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Search algorithms for planning

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State-based problem formulation

- (Single agent: the automated problem solver)
- State space defined as a set of **nodes**, each node represents a state; we assume a finite state space
- For each state, we have set of actions that can be undertaken by the agent from that state
- Transition model: given a starting state and an action, indicates an arrival state (here we assume no uncertainties, i.e., deterministic transitions and full observability)
- Action costs: any transition has a cost, which we assume to be greater than a
 positive constant (reasonable assumption, useful for deriving some properties of
 the algorithms we discuss)
- Initial state



Compact representation: state transition graph G=(V,E) (We will use "state" and "node" as interchangeable terms)

Formally describing the desired solution

- In the problem formulation we need to formally describe the features of the solution we seek
- Two (three) classes of problems:

sequence of actions (path)

from the initial state to a

goal state



Set of goal states, find the sequence of actions (path) from the initial state to a goal state that has the minimum cost

Consider a mobile robot moving on a graph-represented environment:

- **States**: nodes of the graph, they represent physical locations
- **Edges**: represent connections between nearby locations or, equivalently, movement actions
- Initial state: some starting location for the robot

Desired solution:

- Goal state(s): some location(s) to reach, e.g., recharging station, parking depot...
- Find a path to the initial location to a goal one







Problem specification

- How to **specify** a planning problem?
- First approach: provide the full state transition graph G (as in the previous example)
- Most of the times this is not an affordable option due to the combinatorial nature of the state space:



- **Chess board**: approx. 10⁴⁷ states
- We can specify the initial state and the transition function in some compact form (e.g., set of rules to generate next states)
- The planning problem "unfolds" as search progresses
- We need an efficient procedure for *goal checking*

General features of search algorithms

A search algorithm explores the state-transition graph graph G until it discovers the desired solution

- In feasibility: when a goal node is visited the path that led to that node is returned
- In optimality: when a goal node is visited, if any other possible path to that node has higher cost the path that led to that node is returned



It does not suffice to visit a goal node, the algorithm has to reconstruct the path it followed to get there: it must keep a trace of its search

Such a trace can be mapped to a subgraph of G, it is called *search graph*

how to evaluate a (search) algorithm?

- We can evaluate a search algorithm along different dimensions
 - Sound?
 - Complete? (Systematic?)
 - Space complexity?
 - Time complexity?

(The above criteria can actually be used to evaluate a broader class of algorithms)

Soundness

- If the algorithm returns a solution, is it compliant with the desired features specified in the problem formulation?
- Example:
 - In feasibility: *does the returned solution lead to a goal?*
 - In optimality: *does the returned solution lead to a goal with minimum cost?*

Completeness and the systematic property

- If a solution exists, does the algorithm find it?
- Example:
 - In feasibility: does it always find a path to the goal when it exists?
 - In optimality: does it always find the path to the goal that has minimum cost when at least one exists?
- Typically shown by proving that the search will/will not visit all states if given enough time
- If the state space is infinite, we can ask if the search is systematic:
 - if the answer is "yes" the algorithm must terminate
 - if the answer is "no", it's ok if it does not terminate but ...
 - ... all reachable states must be visited in the limit: as time goes to infinity, all states are visited (this definition is sound under the assumption of countable state space)

Visual example



Visual example



• Searching along **multiple** trajectories (either concurrently or not), eventually covers all the reachable space

Visual example



• Searching along a **single** trajectory, eventually gets stuck in a dead end

Space and time complexity

- Space complexity: how does the amount of memory required by the search algorithm grows as a function of the problem's dimension (worst case)?
- Time complexity: how does the time required by the search algorithm grows as a function of the problem's dimension (worst case)?
- Asymptotic trend:
 - We measure complexity with a function f(n) of the input size
 - For analysis purposes, the "Big O" notation is convenient:

A function f(n) is O(g(n)) if $\exists k > 0, n_0$ such that $f(n) \le kg(n)$ for $n > n_0$

- An algorithm that is ${\cal O}(n^2)$ is better than one that is ${\cal O}(n^5)$
- If g(n) is an exponential, the algorithm is not efficient





Running example

• To present the various search algorithms, we will use this *problem instance* as our running example



• It might be useful to think it as a map, but keep in mind that this interpretation does not hold for every instance

Search algorithm definition

• The different search algorithms are substantially characterized by the answer they provide to the following question:



Given what I searched so far, where to search next?

• The answer is encoded in a set of rules that drives the search and define its type, let's start with the simplest one





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- A Depth-First Search (DFS) chooses the deepest node in the search tree (How to break ties? For now lexicographic order)
- We are **avoiding loops** on the same branch (loops are redundant paths)
- A dead end stopped the search, DFS seems not complete. Can we fix this?
- Let's endow our DFS with **backtracking**: a way to reconsider previously evaluated decisions



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Solution: (A->B->D->F->G->E)

- DFS with loops removal and BT is sound and complete
- Call b the maximum branching factor, i.e., the maximum number of actions available in a state
- Call d the maximum depth of a solution, i.e., the maximum number of actions in a path
- Space complexity: O(d)
- Time complexity: $1 + b + b^2 + \ldots + b^d = O(b^d)$





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Solution: (A->F->G->E)



- A Breadth-First Search (BFS) chooses the shallowest node, thus exploring in a level by level fashion
- It has a more conservative behavior and does not need to reconsider decisions
- Call q the depth of the shallowest solution (in general $q \leq d$)
- Space complexity: $O(b^q)$
- Time complexity: $O(b^q)$

Redundant paths

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- Both DFS and BFS visited some nodes multiple times (avoiding loops prevents this to happen only within the same branch)
- In general, this does not seem very efficient. Why?

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 Idea: discard a newly generated node if already present somewhere on the tree, we can do this with an **enqueued list**





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 Node F ha already been "enqueued" on the tree, by discarding it we prune a branch of the tree





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Implementation

- The implementation of the previous algorithms is based on two data structures:
 - A queue **F** (Frontier), elements ordered by priority, a selection consumes the element with highest priority
 - A list EL (Enqueued List, nodes that have already been put on the tree)
- The frontier F contains the terminal nodes of all the paths currently under exploration on the tree



- The frontier **separates** the explored part of the state space from the unexplored part
- In order to reach a state that we still did not searched, we need to pass from the frontier (separation property)

Implementation



Informed vs non-informed search

- Besides its own rules, any search algorithm decides where to search next by leveraging some knowledge
- Non-informed search uses only knowledge specified at problem-definition time (e.g., goal and start nodes, edge costs), just like we saw in the previous examples
- An **informed** search might go beyond such knowledge
- Idea: using an estimate of how far a given node is from the goal
- Such an estimate is often called a **heuristic**

Estimate of the cost of the optimal path from node v to the goal: h(v)

Informed vs non-informed search

- We can enrich DFS and BFS to obtain their an informed versions
- Both search methods break ties in lexicographical order, but it seems reasonable to do that in favor of nodes that are believed to be closer to the goal
- Hill climbing
 - A DFS where ties are broken in favor the node with smallest h
- Beam (of width w)
 - A BFS where at each level we keep the first w nodes in increasing order of h

Search for the optimal solution

- Now we assume to be interested in the solution with minimum cost (not just any path to the goal, but the cheapest possible)
- To devise an optimal search algorithm we take the moves from BFS. Why it seems reasonable to do that?
- We generalize the idea of BFS to that of Uniform Cost Search (UCS)
- BFS proceeds by *depth* levels, UCS does that by *cost* levels (as a consequence, if costs are all equal to some constant BFS and UCS coincide)
- Cost accumulated on a path from the start node to v: g(v) (we should include a dependency on the path, but it will always be clear from the context)
- For now let's remove the enqueued list and the goal checking as we know it





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- Have we found the optimal path to the goal? In this problem instance, we can answer *yes* by inspecting the graph
- How about larger instances? Can we prove optimality?
- Actually, we can prove a stronger claim: every time UCS selects **for the first time** a node for expansion, the associated path leading to that node has minimum cost

Optimality of UCS

Hypotheses:

- 1. UCS selects from the frontier a node V that has been generated through a path p
- 2. p is not the optimal path to V

Given 2 and the frontier separation property, we know that there must exist a node X on the frontier, generated through a path p'_1 that is on the optimal path $p' \neq p$ to V; let assume $p' = p'_1 + p'_2$



 $c(p') = c(p'_1) + c(p'_2) < c(p)$ since, from Hp, p' is optimal $c(p'_1) < c(p'_1) + c(p'_2) < c(p)$ since costs are positive $c(p'_1) < c(p)$ X would have been chosen before V, then 1 is false

Optimality of UCS

If when we select for the first time we discover the optimal path, there is no reason to select the same node a second time: **extended list**

Every time we select a node for extension:

- If the node is already in the extended list we discard it
- Otherwise we extend it and we put it the extended list
- (Warning: we are not using an enqueued list, it would actually make the search not sound!)

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