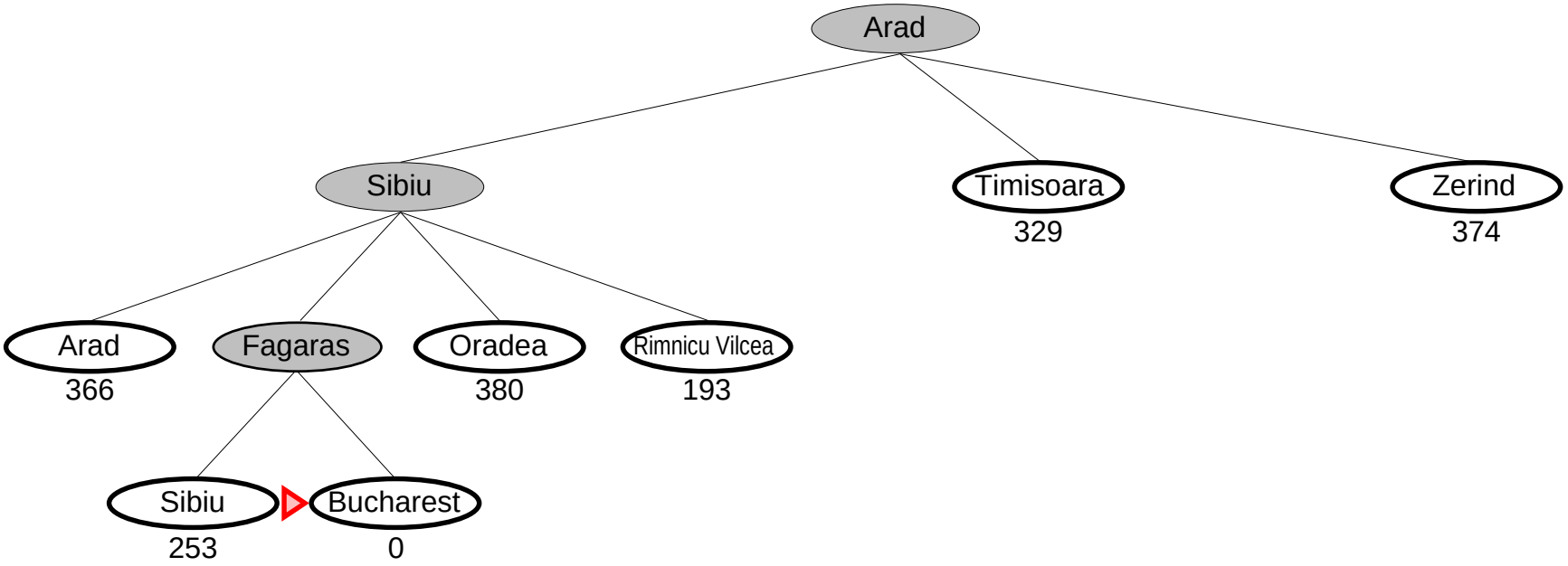
Greedy search example



Greedy search example



Greedy search example



Properties of greedy search

Complete??

Properties of greedy search

Complete?? No–can get stuck in loops, e.g., with Oradea as goal,

Iasi $\rightarrow$ Neamt $\rightarrow$ Iasi $\rightarrow$ Neamt $\rightarrow$

Complete in finite space with repeated-state checking

Time??

Properties of greedy search

Complete?? No–can get stuck in loops, e.g.,

Iasi $\rightarrow$ Neamt $\rightarrow$ Iasi $\rightarrow$ Neamt $\rightarrow$

Complete in finite space with repeated-state checking

Time?? $O(b^m)$, but a good heuristic can give dramatic improvement

Space??

Properties of greedy search

Complete?? No–can get stuck in loops, e.g.,

Iasi $\rightarrow$ Neamt $\rightarrow$ Iasi $\rightarrow$ Neamt $\rightarrow$

Complete in finite space with repeated-state checking

Time?? $O(b^m)$, but a good heuristic can give dramatic improvement

Space?? $O(b^m)$—keeps all nodes in memory

Optimal??

Properties of greedy search

Complete?? No–can get stuck in loops, e.g.,

Iasi $\rightarrow$ Neamt $\rightarrow$ Iasi $\rightarrow$ Neamt $\rightarrow$

Complete in finite space with repeated-state checking

Time?? $O(b^m)$, but a good heuristic can give dramatic improvement

Space?? $O(b^m)$—keeps all nodes in memory

Optimal?? No

$\mathbf{A^*}$ search

Idea: avoid expanding paths that are already expensive

Evaluation function $f(n) = g(n) + h(n)$

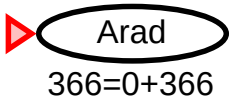
$g(n)$ = cost so far to reach n
$h(n)$ = estimated cost to goal from n
$f(n)$ = estimated total cost of path through n to goal

A* search uses an admissible heuristic
i.e., $h(n) \leq h^*(n)$ where $h^*(n)$ is the **true** cost from n.
(Also require $h(n) \geq 0$, so $h(G) = 0$ for any goal G.)

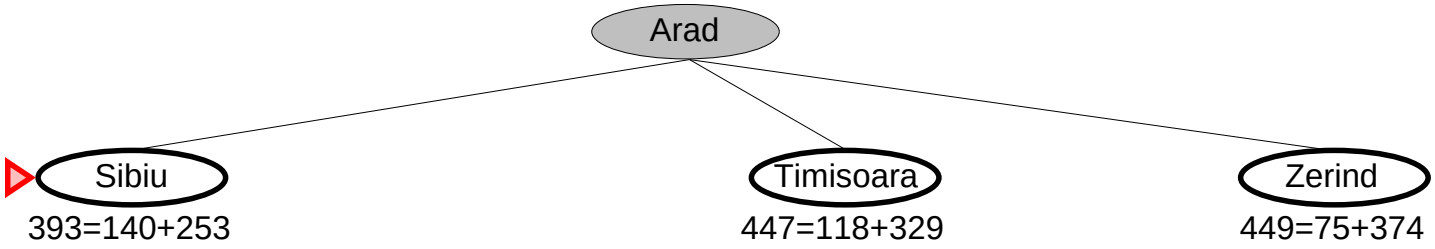
E.g., $h_{\mathrm{SLD}}(n)$ never overestimates the actual road distance

Theorem: A* search is optimal

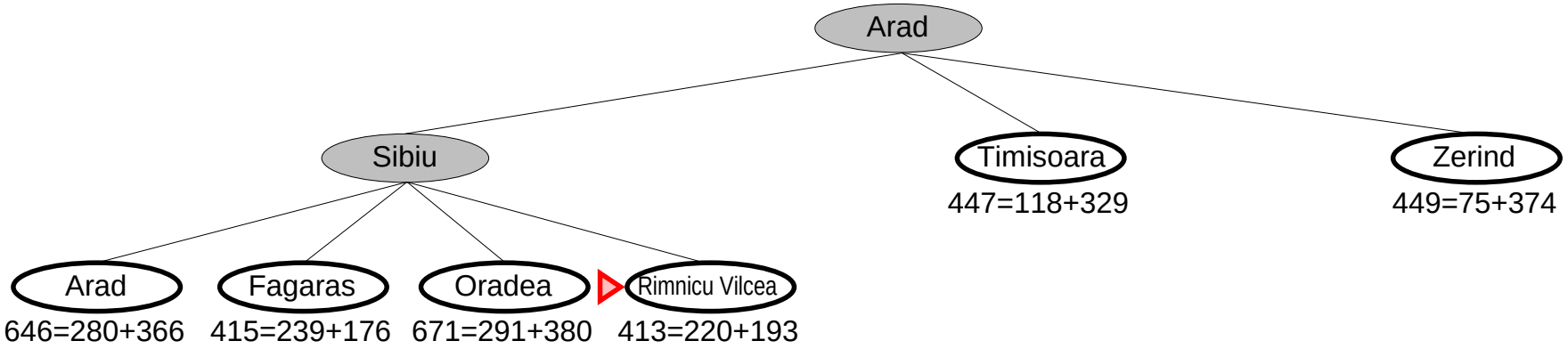
A* search example



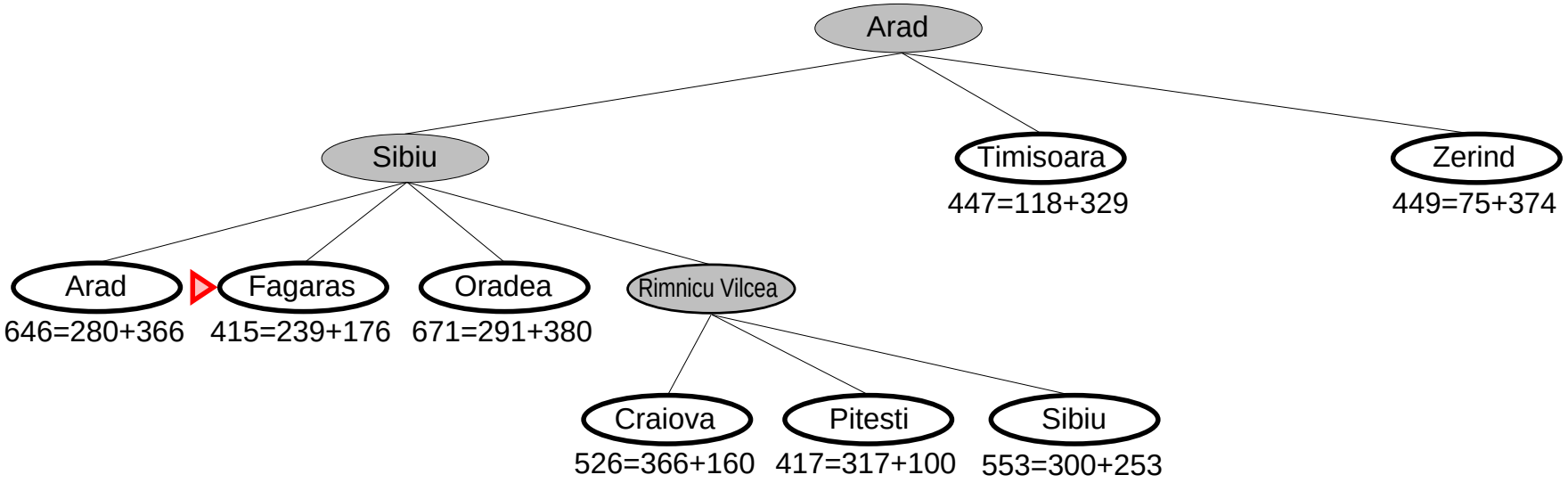
A* search example



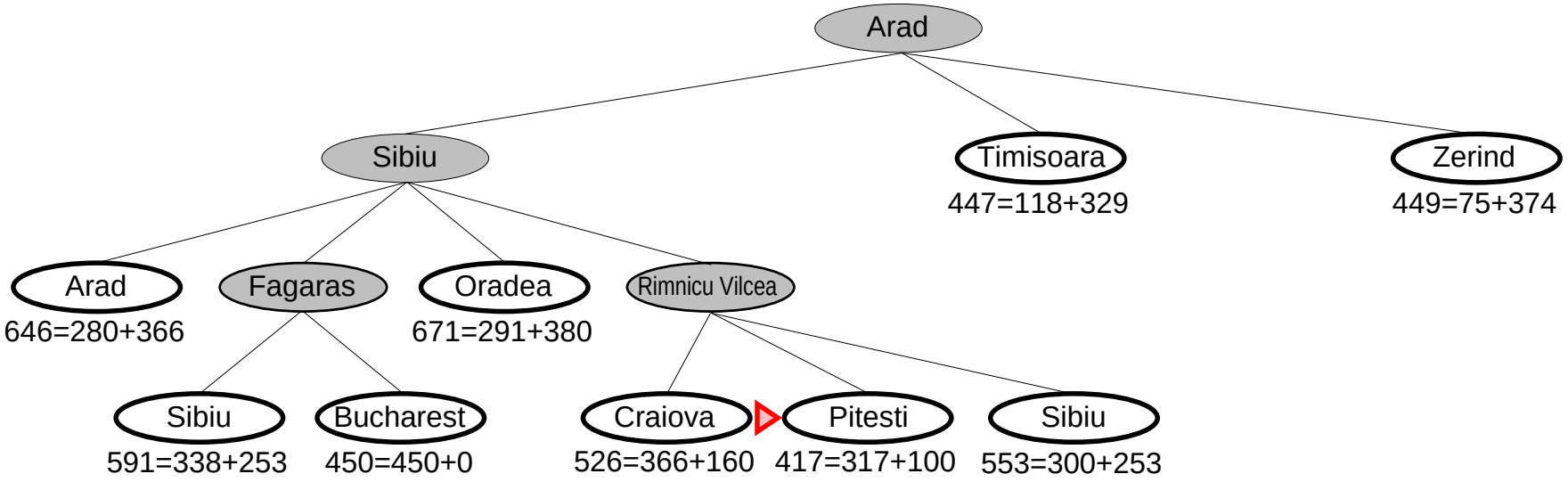
A* search example



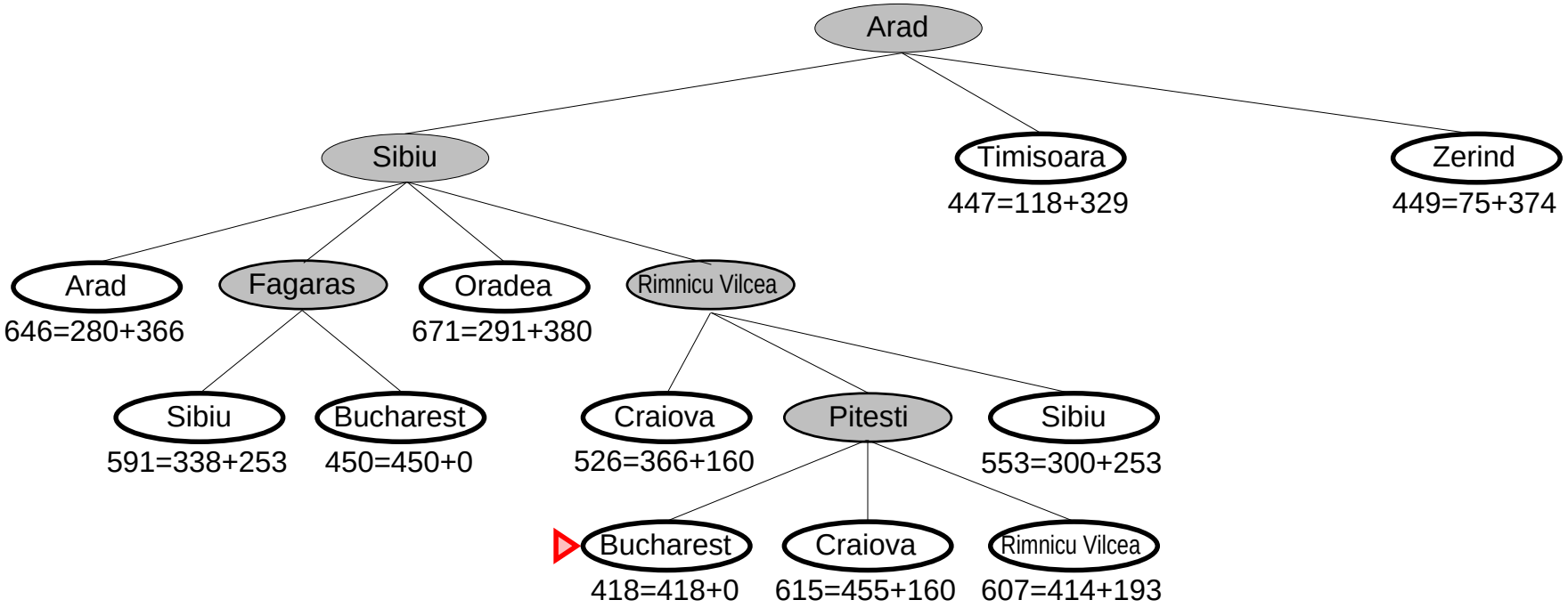
A* search example



A* search example

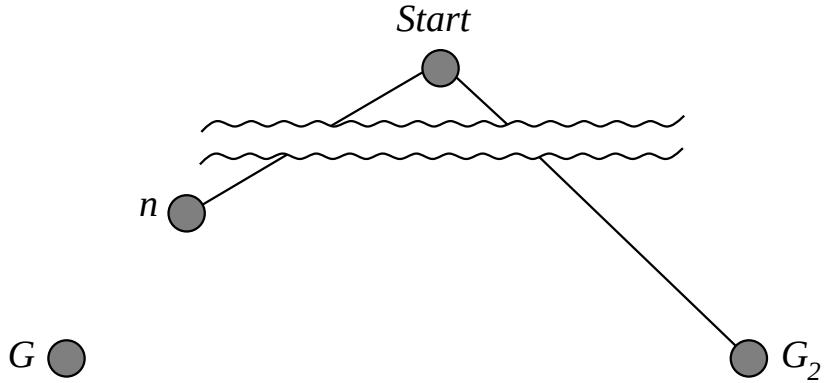


A* search example



Optimality of A* (standard proof)

Suppose some suboptimal goal G_2 has been generated and is in the queue.
Let n be an unexpanded node on a shortest path to an optimal goal G_1.



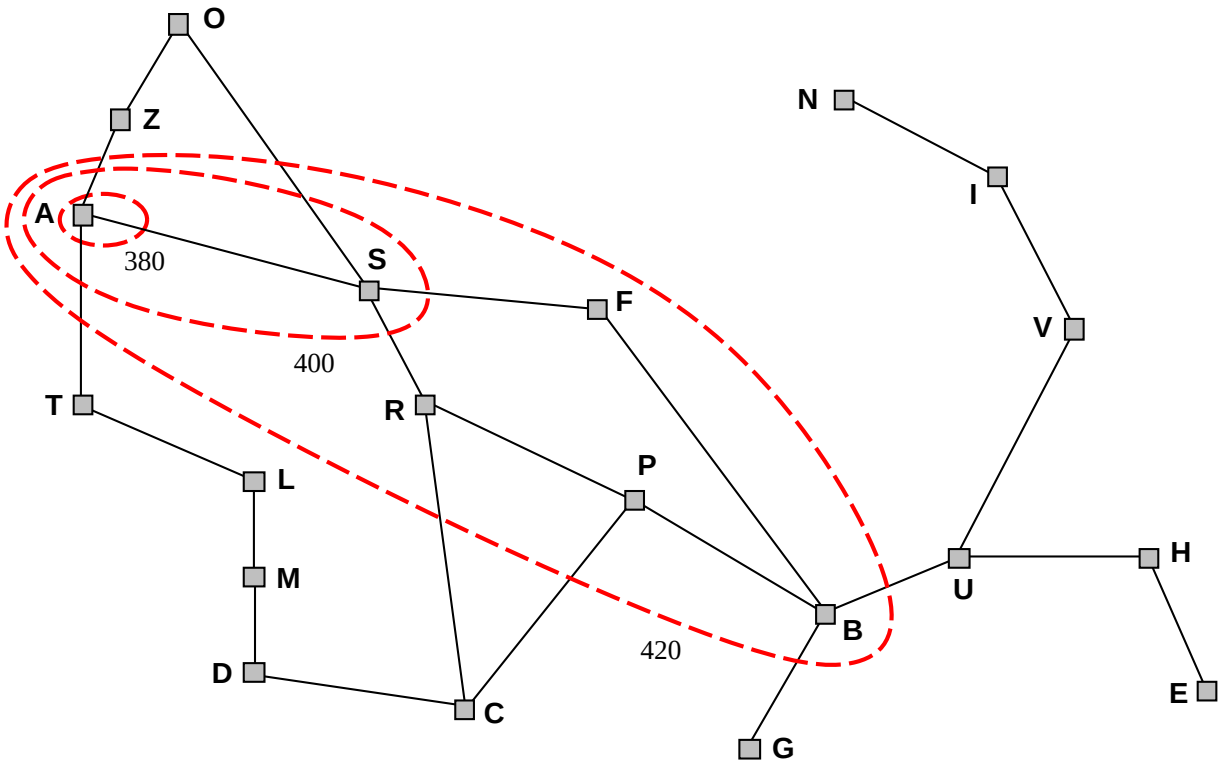
$$\begin{aligned} f(G_2) &= g(G_2) && \text{since } h(G_2) = 0 \\ &> g(G_1) && \text{since } G_2 \text{ is suboptimal} \\ &\geq f(n) && \text{since } h \text{ is admissible} \end{aligned}$$

Since $f(G_2) > f(n)$, A* will never select G_2 for expansion

Optimality of A* (more useful)

Lemma: A* expands nodes in order of increasing f value*

Gradually adds "f-contours" of nodes (cf. breadth-first adds layers)
Contour i has all nodes with $f = f_i$, where $f_i < f_{i+1}$



Properties of A*

Complete??

Properties of A*

Complete?? Yes, unless there are infinitely many nodes with $f \leq f(G)$

Time??

Properties of A*

Complete?? Yes, unless there are infinitely many nodes with $f \leq f(G)$

Time?? Exponential in [relative error in h $\times$ length of soln.]

Space??

Properties of A*

Complete?? Yes, unless there are infinitely many nodes with $f \leq f(G)$

Time?? Exponential in [relative error in h $\times$ length of soln.]

Space?? Keeps all nodes in memory

Optimal??

Properties of A*

Complete?? Yes, unless there are infinitely many nodes with $f \leq f(G)$

Time?? Exponential in [relative error in h $\times$ length of soln.]

Space?? Keeps all nodes in memory

Optimal?? Yes—cannot expand f_{i+1} until f_i is finished

A* expands all nodes with $f(n) < C^*$
A* expands some nodes with $f(n) = C^*$
A* expands no nodes with $f(n) > C^*$

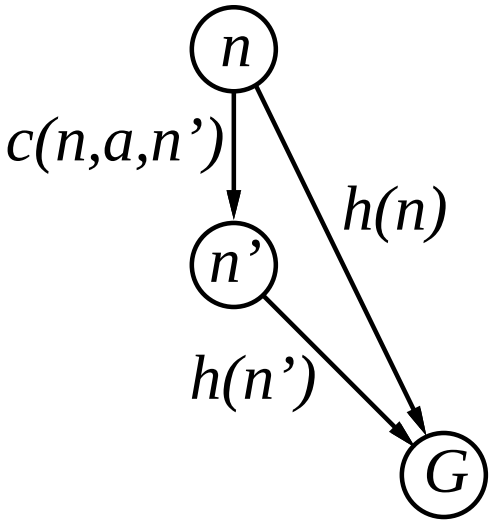
Proof of lemma: Consistency

A heuristic is consistent if

$$h(n) \leq c(n, a, n') + h(n')$$

If h is consistent, we have

$$\begin{aligned} f(n') &= g(n') + h(n') \\ &= g(n) + c(n, a, n') + h(n') \\ &\geq g(n) + h(n) \\ &= f(n) \end{aligned}$$

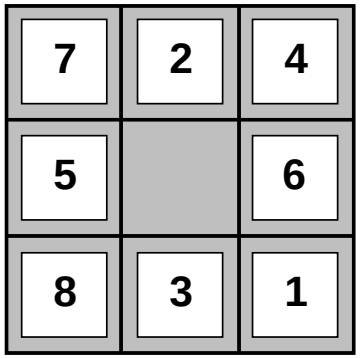


I.e., $f(n)$ is nondecreasing along any path.

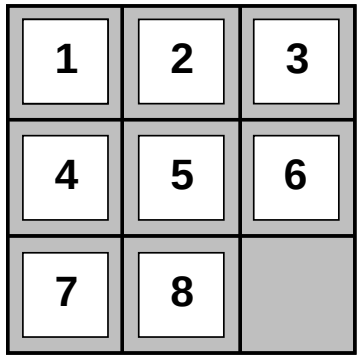
Admissible heuristics

E.g., for the 8-puzzle:

$h_1(n)$ = number of misplaced tiles
$h_2(n)$ = total Manhattan distance
(i.e., no. of squares from desired location of each tile)



Start State



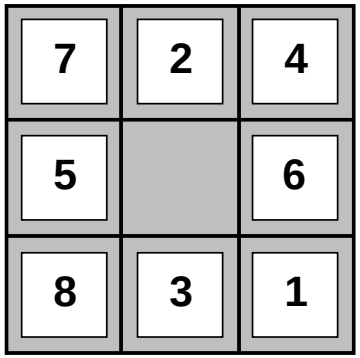
Goal State

$h_1(S) =$??
$h_2(S) =$??

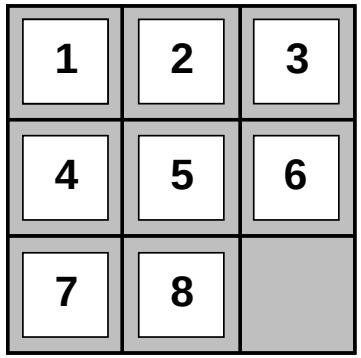
Admissible heuristics

E.g., for the 8-puzzle:

$h_1(n)$ = number of misplaced tiles
$h_2(n)$ = total Manhattan distance
(i.e., no. of squares from desired location of each tile)



Start State



Goal State

$h_1(S) =$?? 6
$h_2(S) =$?? 4+0+3+3+1+0+2+1 = 14

Dominance

If $h_2(n) \geq h_1(n)$ for all n (both admissible)
then h_2 dominates h_1 and is better for search

Typical search costs:

$d = 14$ IDS = 3,473,941 nodes
A$^*(h_1) = 539$ nodes
A$^*(h_2) = 113$ nodes
$d = 24$ IDS $\approx$ 54,000,000,000 nodes
A$^*(h_1) = 39{,}135$ nodes
A$^*(h_2) = 1{,}641$ nodes

Given any admissible heuristics h_a, h_b,

$$h(n) = \max(h_a(n), h_b(n))$$

is also admissible and dominates h_a, h_b

Relaxed problems

Admissible heuristics can be derived from the **exact**
solution cost of a **relaxed** version of the problem

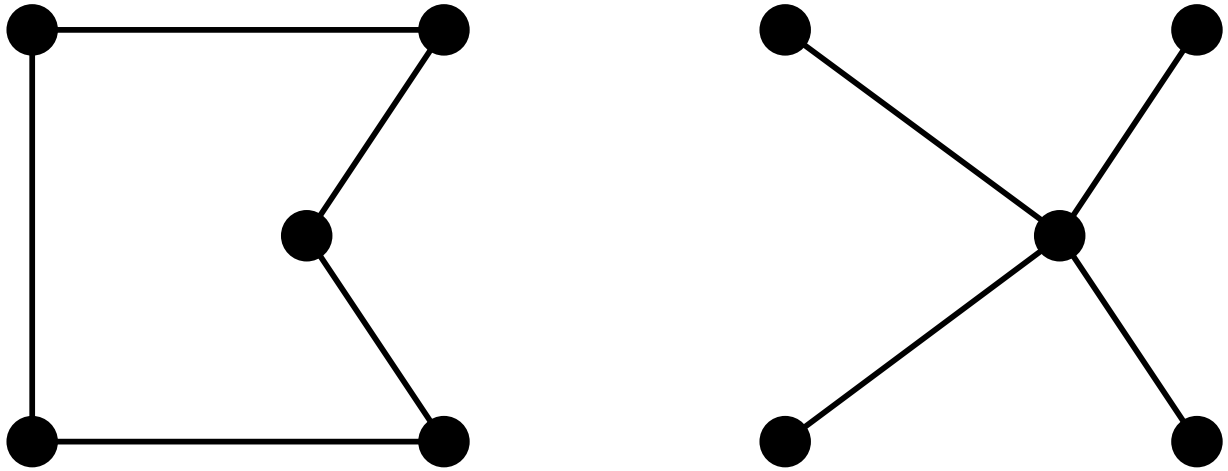
If the rules of the 8-puzzle are relaxed so that a tile can move **anywhere**,
then $h_1(n)$ gives the shortest solution

If the rules are relaxed so that a tile can move to **any adjacent square**,
then $h_2(n)$ gives the shortest solution

Key point: the optimal solution cost of a relaxed problem
is no greater than the optimal solution cost of the real problem

Relaxed problems contd.

Well-known example: travelling salesperson problem (TSP)
Find the shortest tour visiting all cities exactly once



Minimum spanning tree can be computed in $O(n^2)$
and is a lower bound on the shortest (open) tour

Summary

Heuristic functions estimate costs of shortest paths

Good heuristics can dramatically reduce search cost

Greedy best-first search expands lowest h
- incomplete and not always optimal

A* search expands lowest $g + h$
- complete and optimal
- also optimally efficient (up to tie-breaks, for forward search)

Admissible heuristics can be derived from exact solution of relaxed problems

Game playing

Chapter 6

Outline

- ♢ Games
- ♢ Perfect play
  - – minimax decisions
  - – α–β pruning
- ♢ Resource limits and approximate evaluation
- ♢ Games of chance
- ♢ Games of imperfect information

Games vs. search problems

"Unpredictable" opponent $\Rightarrow$ solution is a strategy
specifying a move for every possible opponent reply

Time limits $\Rightarrow$ unlikely to find goal, must approximate

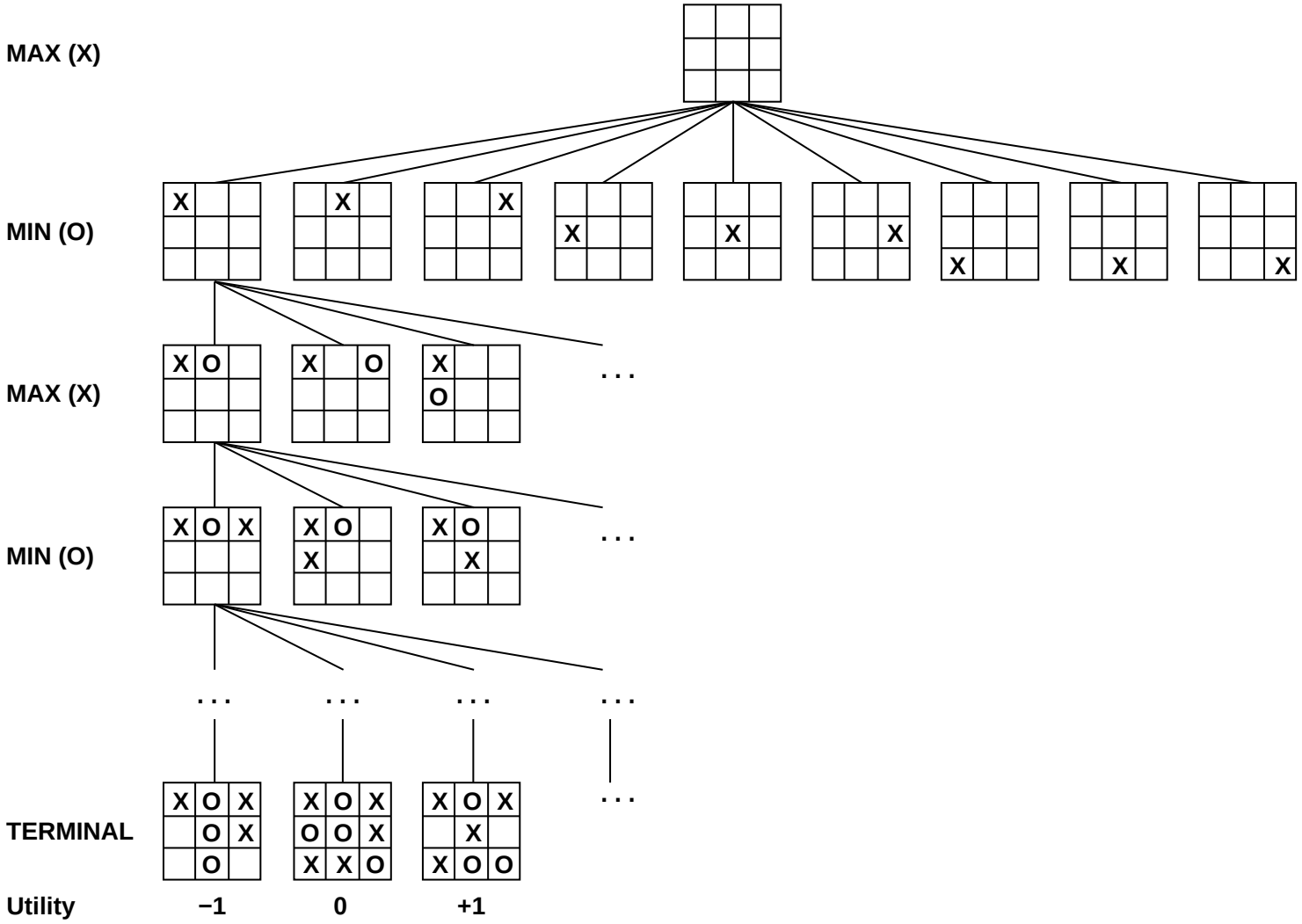
Plan of attack:

- Computer considers possible lines of play (Babbage, 1846)
- Algorithm for perfect play (Zermelo, 1912; Von Neumann, 1944)
- Finite horizon, approximate evaluation (Zuse, 1945; Wiener, 1948; Shannon, 1950)
- First chess program (Turing, 1951)
- Machine learning to improve evaluation accuracy (Samuel, 1952–57)
- Pruning to allow deeper search (McCarthy, 1956)

Types of games

	deterministic	chance
perfect information	chess, checkers, go, othello	backgammon monopoly
imperfect information	battleships, blind tictactoe	bridge, poker, scrabble nuclear war

Game tree (2-player, deterministic, turns)

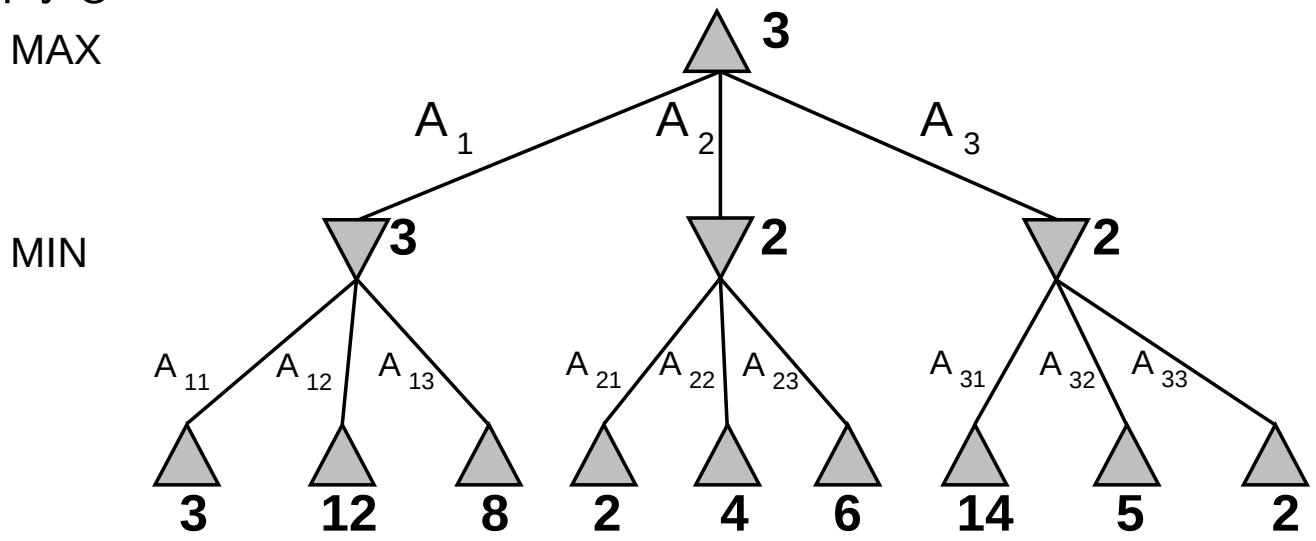


Minimax

Perfect play for deterministic, perfect-information games

Idea: choose move to position with highest minimax value
= best achievable payoff against best play

E.g., 2-ply game:



Minimax algorithm

function MINIMAX-DECISION(*state*) **returns** *an action*
  inputs: *state*, current state in game

  return the *a* in ACTIONS(*state*) maximizing MIN-VALUE(RESULT(*a*, *state*))

---

function MAX-VALUE(*state*) **returns** *a utility value*
  if TERMINAL-TEST(*state*) **then return** UTILITY(*state*)
  $v \leftarrow -\infty$
  for *a*, *s* in SUCCESSORS(*state*) **do** $v \leftarrow$ MAX(v, MIN-VALUE(s))
  return *v*

---

function MIN-VALUE(*state*) **returns** *a utility value*
  if TERMINAL-TEST(*state*) **then return** UTILITY(*state*)
  $v \leftarrow \infty$
  for *a*, *s* in SUCCESSORS(*state*) **do** $v \leftarrow$ MIN(v, MAX-VALUE(s))
  return *v*

Properties of minimax

Complete??

Properties of minimax

Complete?? Only if tree is finite (chess has specific rules for this).
NB a finite strategy can exist even in an infinite tree!

Optimal??

Properties of minimax

Complete?? Yes, if tree is finite (chess has specific rules for this)

Optimal?? Yes, against an optimal opponent. Otherwise??

Time complexity??

Properties of minimax

Complete?? Yes, if tree is finite (chess has specific rules for this)

Optimal?? Yes, against an optimal opponent. Otherwise??

Time complexity?? $O(b^m)$

Space complexity??

Properties of minimax

Complete?? Yes, if tree is finite (chess has specific rules for this)

Optimal?? Yes, against an optimal opponent. Otherwise??

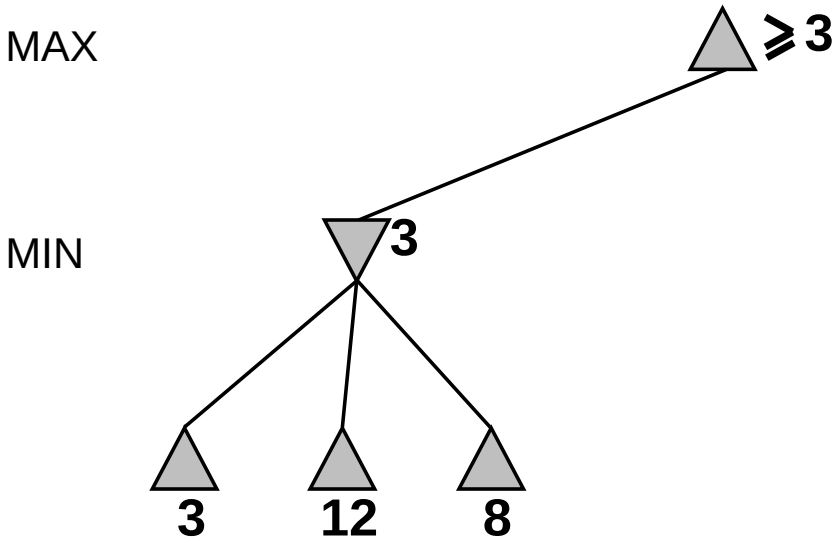
Time complexity?? $O(b^m)$

Space complexity?? $O(bm)$ (depth-first exploration)

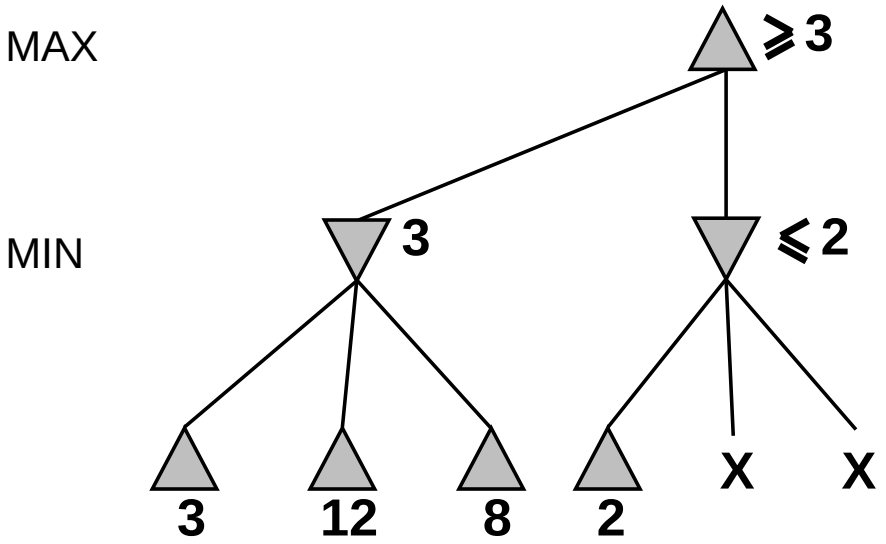
For chess, $b \approx 35$, $m \approx 100$ for "reasonable" games
$\Rightarrow$ exact solution completely infeasible

But do we need to explore every path?

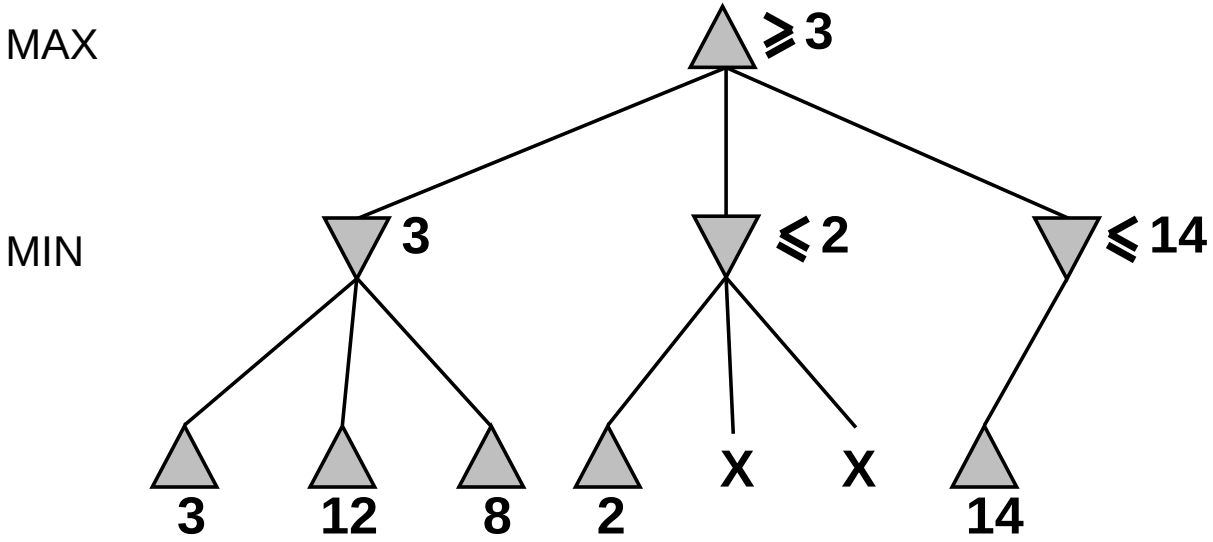
α–β pruning example



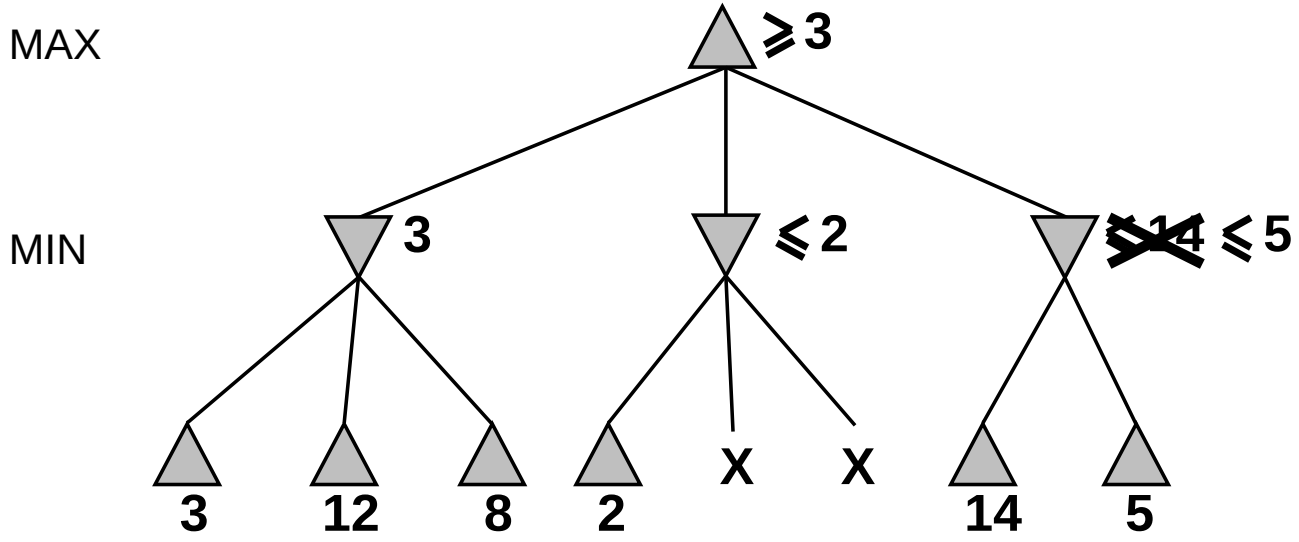
α–β pruning example



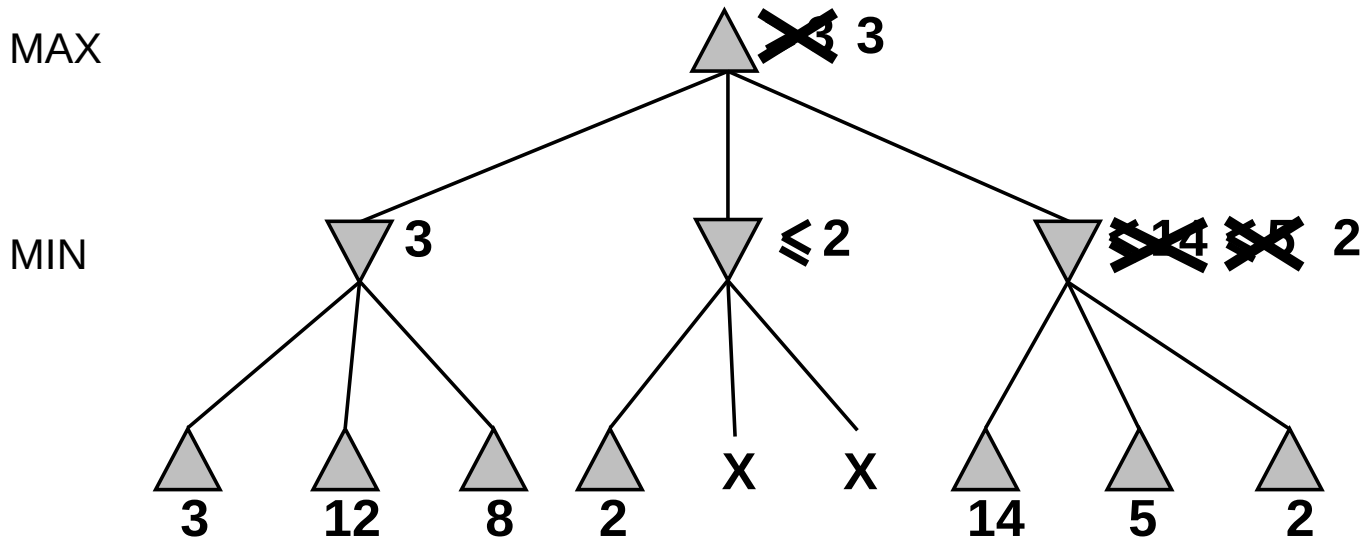
α–β pruning example



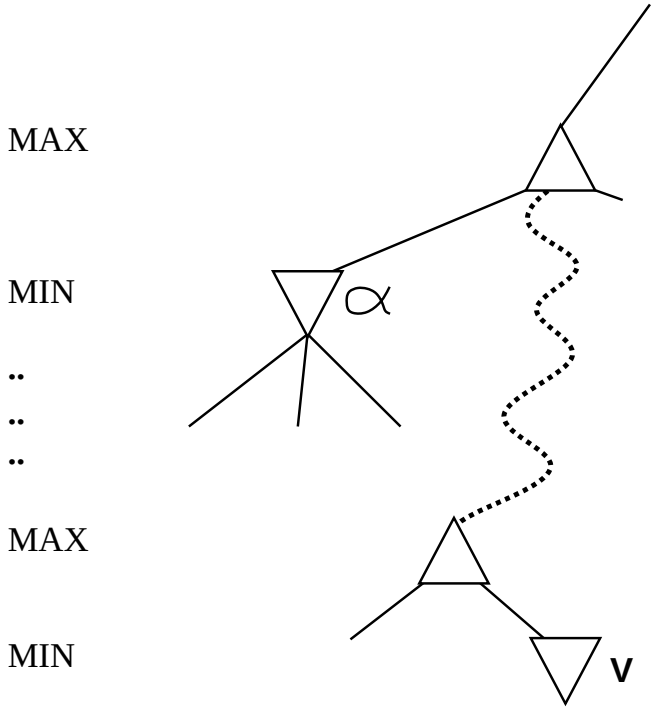
α–β pruning example



α–β pruning example



Why is it called α–β?



α is the best value (to MAX) found so far off the current path

If V is worse than α, MAX will avoid it $\Rightarrow$ prune that branch

Define β similarly for MIN

The α–β algorithm

function ALPHA-BETA-DECISION(*state*) **returns** an action
  return the a in ACTIONS(*state*) maximizing MIN-VALUE(RESULT(a, *state*))

---

function MAX-VALUE(*state*, α, β) **returns** *a utility value*
  inputs: *state*, current state in game
    α, the value of the best alternative for MAX along the path to *state*
    β, the value of the best alternative for MIN along the path to *state*

  if TERMINAL-TEST(*state*) **then return** UTILITY(*state*)
  $v \leftarrow -\infty$
  for a, s in SUCCESSORS(*state*) **do**
    $v \leftarrow$ MAX(v, MIN-VALUE(s, α, β))
    if $v \geq \beta$ **then return** v
    $\alpha \leftarrow$ MAX(α, v)
  return v

---

function MIN-VALUE(*state*, α, β) **returns** *a utility value*
  same as MAX-VALUE but with roles of α, β reversed

Properties of α–β

Pruning **does not** affect final result

Good move ordering improves effectiveness of pruning

With "perfect ordering," time complexity $= O(b^{m/2})$
$\Rightarrow$ **doubles** solvable depth

A simple example of the value of reasoning about which computations are relevant (a form of metareasoning)

Unfortunately, 35^{50} is still impossible!

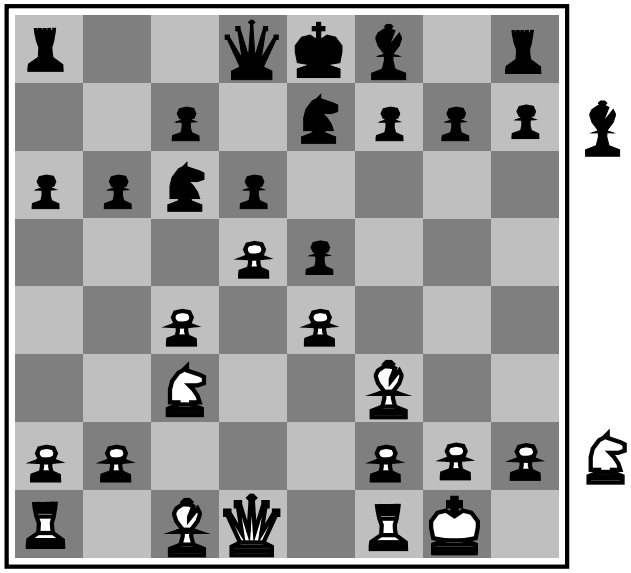
Resource limits

Standard approach:

- Use CUTOFF-TEST instead of TERMINAL-TEST
  e.g., depth limit (perhaps add quiescence search)
- Use EVAL instead of UTILITY
  i.e., evaluation function that estimates desirability of position

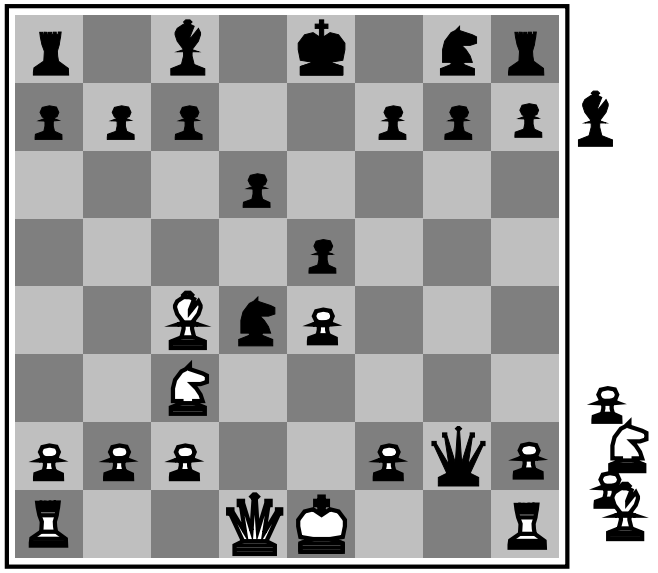
Suppose we have 100 seconds, explore 10^4 nodes/second
$\Rightarrow 10^6$ nodes per move $\approx 35^{8/2}$
$\Rightarrow \alpha$–β reaches depth 8 $\Rightarrow$ pretty good chess program

Evaluation functions



Black to move

White slightly better



White to move

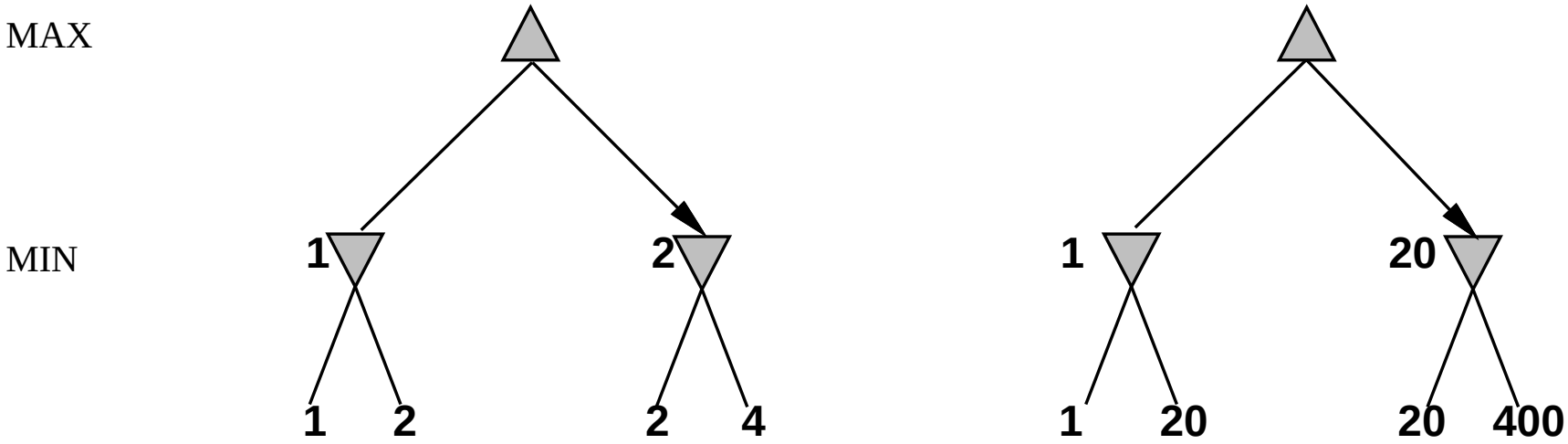
Black winning

For chess, typically linear weighted sum of features

$$Eval(s) = w_1 f_1(s) + w_2 f_2(s) + \ldots + w_n f_n(s)$$

e.g., $w_1 = 9$ with
$f_1(s) =$ (number of white queens) – (number of black queens), etc.

Digression: Exact values don't matter



Behaviour is preserved under any **monotonic** transformation of EVAL

Only the order matters:

payoff in deterministic games acts as an ordinal utility function

Deterministic games in practice

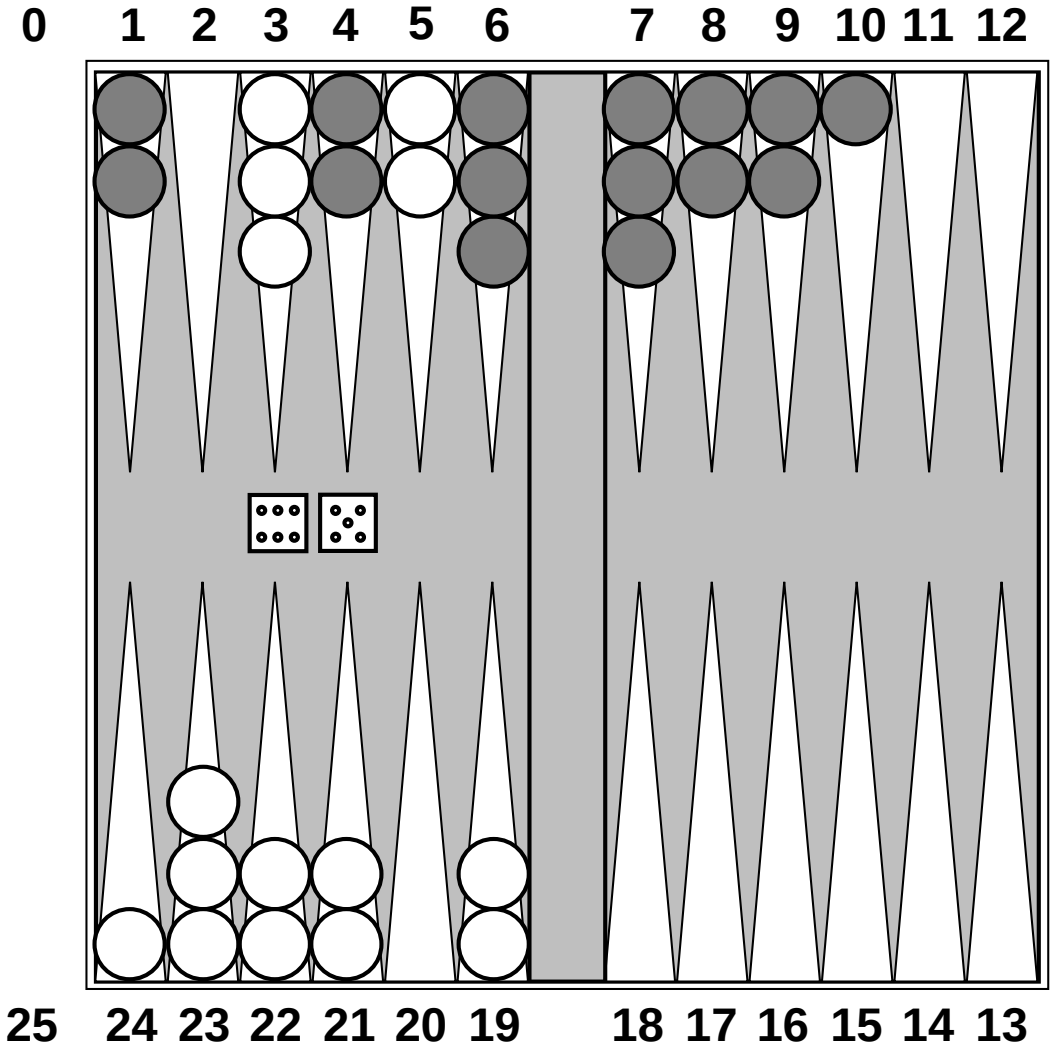
Checkers: Chinook ended 40-year-reign of human world champion Marion Tinsley in 1994. Used an endgame database defining perfect play for all positions involving 8 or fewer pieces on the board, a total of 443,748,401,247 positions.

Chess: Deep Blue defeated human world champion Gary Kasparov in a six-game match in 1997. Deep Blue searches 200 million positions per second, uses very sophisticated evaluation, and undisclosed methods for extending some lines of search up to 40 ply.

Othello: human champions refuse to compete against computers, who are too good.

Go: human champions refuse to compete against computers, who are too bad. In go, $b > 300$, so most programs use pattern knowledge bases to suggest plausible moves.

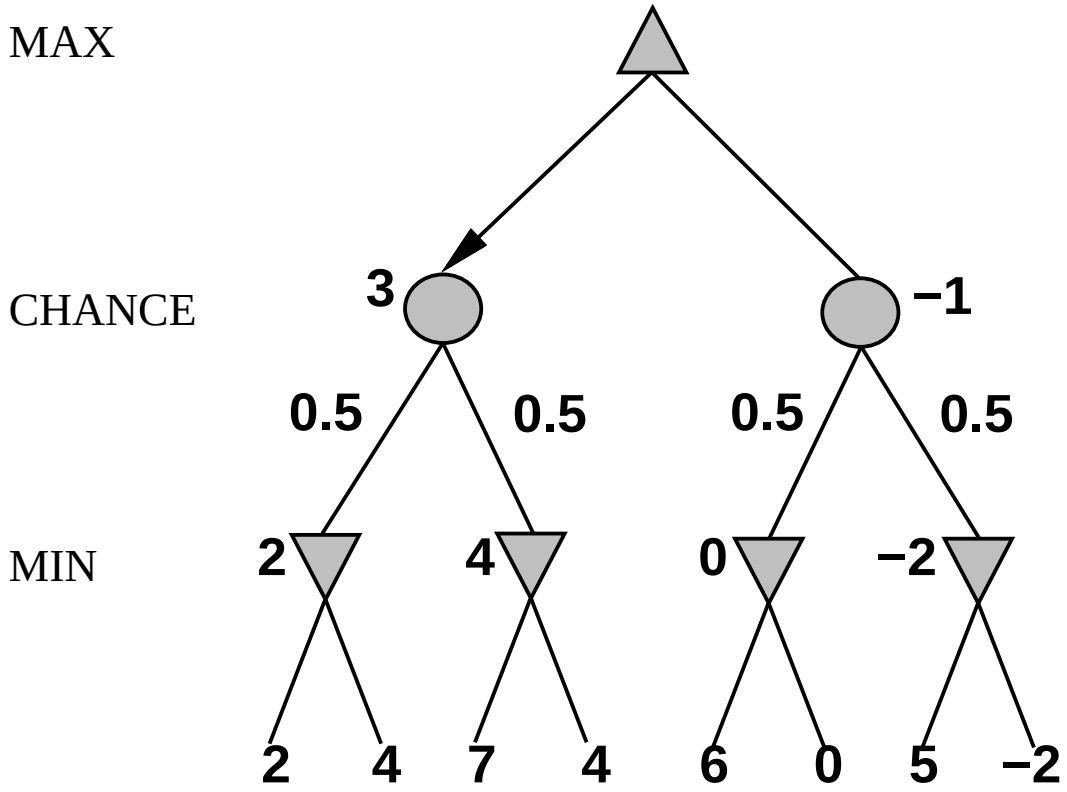
Nondeterministic games: backgammon



Nondeterministic games in general

In nondeterministic games, chance introduced by dice, card-shuffling

Simplified example with coin-flipping:



Algorithm for nondeterministic games

EXPECTIMINIMAX gives perfect play

Just like MINIMAX, except we must also handle chance nodes:

```
...
if state is a MAX node then
        return the highest EXPECTIMINIMAX-VALUE of SUCCESSORS(state)
if state is a MIN node then
        return the lowest EXPECTIMINIMAX-VALUE of SUCCESSORS(state)
if state is a chance node then
        return average of EXPECTIMINIMAX-VALUE of SUCCESSORS(state)
...
```

Nondeterministic games in practice

Dice rolls increase b: 21 possible rolls with 2 dice
Backgammon $\approx$ 20 legal moves (can be 6,000 with 1-1 roll)

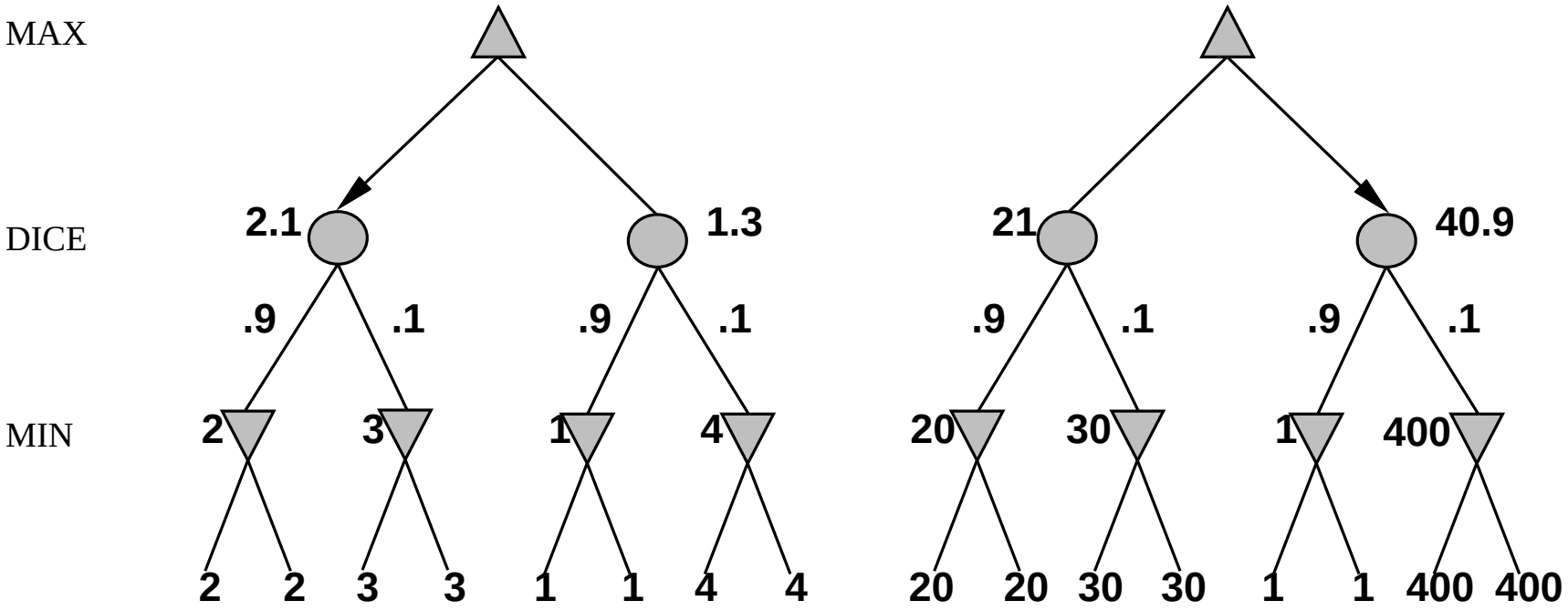
$$\text{depth } 4 = 20 \times (21 \times 20)^3 \approx 1.2 \times 10^9$$

As depth increases, probability of reaching a given node shrinks
$\Rightarrow$ value of lookahead is diminished

α–β pruning is much less effective

TDGammon uses depth-2 search + very good Eval
$\approx$ world-champion level

Digression: Exact values DO matter



Behaviour is preserved only by positive linear transformation of Eval

Hence Eval should be proportional to the expected payoff

Games of imperfect information

E.g., card games, where opponent's initial cards are unknown

Typically we can calculate a probability for each possible deal

Seems just like having one big dice roll at the beginning of the game*

Idea: compute the minimax value of each action in each deal,
then choose the action with highest expected value over all deals*

Special case: if an action is optimal for all deals, it's optimal.*

GIB, current best bridge program, approximates this idea by
1) generating 100 deals consistent with bidding information
2) picking the action that wins most tricks on average

Local search algorithms

Chapter 4, Sections 3–4

Outline

- ♢ Hill-climbing
- ♢ Simulated annealing
- ♢ Genetic algorithms (briefly)
- ♢ Local search in continuous spaces (very briefly)

Iterative improvement algorithms

In many optimization problems, **path** is irrelevant;
the goal state itself is the solution

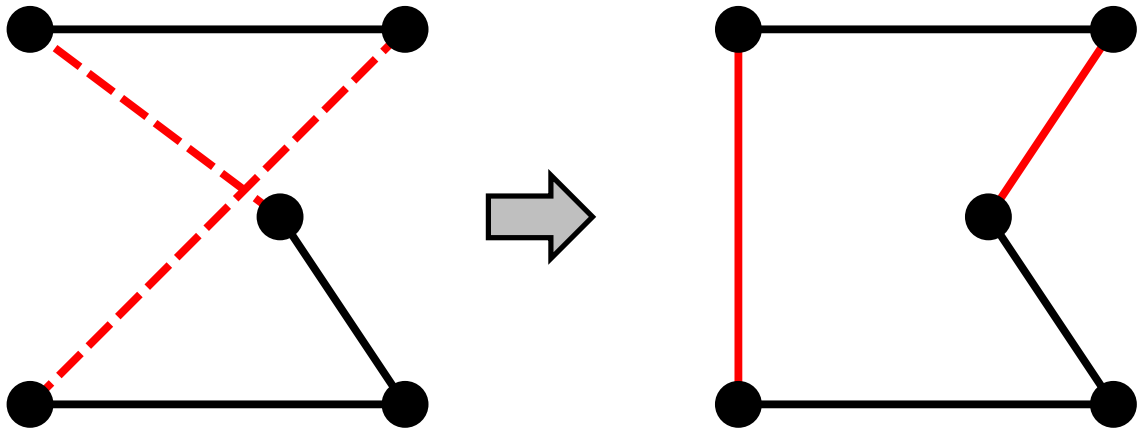
Then state space = set of "complete" configurations;
find **optimal** configuration, e.g., TSP
or, find configuration satisfying constraints, e.g., timetable

In such cases, can use iterative improvement algorithms;
keep a single "current" state, try to improve it

Constant space, suitable for online as well as offline search

Example: Travelling Salesperson Problem

Start with any complete tour, perform pairwise exchanges

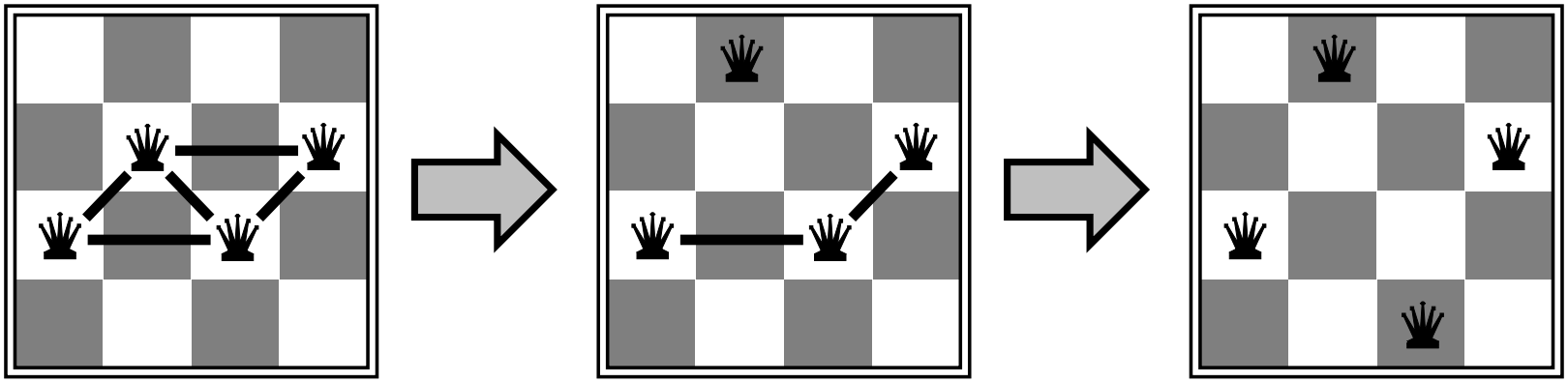


Variants of this approach get within 1% of optimal very quickly with thousands of cities

Example: n-queens

Put n queens on an $n \times n$ board with no two queens on the same row, column, or diagonal

Move a queen to reduce number of conflicts



Almost always solves n-queens problems almost instantaneously for very large n, e.g., $n = 1million$

Hill-climbing (or gradient ascent/descent)

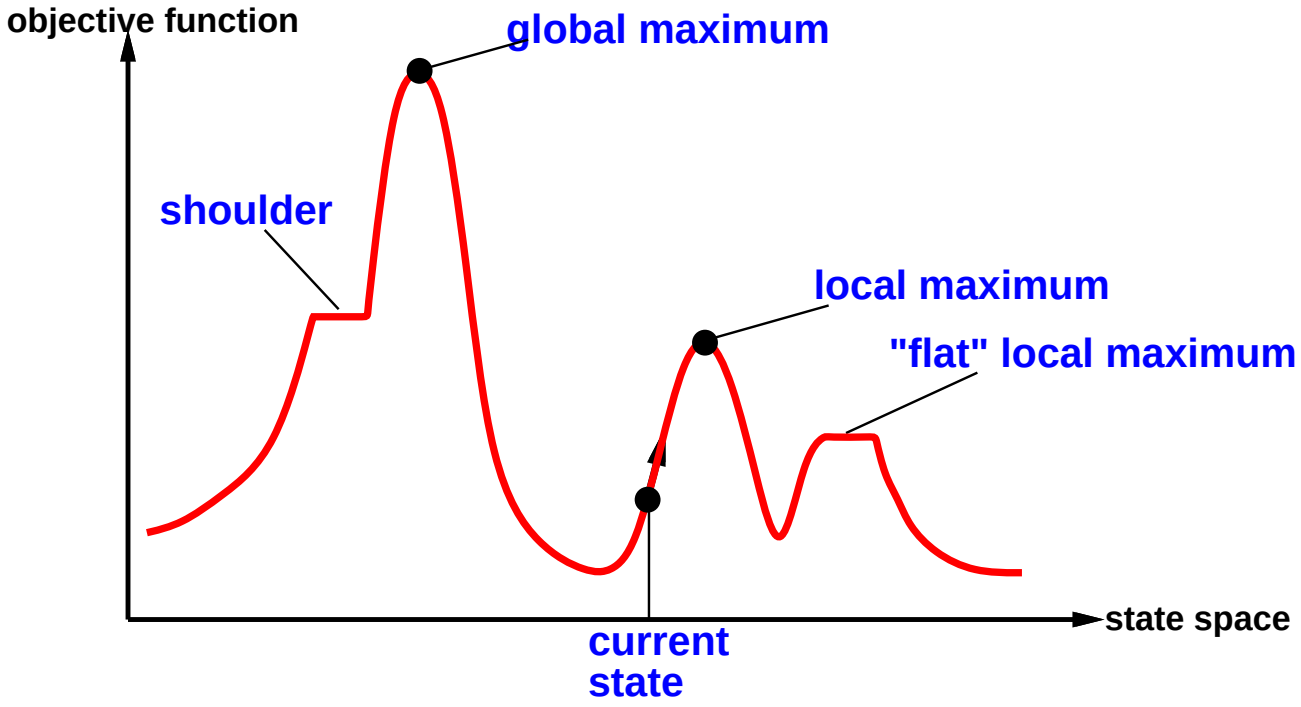
"Like climbing Everest in thick fog with amnesia"

```
function HILL-CLIMBING( problem) returns a state that is a local maximum
    inputs: problem, a problem
    local variables: current, a node
                     neighbor, a node

    current ← MAKE-NODE(INITIAL-STATE[problem])
    loop do
        neighbor ← a highest-valued successor of current
        if VALUE[neighbor] ≤ VALUE[current] then return STATE[current]
        current ← neighbor
    end
```

Hill-climbing contd.

Useful to consider state space landscape



Random-restart hill climbing overcomes local maxima—trivially complete

Random sideways moves ☺ escape from shoulders ☹ loop on flat maxima

Simulated annealing

Idea: escape local maxima by allowing some "bad" moves
but gradually decrease their size and frequency

function SIMULATED-ANNEALING(*problem, schedule*) **returns** a solution state
  inputs: *problem*, a problem
    schedule, a mapping from time to "temperature"
  local variables: *current*, a node
    next, a node
    T, a "temperature" controlling prob. of downward steps

  current $\leftarrow$ MAKE-NODE(INITIAL-STATE[*problem*])
  for $t \leftarrow 1$ **to** ∞ **do**
    $T \leftarrow$ *schedule*[t]
    if $T = 0$ **then return** *current*
    next $\leftarrow$ a randomly selected successor of *current*
    $\Delta E \leftarrow$ VALUE[*next*] – VALUE[*current*]
    if $\Delta E > 0$ **then** *current* $\leftarrow$ *next*
    else *current* $\leftarrow$ *next* only with probability $e^{\Delta\ E/T}$

Local beam search

Idea: keep k states instead of 1; choose top k of all their successors

Not the same as k searches run in parallel!
Searches that find good states recruit other searches to join them

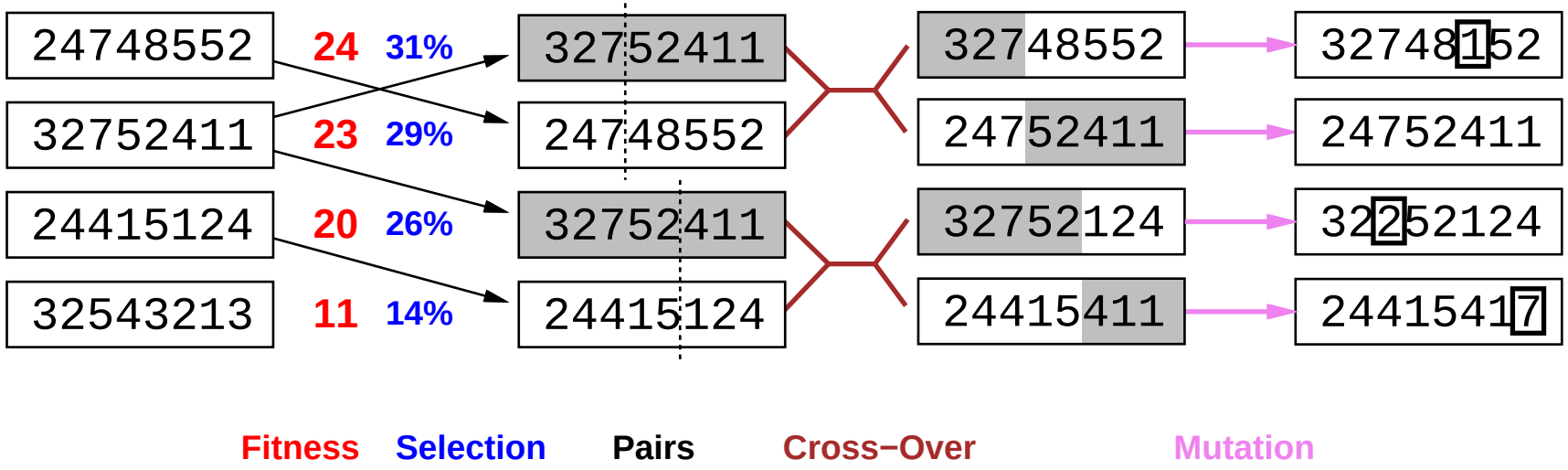
Problem: quite often, all k states end up on same local hill

Idea: choose k successors randomly, biased towards good ones

Observe the close analogy to natural selection!

Genetic algorithms

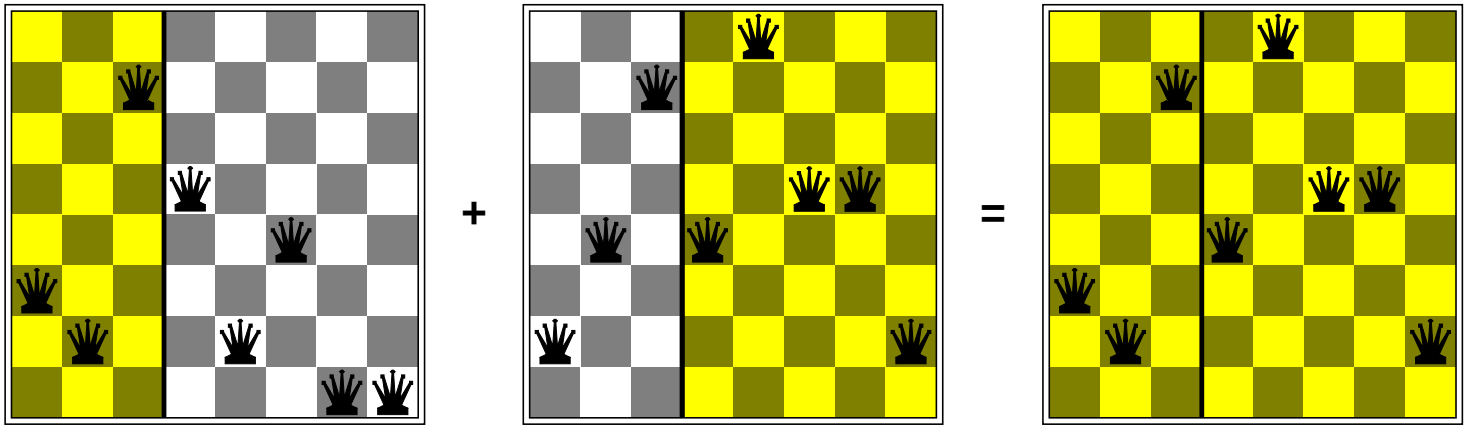
= stochastic local beam search + generate successors from **pairs** of states



Genetic algorithms contd.

GAs require states encoded as strings (GPs use programs)

Crossover helps **iff substrings are meaningful components**



GAs $\neq$ evolution: e.g., real genes encode replication machinery!

Constraint Satisfaction Problems

Chapter 5

Outline

- ♢ CSP examples
- ♢ Backtracking search for CSPs
- ♢ Problem structure and problem decomposition
- ♢ Local search for CSPs

Constraint satisfaction problems (CSPs)

Standard search problem:

state is a "black box"—any old data structure

that supports goal test, eval, successor

CSP:

state is defined by variables X_i with values from domain D_i

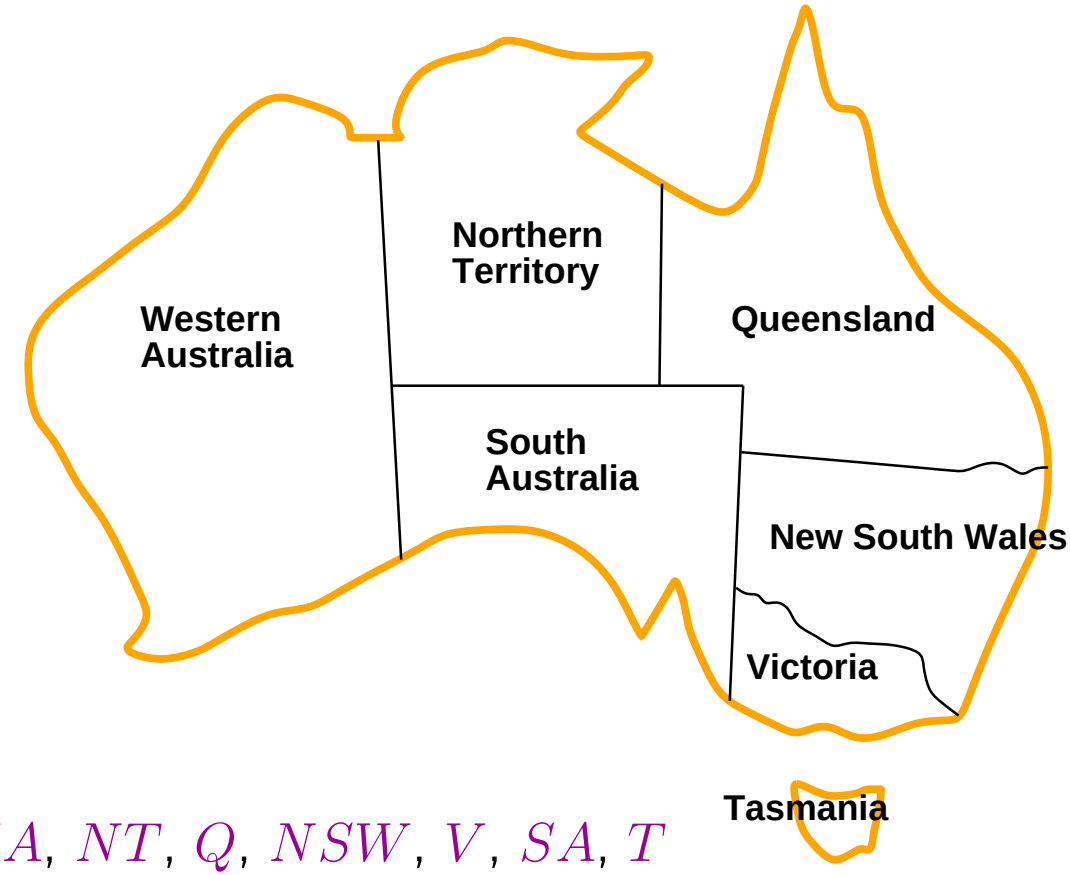
goal test is a set of constraints specifying

allowable combinations of values for subsets of variables

Simple example of a **formal representation language**

Allows useful **general-purpose** algorithms with more power than standard search algorithms

Example: Map-Coloring



Variables WA, NT, Q, NSW, V, SA, T

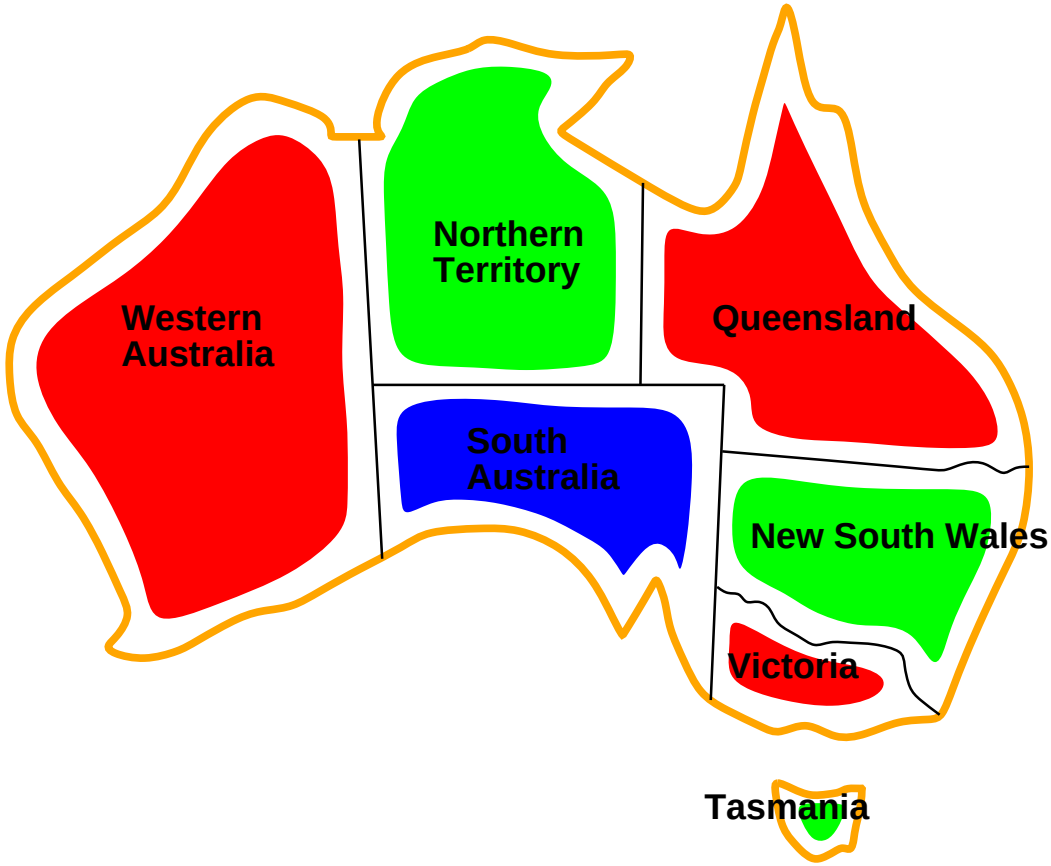
Domains $D_i = \{red, green, blue\}$

Constraints: adjacent regions must have different colors

e.g., $WA \neq NT$ (if the language allows this), or

$(WA, NT) \in \{(red, green), (red, blue), (green, red), (green, blue), \ldots\}$

Example: Map-Coloring contd.

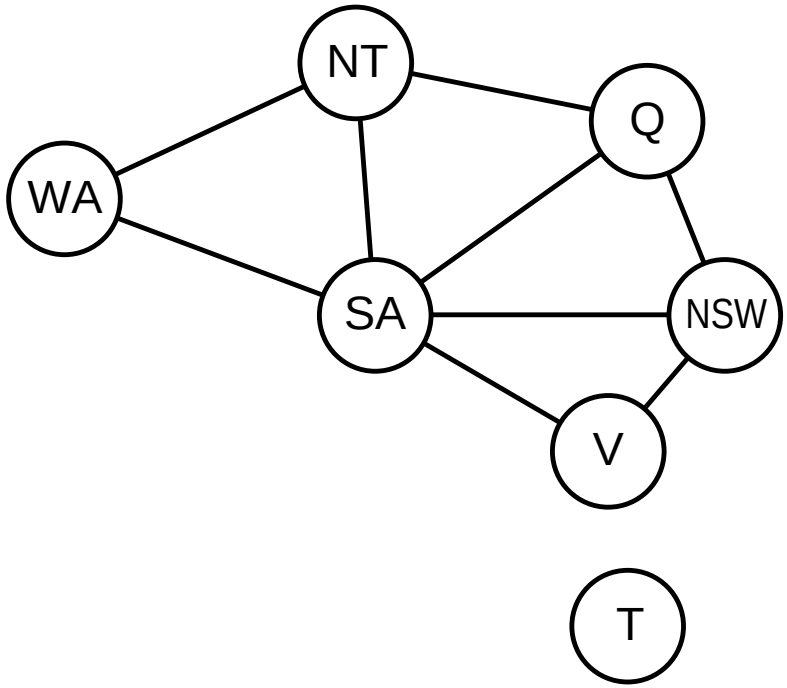


Solutions are assignments satisfying all constraints, e.g.,
$\{WA = red, NT = green, Q = red, NSW = green, V = red, SA = blue, T = green\}$

Constraint graph

Binary CSP: each constraint relates at most two variables

Constraint graph: nodes are variables, arcs show constraints



General-purpose CSP algorithms use the graph structure
to speed up search. E.g., Tasmania is an independent subproblem!

Varieties of CSPs

Discrete variables

finite domains; size $d \Rightarrow O(d^n)$ complete assignments

- ♢ e.g., Boolean CSPs, incl. Boolean satisfiability (NP-complete)

infinite domains (integers, strings, etc.)

- ♢ e.g., job scheduling, variables are start/end days for each job
- ♢ need a constraint language, e.g., $StartJob_1 + 5 \leq StartJob_3$
- ♢ linear constraints solvable, nonlinear undecidable

Continuous variables

- ♢ e.g., start/end times for Hubble Telescope observations
- ♢ linear constraints solvable in poly time by LP methods

Varieties of constraints

Unary constraints involve a single variable,
e.g., $SA \neq green$

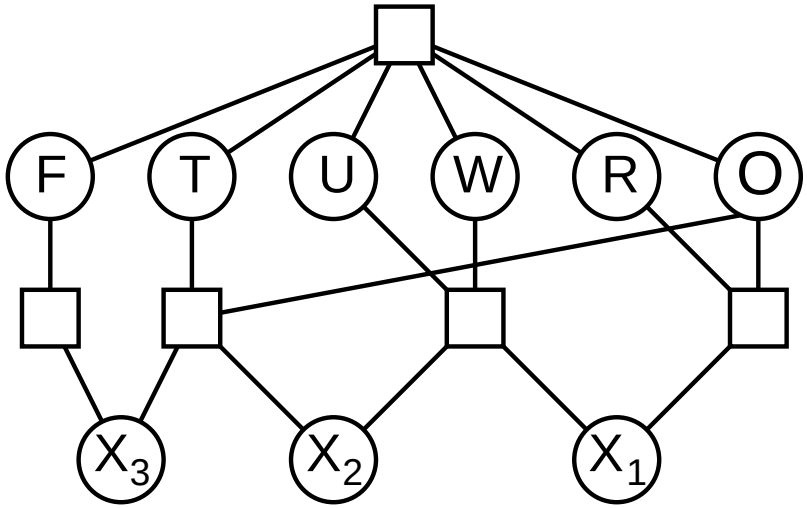
Binary constraints involve pairs of variables,
e.g., $SA \neq WA$

Higher-order constraints involve 3 or more variables,
e.g., cryptarithmetic column constraints

Preferences (soft constraints), e.g., red is better than $green$
often representable by a cost for each variable assignment
$\longrightarrow$ constrained optimization problems

Example: Cryptarithmetic

$$\begin{array}{cccc} & T & W & O \\ + & T & W & O \\ \hline F & O & U & R \end{array}$$



Variables: $F\ T\ U\ W\ R\ O\ X_1\ X_2\ X_3$

Domains: $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$

Constraints

alldiff(F, T, U, W, R, O)

$O + O = R + 10 \cdot X_1$, etc.

Real-world CSPs

Assignment problems
    e.g., who teaches what class

Timetabling problems
    e.g., which class is offered when and where?

Hardware configuration

Spreadsheets

Transportation scheduling

Factory scheduling

Floorplanning

Notice that many real-world problems involve real-valued variables

Standard search formulation (incremental)

Let's start with the straightforward, dumb approach, then fix it

States are defined by the values assigned so far

♢ Initial state: the empty assignment, $\{\}$

♢ Successor function: assign a value to an unassigned variable
that does not conflict with current assignment.
$\Rightarrow$ fail if no legal assignments (not fixable!)

♢ Goal test: the current assignment is complete

1) This is the same for all CSPs! 
2) Every solution appears at depth n with n variables
$\Rightarrow$ use depth-first search
3) Path is irrelevant, so can also use complete-state formulation
4) $b = (n - \ell)d$ at depth ℓ, hence $n!d^n$ leaves!!!! 

Backtracking search

Variable assignments are commutative, i.e.,

$[WA = red$ then $NT = green]$ same as $[NT = green$ then $WA = red]$

Only need to consider assignments to a single variable at each node

$\Rightarrow \quad b = d$ and there are d^n leaves

Depth-first search for CSPs with single-variable assignments
is called backtracking search

Backtracking search is the basic uninformed algorithm for CSPs

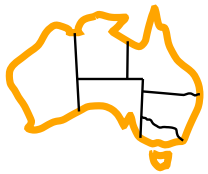
Can solve n-queens for $n \approx 25$

Backtracking search

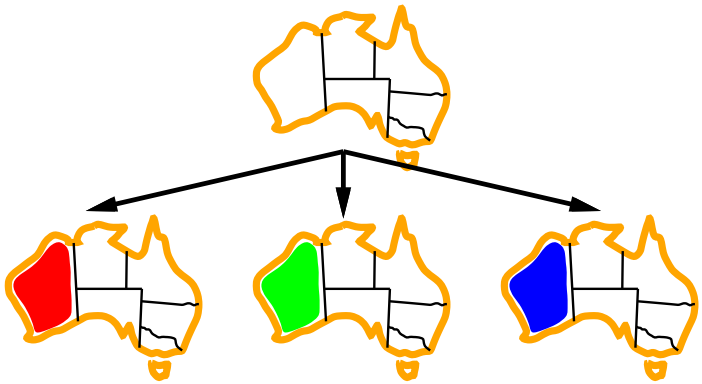
```
function BACKTRACKING-SEARCH(csp) returns solution/failure
    return RECURSIVE-BACKTRACKING({ }, csp)

function RECURSIVE-BACKTRACKING(assignment, csp) returns soln/failure
    if assignment is complete then return assignment
    var ← SELECT-UNASSIGNED-VARIABLE(VARIABLES[csp], assignment, csp)
    for each value in ORDER-DOMAIN-VALUES(var, assignment, csp) do
        if value is consistent with assignment given CONSTRAINTS[csp] then
            add {var = value} to assignment
            result ← RECURSIVE-BACKTRACKING(assignment, csp)
            if result ≠ failure then return result
            remove {var = value} from assignment
    return failure
```

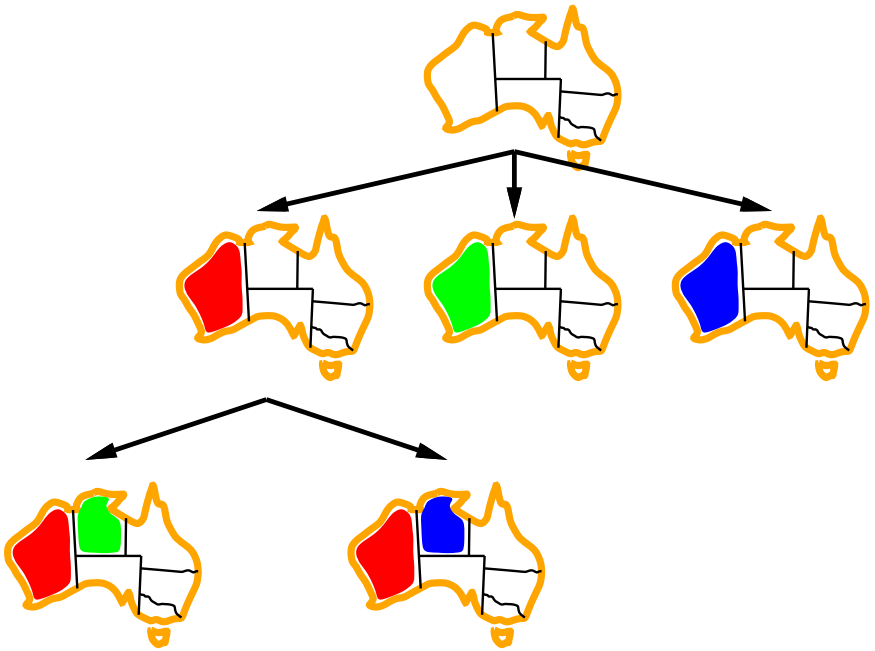
Backtracking example



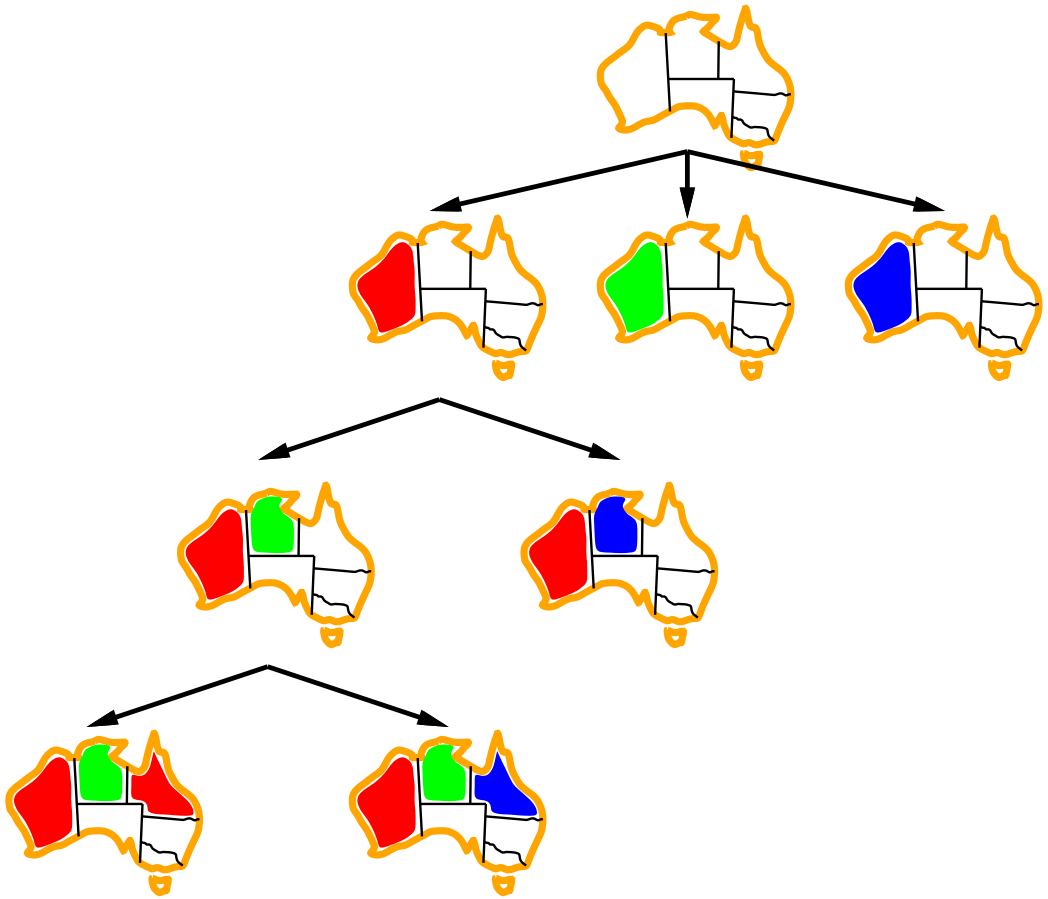
Backtracking example



Backtracking example



Backtracking example



Improving backtracking efficiency

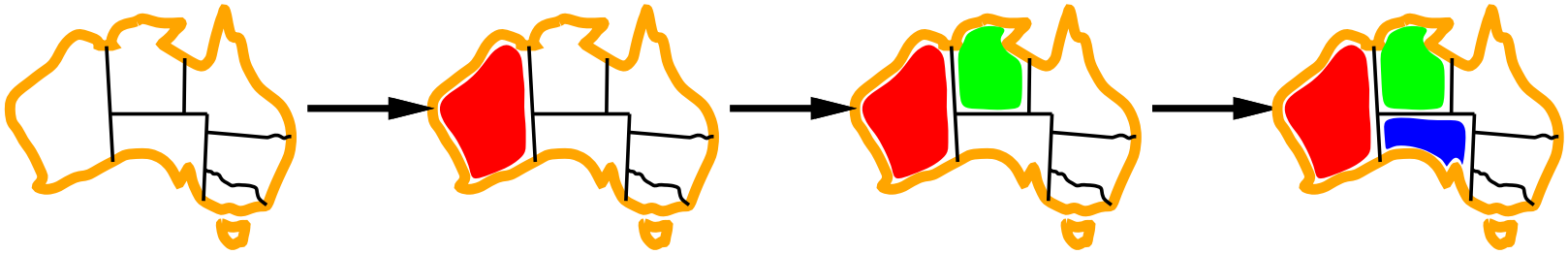
General-purpose methods can give huge gains in speed:

1. Which variable should be assigned next?
2. In what order should its values be tried?
3. Can we detect inevitable failure early?
4. Can we take advantage of problem structure?

Minimum remaining values

Minimum remaining values (MRV):

choose the variable with the fewest legal values

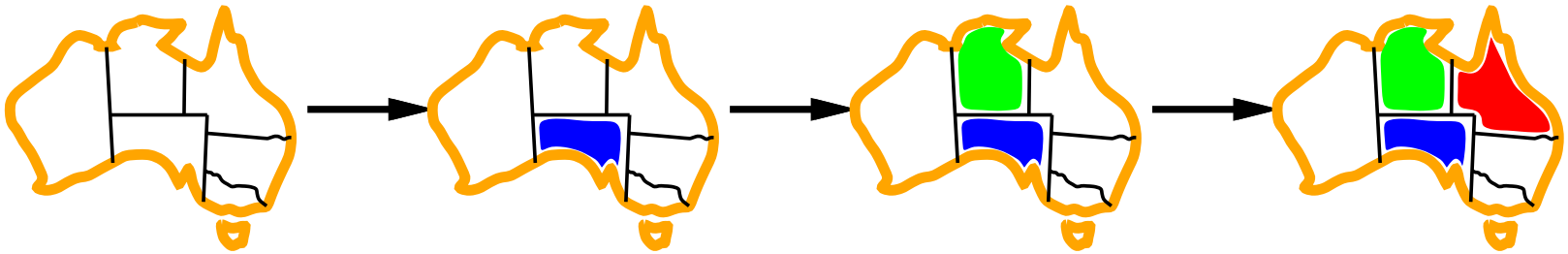


Degree heuristic

Tie-breaker among MRV variables

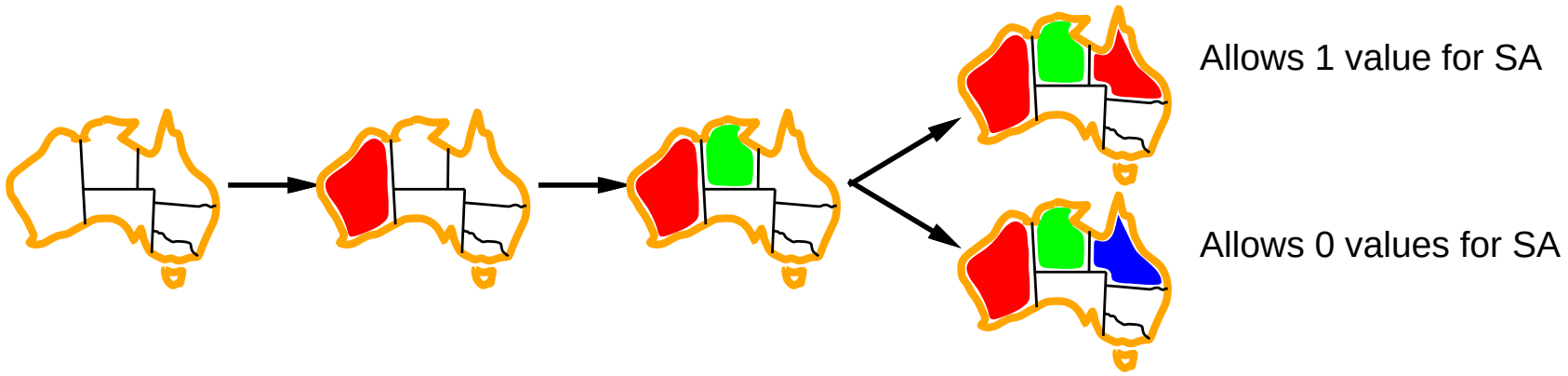
Degree heuristic:

choose the variable with the most constraints on remaining variables



Least constraining value

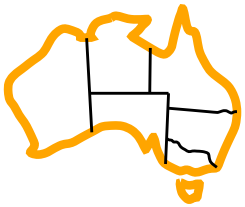
Given a variable, choose the least constraining value:
the one that rules out the fewest values in the remaining variables



Combining these heuristics makes 1000 queens feasible

Forward checking

Idea: Keep track of remaining legal values for unassigned variables
Terminate search when any variable has no legal values



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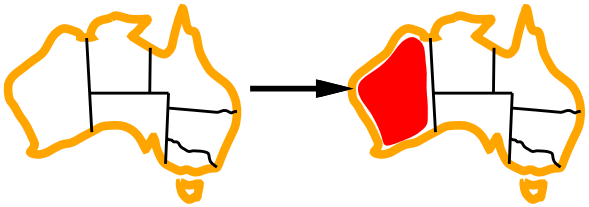

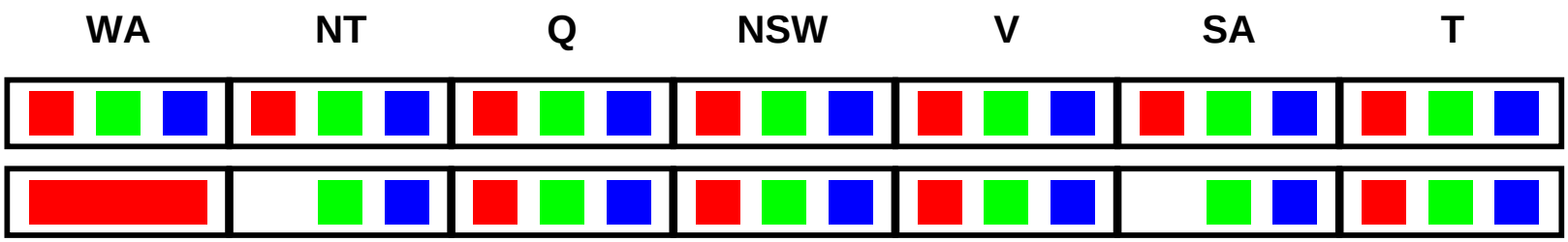

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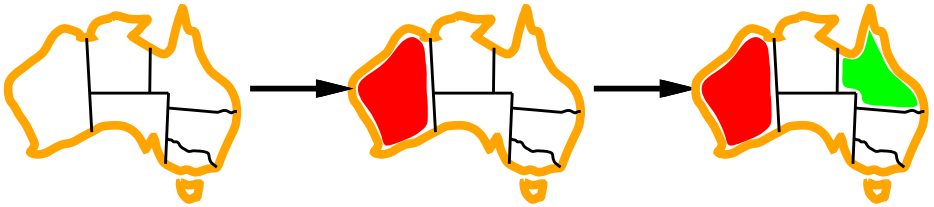

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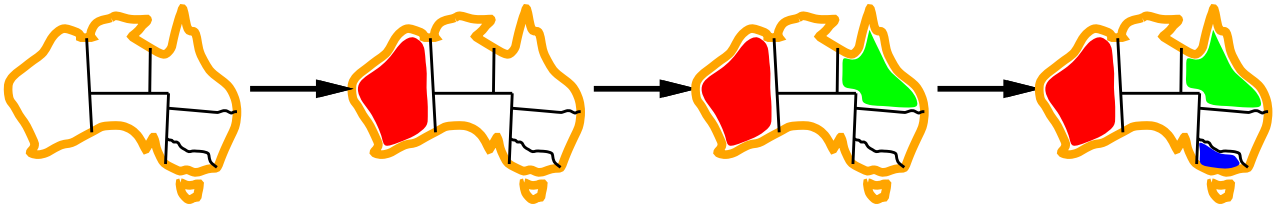
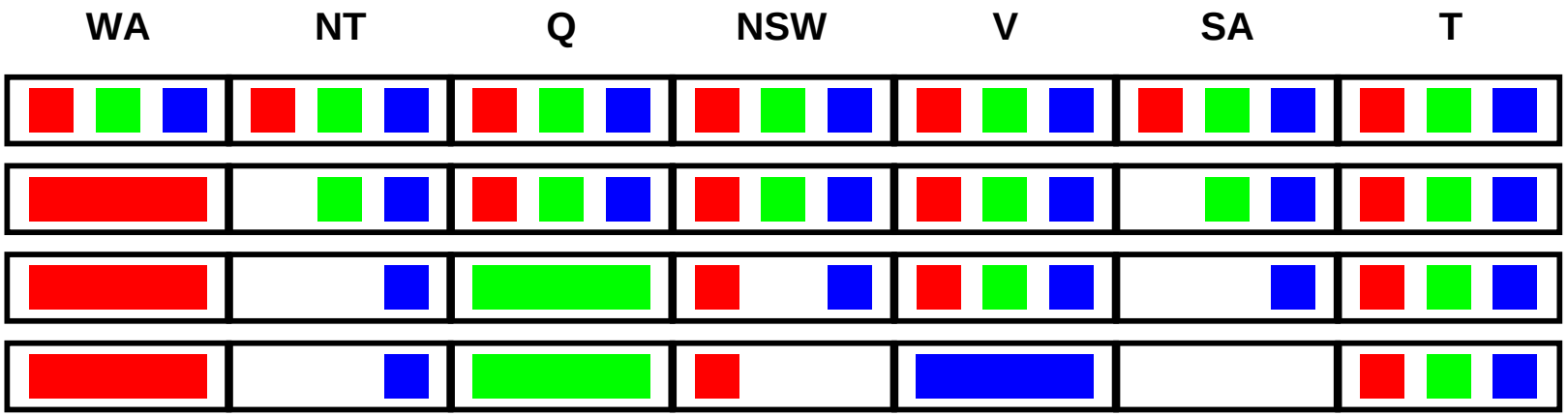
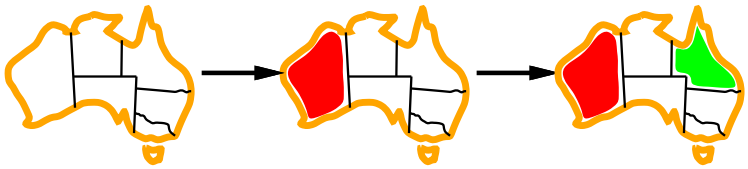




Constraint propagation

Forward checking propagates information from assigned to unassigned variables, but doesn't provide early detection for all failures:



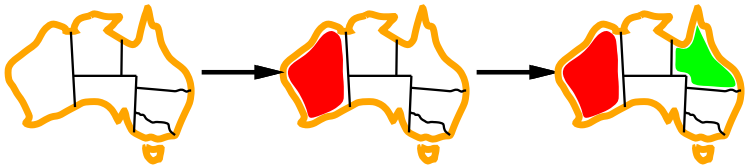
NT and SA cannot both be blue!

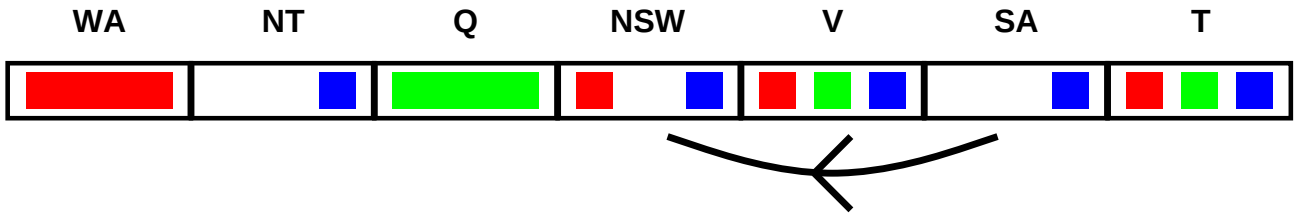
Constraint propagation repeatedly enforces constraints locally

Arc consistency

Simplest form of propagation makes each arc consistent

$X \rightarrow Y$ is consistent iff
for **every** value x of X there is **some** allowed y





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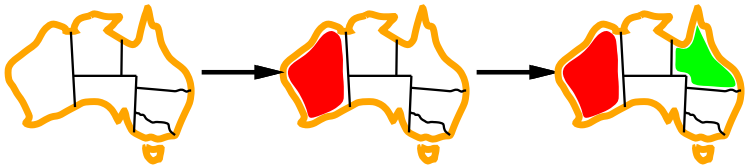

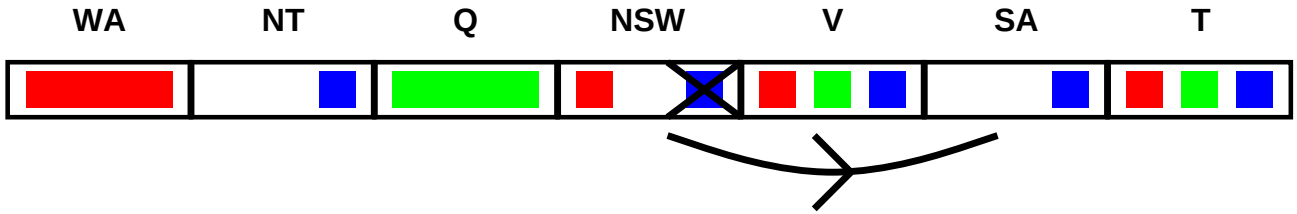

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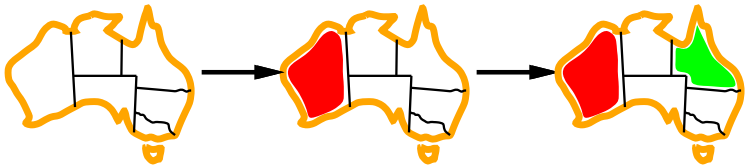

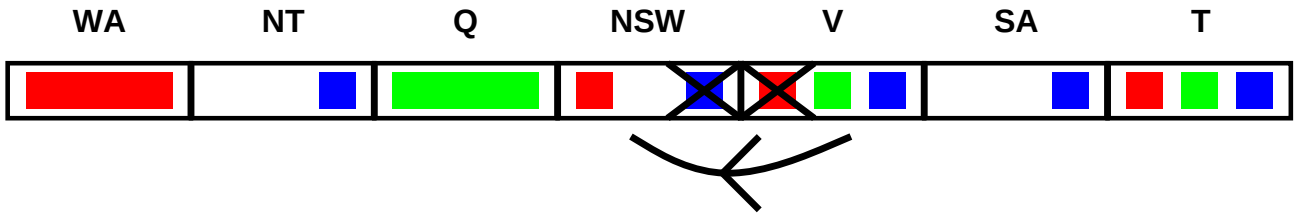

If X loses a value, neighbors of X need to be rechecked

Arc consistency

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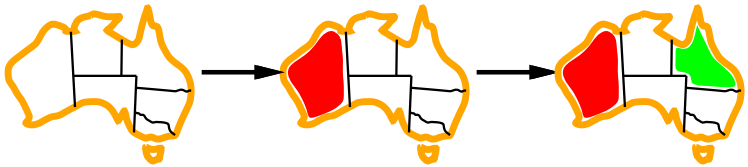
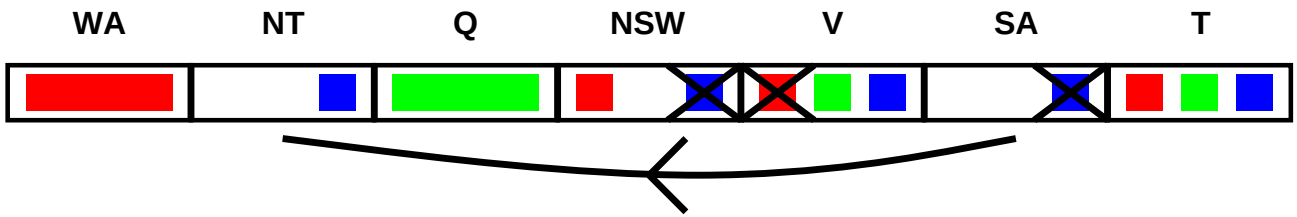




If X loses a value, neighbors of X need to be rechecked

Arc consistency detects failure earlier than forward checking

Can be run as a preprocessor or after each assignment

Arc consistency algorithm

function AC-3(*csp*) **returns** the CSP, possibly with reduced domains
  inputs: *csp*, a binary CSP with variables $\{X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n\}$
  local variables: *queue*, a queue of arcs, initially all the arcs in *csp*

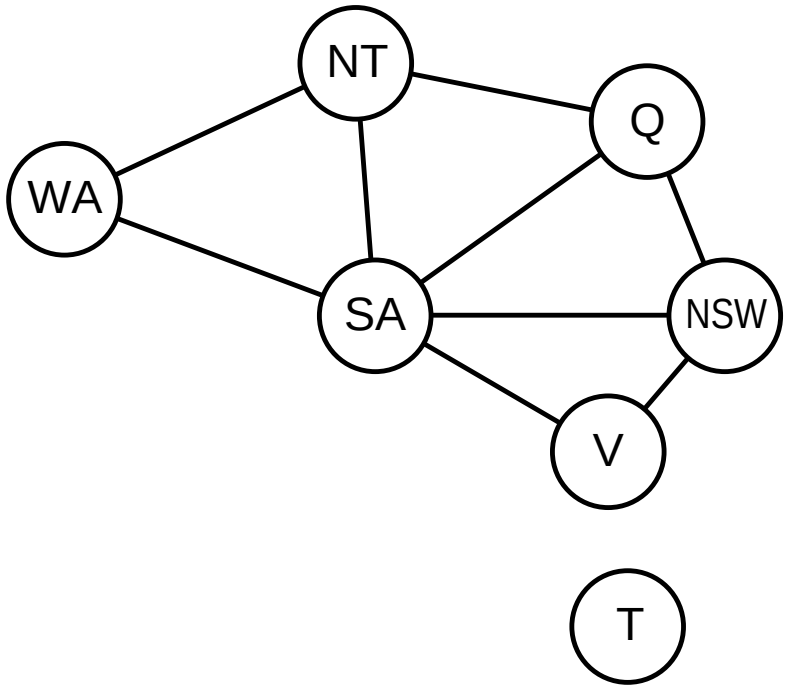
  while *queue* is not empty **do**
    $(X_i, X_j) \leftarrow$ REMOVE-FIRST(*queue*)
    if REMOVE-INCONSISTENT-VALUES(X_i, X_j) **then**
      for each X_k **in** NEIGHBORS[X_i] **do**
        add (X_k, X_i) to *queue*

---

function REMOVE-INCONSISTENT-VALUES(X_i, X_j) **returns** true iff succeeds
  removed $\leftarrow$ *false*
  for each x **in** DOMAIN[X_i] **do**
    if no value y in DOMAIN[X_j] allows (x,y) to satisfy the constraint $X_i \leftrightarrow X_j$
      then delete x from DOMAIN[X_i]; *removed* $\leftarrow$ *true*
  return *removed*

$O(n^2d^3)$, can be reduced to $O(n^2d^2)$ (but detecting **all** is NP-hard)

Problem structure



Tasmania and mainland are independent subproblems

Identifiable as connected components of constraint graph

Problem structure contd.

Suppose each subproblem has c variables out of n total

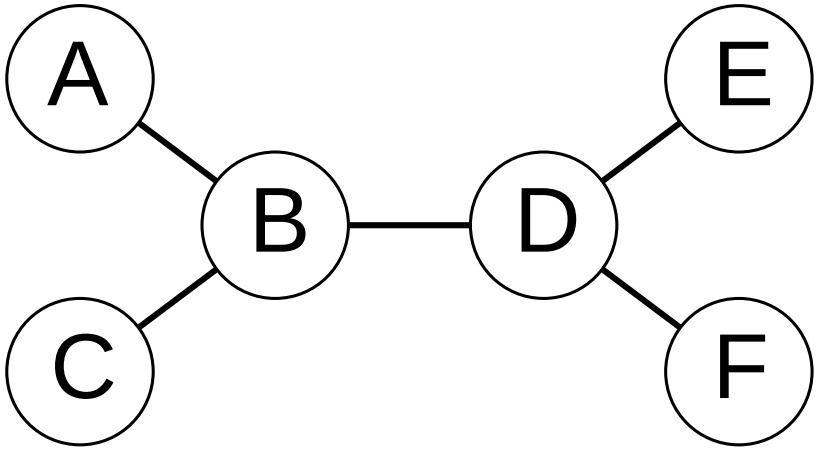
Worst-case solution cost is $n/c \cdot d^c$, **linear** in n

E.g., $n = 80$, $d = 2$, $c = 20$

2^{80} = 4 billion years at 10 million nodes/sec

$4 \cdot 2^{20}$ = 0.4 seconds at 10 million nodes/sec

Tree-structured CSPs



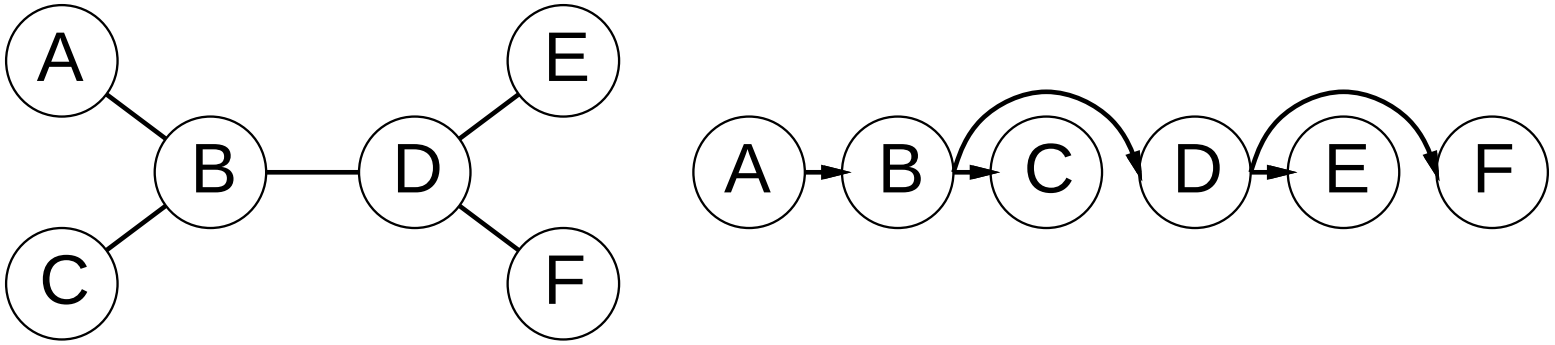
Theorem: if the constraint graph has no loops, the CSP can be solved in $O(n\,d^2)$ time

Compare to general CSPs, where worst-case time is $O(d^n)$

This property also applies to logical and probabilistic reasoning:
an important example of the relation between syntactic restrictions
and the complexity of reasoning.

Algorithm for tree-structured CSPs

1. Choose a variable as root, order variables from root to leaves such that every node's parent precedes it in the ordering

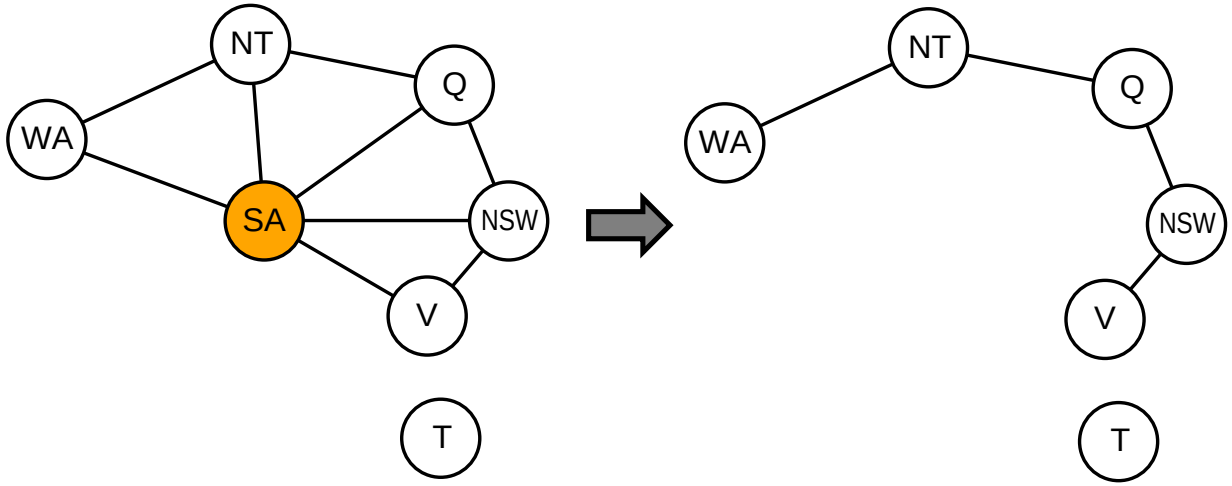


2. For j from n down to 2, apply $\textsc{RemoveInconsistent}(Parent(X_j), X_j)$

3. For j from 1 to n, assign X_j consistently with $Parent(X_j)$

Nearly tree-structured CSPs

Conditioning: instantiate a variable, prune its neighbors' domains



Cutset conditioning: instantiate (in all ways) a set of variables such that the remaining constraint graph is a tree

Cutset size c $\Rightarrow$ runtime $O(d^c \cdot (n-c)d^2)$, very fast for small c

Iterative algorithms for CSPs

Hill-climbing, simulated annealing typically work with "complete" states, i.e., all variables assigned

To apply to CSPs:

allow states with unsatisfied constraints

operators **reassign** variable values

Variable selection: randomly select any conflicted variable

Value selection by min-conflicts heuristic:

choose value that violates the fewest constraints

i.e., hillclimb with $h(n) =$ total number of violated constraints

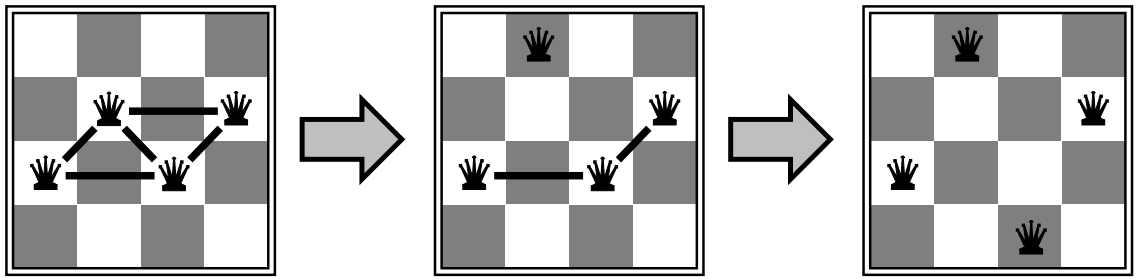
Example: 4-Queens

States: 4 queens in 4 columns ($4^4 = 256$ states)

Operators: move queen in column

Goal test: no attacks

Evaluation: $h(n)$ = number of attacks

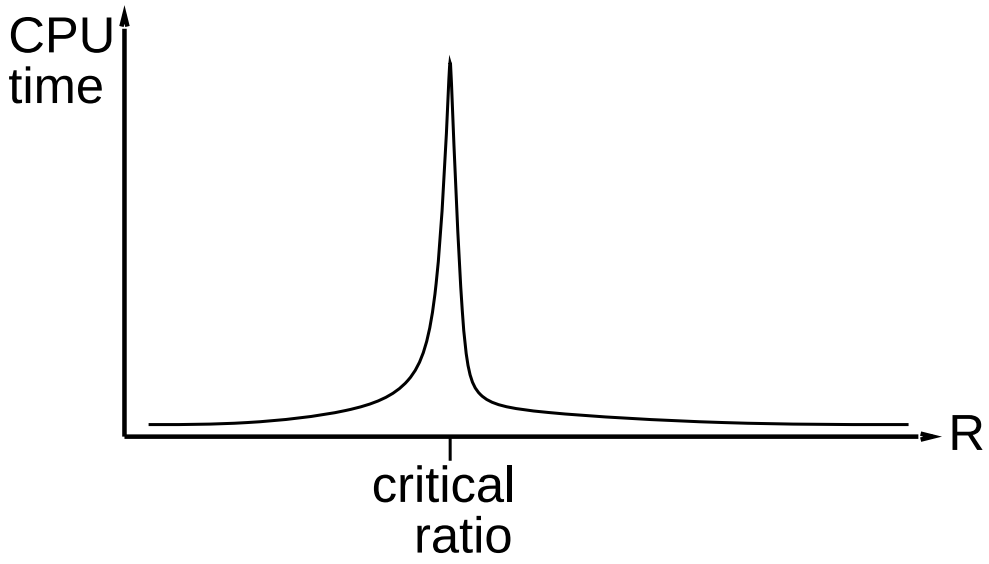


Performance of min-conflicts

Given random initial state, can solve n-queens in almost constant time for arbitrary n with high probability (e.g., $n = 10{,}000{,}000$)

The same appears to be true for any randomly-generated CSP
except in a narrow range of the ratio

$$R = \frac{\text{number of constraints}}{\text{number of variables}}$$



Summary

CSPs are a special kind of problem:
- states defined by values of a fixed set of variables
- goal test defined by constraints on variable values

Backtracking = depth-first search with one variable assigned per node

Variable ordering and value selection heuristics help significantly

Forward checking prevents assignments that guarantee later failure

Constraint propagation (e.g., arc consistency) does additional work
to constrain values and detect inconsistencies

The CSP representation allows analysis of problem structure

Tree-structured CSPs can be solved in linear time

Iterative min-conflicts is usually effective in practice