# Set 2: State-spaces and Uninformed Search 

## ICS 271 Fall 2014 Kalev Kask

## Problem-Solving Agents

- Intelligent agents can solve problems by searching a state-space
- State-space Model
- the agent's model of the world
- usually a set of discrete states
- e.g., in driving, the states in the model could be towns/cities
- Goal State(s)
- a goal is defined as a desirable state for an agent
- there may be many states which satisfy the goal
- e.g., drive to a town with a ski-resort
- or just one state which satisfies the goal
- e.g., drive to Mammoth
- Operators
- operators are legal actions which the agent can take to move from one state to another


## Example: Romania



## 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 actions (cities), e.g., Arad, Sibiu, Fagaras, Bucharest


## Problem Types

- Static / Dynamic

Previous problem was static: no attention to changes in environment

- Observable / Partially Observable / Unobservable Previous problem was observable: it knew its initial state.
- Deterministic / Stochastic

Previous problem was deterministic: no new percepts
were necessary, we can predict the future perfectly

- Discrete / continuous

Previous problem was discrete: we can enumerate all possibilities

## State-Space Problem Formulation <br> 

A problem is defined by five items:
initial state e.g., "at Arad"
actions or successor function $S(x)=$ set of action-state pairs

- e.g., $S($ Arad $)=\{\langle$ Arad $\rightarrow$ Zerind, Zerind $\rangle, \ldots\}$
transition function - maps action X state $\rightarrow$ state
goal test, (or goal state)
e.g., $x=$ "at Bucharest", Checkmate( $x$ )
path cost (additive)
- e.g., sum of distances, number of actions executed, etc.
- $c(x, a, y)$ is the step cost, assumed to be $\geq 0$

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

## State-Space Problem Formulation

- A statement of a Search problem has 5 components
- 1. A start state S
- 2. A set of operators/actions which allow one to get from one state to another
- 3. transition function
- 4. A set of possible goal states $G$, or ways to test for goal states
- 5. Cost path
- A solution consists of
- a sequence of operators which transform S into a goal state G
- Representing real problems in a State-Space search framework
- may be many ways to represent states and operators
- key idea: represent only the relevant aspects of the problem (abstraction)


## Abstraction/Modeling

Process of removing irrelevant detail to create an abstract representation: "'high-level", ignores irrelevant details

- Definition of Abstraction:
- Navigation Example: how do we define states and operators?
- First step is to abstract "the big picture"
- i.e., solve a map problem
- nodes = cities, links = freeways/roads (a high-level description)
- this description is an abstraction of the real problem
- Can later worry about details like freeway onramps, refueling, etc
- Abstraction is critical for automated problem solving
- must create an approximate, simplified, model of the world for the computer to deal with: real-world is too detailed to model exactly
- good abstractions retain all important details


## Robot block world

- Given a set of blocks in a certain configuration,
- Move the blocks into a goal configuration.
- Example:
$-(c, b, a) \rightarrow(b, c, a)$

Move (x,y)

## Operator Description



Effects of Moving a Block

## The State-Space Graph

- Problem formulation:
- Give an abstract description of states, operators, initial state and goal state.
- Graphs:
- vertices, edges(arcs), directed arcs, paths

State-space:

1. A set of states
2. A set of "operators"/transitions
3. A start state S
4. A set of possible goal states
5. Cost path

- State-space graphs:
- States are vertices
- operators are directed arcs
- solution is a path from start to goal
- Problem solving activity:
- Generate a part of the search space that contains a solution


## The Traveling Salesperson Problem

- Find the shortest tour that visits all cities without visiting any city twice and return to starting point.
- State:
- sequence of cities visited
- $S_{0}=A$



## The Traveling Salesperson Problem

- Find the shortest tour that visits all cities without visiting any city twice and return to starting point.
- State: sequence of cities visited
- $\mathrm{S}_{0}=\mathrm{A}$
- Solution = a complete tour

Transition model

$$
\{a, c, d\} \nprec\{(a, c, d, x) \mid X \notin a, c, d\}
$$



## Example: 8-queen problem



## Example: 8-Queens

- states? -any arrangement of $\mathrm{n}<=8$ queens -or arrangements of $\mathrm{n}<=8$ queens in leftmost n columns, 1 per column, such that no queen attacks any other.
- initial state? no queens on the board
- actions? -add queen to any empty column
-or add queen to leftmost empty column such that it is not attacked by other queens.
- goal test? 8 queens on the board, none attacked.
- path cost? 1 per move


## The Sliding Tile Problem

| 2 | 8 | 3 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | 6 | 4 |
| 7 | 5 |  |


| 1 | 2 | 3 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 8 | 4 |  |
| 7 | 6 | 5 |

Figure 8.1
Start and Goal Configurations for the Eight-Puzzle

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { move } x, \operatorname{loc} y, l o c z) & \text { Up } \\
& \text { Down } \\
& \text { Left } \\
& \text { Right }
\end{array}
$$

## The "8-Puzzle" Problem

Start State

| 1 | 2 | 3 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 4 |  | 6 |
| 7 | 5 | 8 |


| 1 | 2 | 3 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 7 |  | 8 |
|  | $\downarrow$ |  |
| 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 7 | 8 |  |

Goal State

## Example: robotic assemblv



- states?: real-valued coordinates of robot joint angles parts of the object to be assembled
- actions?: continuous motions of robot joints
- goal test?: complete assembly
- path cost?: time to execute


## Formulating Problems; Another Angle

- Problem types
- Satisfying: 8-queen
- Optimizing: Traveling salesperson
- Goal types
- board configuration
- sequence of moves
- A strategy (contingency plan)
- Satisfying leads to optimizing since "small is quick"
- For traveling salesperson
- satisfying easy, optimizing hard
- Semi-optimizing:
- Find a good solution
- In Russel and Norvig:
- single-state, multiple states, contingency plans, exploration problems


## Searching the State Space

- States, operators, control strategies
- The search space graph is implicit
- The control strategy generates a small search tree.
- Systematic search
- Do not leave any stone unturned
- Efficiency
- Do not turn any stone more than once


## Tree search example



## Tree search example



## Tree search example


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

## State-Space Graph of the 8 Puzzle Problem



Figure 3.6 State space of the 8-puzzle generated by "move blank" operations.

## 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 contains info such as: state, parent node, action, path cost $g(x)$, depth

- The Expand function creates new nodes, filling in the various fields and using the SuccessorFn of the problem to create the corresponding states.
- Queue managing frontier :
- FIFO
- LIFO
- priority


## Tree-Search vs Graph-Search

- Tree-search(problem), returns a solution or failure
- Frontier $\leftarrow$ initial state
- Loop do
- If frontier is empty return failure
- Choose a leaf node and remove from frontier
- If the node is a goal, return the corresponding solution
- Expand the chosen node, adding its children to the frontier
- Graph-search(problem), returns a solution or failure
- Frontier $\leftarrow$ initial state, explored $\leftarrow e m p t y$
- Loop do
- If frontier is empty return failure
- Choose a leaf node and remove from frontier
- If the node is a goal, return the corresponding solution.
- Add the node to the explored.
- Expand the chosen node, adding its children to the frontier, only if not in frontier or explored set


## Tree-Search vs. Graph-Search

- Example : Assemble 5 objects $\{\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{d}, \mathbf{e}\}$
- A state is a bit-vector (length 5 ), $1=o b j e c t ~ i n ~ a s s e m b l y ~$
- $11010=\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathrm{d}$ in assembly, c, e not
- State space
- number of states $2^{5}=32$
- number of edges $\left(2^{5}\right) \cdot 5 \cdot 1 / 2=80$
- Tree-search space
- number of nodes $5!=120$
- State can be reached in multiple ways
- 11010 can be reached $\mathbf{a}+\mathbf{b}+\mathbf{d}$ or $\mathbf{a}+\mathbf{d}+\mathbf{b}$ etc.
- Graph-search :
- three kinds of nodes : unexplored, frontier, explored
- before adding a node, check if a state is in frontier or explored set


## Graph-Search




271-fall $2014^{(a)}$

(b)

(c)

## Why Search Can be Difficult

- At the start of the search, the search algorithm does not know
- the size of the tree
- the shape of the tree
- the depth of the goal states
- How big can a search tree be?
- say there is a constant branching factor $b$
- and one goal exists at depth d
- search tree which includes a goal can have
$b^{d}$ different branches in the tree (worst case)
- Examples:
$-b=2, d=10: \quad b^{d}=2^{10}=1024$
$-\quad b=10, d=10: \quad b^{d}=10^{10}=10,000,000,000$


## Searching the Search Space

- Uninformed (Blind) search
- Breadth-first
- Uniform-Cost first
- Depth-first
- Iterative deepening depth-first
- Bidirectional
- Depth-First Branch and Bound
- Informed Heuristic search
- Greedy search, hill climbing, Heuristics
- Important concepts:
- Completeness
- Time complexity
- Space complexity
- Quality of solution


## Breadth-First Search

- Expand shallowest unexpanded node
- Frontier: nodes waiting in a queue to be explored, also called OPEN
- Implementation:
- frontier is a first-in-first-out (FIFO) queue, i.e., new successors go at end of the queue.

Is A a goal state?


## Breadth-First Search

- Expand shallowest unexpanded node
- Implementation:
- frontier is a FIFO queue, i.e., new successors go at end

Expand:
frontier $=[B, C]$
Is B a goal state?


## Breadth-First Search

- Expand shallowest unexpanded node
- Implementation:
- frontier is a FIFO queue, i.e., new successors go at end

Expand: frontier $=[C, D, E]$

Is C a goal state?


## Breadth-First Search

- Expand shallowest unexpanded node
- Implementation:
- frontier is a FIFO queue, i.e., new successors go at end

Expand:
frontier=[D,E,F,G]
Is D a goal state?


## Breadth-First Search

Actually, in BFS we can check if a node is a goal node when it is generated (rather than expanded)


## Breadth-First-Search (*)

OPEN $=$ frontier, CLOSED $=$ explored

- 1. Put the start node $s$ on OPEN
- 2. If OPEN is empty exit with failure.
- 3. Remove the first node $n$ from OPEN and place it on CLOSED.
- 4. Expand $n$, generating all its successors.
- If child is not in CLOSED or OPEN, then
- If child is not a goal, then put them at the end of OPEN in some order.
- 5. If $n$ is a goal node, exit successfully with the solution obtained by tracing back pointers from $n$ to $s$.
- Go to step 2.
* This is graph-search


## Example: Map Navigation


$\mathrm{S}=$ start, $\mathrm{G}=$ goal, other nodes $=$ intermediate states, links = legal transitions

## Initial BFS Search Tree



Note: this is the search tree at some particular point in in the search.


## Complexity of Breadth-First Search

- Time Complexity
- assume (worst case) that there is 1 goal leaf at the RHS
- so BFS will expand all nodes

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =1+b+b^{2}+\quad \cdots \cdots \cdots+b^{d} \\
& =\mathbf{O}\left(b^{d}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$



- Space Complexity
- how many nodes can be in the queue (worst-case)?
- at depth d there are $b^{d}$ unexpanded nodes in the $Q=\mathbf{O}\left(\mathbf{b}^{d}\right)$



## Examples of Time and Memory Requirements for Breadth-First Search

| Depth of <br> Solution | Nodes <br> Expanded | Time | Memory |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 1 | 1 millisecond | 100 bytes |
| 2 | 111 | 0.1 seconds | 11 kbytes |
| 4 | 11,111 | 11 seconds | 1 megabyte |
| 8 | $10^{8}$ | 31 hours | 11 giabytes |
| 12 | $10^{12}$ | 35 years | 111 terabytes |

Assuming $\mathrm{b}=10,1000$ nodes $/ \mathrm{sec}, 100$ bytes/node

## Breadth-First Search (BFS) Properties

- Solution Length: optimal
- Expand each node once (can check for duplicates, performs graph-search)
- Search Time: $O\left(b^{d}\right)$
- Memory Required: $O\left(b^{d}\right)$
- Drawback: requires exponential space



## Uniform Cost Search

- Expand lowest-cost OPEN node ( $g(n)$ )
- $\operatorname{In}$ BFS $g(n)=\operatorname{depth}(n)$


Figure 3.13 A route-finding problem. (a) The state space, showing the cost for each operator. (b) Progression of the search. Each node is labelled with $g(n)$. At the next step, the goal node with $g=10$ will be selected.

## - Requirement

- $g($ successor $)(n)) \geq g(n)$


## Uniform cost search

1. Put the start node $s$ on OPEN
2. If OPEN is empty exit with failure.
3. Remove the first node $n$ from OPEN and place it on CLOSED.
4. If $n$ is a goal node, exit successfully with the solution obtained by tracing back pointers from $n$ to $s$.
5. Otherwise, expand $n$, generating all its successors attach to them pointers back to $n$, and put them in OPEN in order of shortest cost
6. Go to step 2.

## DFS Branch and Bound

At step 4: compute the cost of the solution found and updlate the upper bound $\mathbf{U}$. at step 5: expand $n$, generating all its successors attach to them pointers back to $n$, and put on top of OPEN.
Gompute cost of partial path to node and prune if larger than $U$.

## Depth-First Search

- Expand deepest unexpanded node
- Implementation:
- frontier = Last In First Out (LIFO) queue, i.e., put successors at front

Is A a goal state?


## Depth-first search

- Expand deepest unexpanded node
- Implementation:
- frontier $=$ LIFO queue, i.e., put successors at front queue $=[B, C]$

Is B a goal state?


## Depth-first search

- Expand deepest unexpanded node
- Implementation:
- frontier $=$ LIFO queue, i.e., put successors at front
queue=[D,E,C]
queue=[D,E,C]
Is D = goal state?



## Depth-first search

- Expand deepest unexpanded node
- Implementation:
- frontier $=$ LIFO queue, i.e., put successors at front queue $=[\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{E}, \mathrm{C}]$

Is $\mathrm{H}=$ goal state?


## Depth-first search

- Expand deepest unexpanded node
- Implementation:
- frontier $=$ LIFO queue, i.e., put successors at front
queue $=[\mathrm{I}, \mathrm{E}, \mathrm{C}]$
Is I = goal state?



## Depth-first search

- Expand deepest unexpanded node
- Implementation:
- frontier $=$ LIFO queue, i.e., put successors at front



## Depth-first search

- Expand deepest unexpanded node
- Implementation:
- frontier $=$ LIFO queue, i.e., put successors at front queue $=[\mathrm{J}, \mathrm{K}, \mathrm{C}]$

Is J = goal state?


## Depth-first search

- Expand deepest unexpanded node
- Implementation:
- frontier $=$ LIFO queue, i.e., put successors at front queue $=[K, C]$

Is $\mathrm{K}=$ goal state?


## Depth-first search

- Expand deepest unexpanded node
- Implementation:
- frontier $=$ LIFO queue, i.e., put successors at front

```
queue=[C]
```

Is C = goal state?


## Depth-first search

- Expand deepest unexpanded node
- Implementation:
- frontier $=$ LIFO queue, i.e., put successors at front

$$
\text { queue }=[\mathrm{F}, \mathrm{G}]
$$

Is $\mathrm{F}=$ goal state?


## Depth-first search

- Expand deepest unexpanded node
- Implementation:
- frontier = LIFO queue, i.e., put successors at front queue $=[\mathrm{L}, \mathrm{M}, \mathrm{G}]$

Is $L=$ goal state?


## Depth-first search

- Expand deepest unexpanded node
- Implementation:
- frontier $=$ LIFO queue, i.e., put successors at front



## Depth-First Search (DFS)



Here, (if tree-search) then to avoid infinite depth (in case of finite state-space graph) assume we don't expand any child node which appears already in the path from the root $S$ to the parent. (Again, one could use other strategies)

## Depth-First Search


(a)

(b)

(c)

Generation of the First Few Nodes in a Depth-First Search


The Graph When the Goal Is Reached in Depth-First Search

## Depth-First-Search (*)

## 1. Put the start node $s$ on OPEN

2. If OPEN is empty exit with failure.
3. Remove the first node $n$ from OPEN.
4. If $n$ is a goal node, exit successfully with the solution obtained by tracing back pointers from $n$ to $s$.
5. Otherwise, expand $n$, generating all its successors (check for self-loops)attach to them pointers back to $n$, and put them at the top of OPEN in some order.
6. Go to step 2.
*search the tree search-space (but avoid self-loops)
** the default assumption is that DFS searches the underlying search-tree

## Complexity of Depth-First Search?

- Time Complexity
- assume d is deepest path in the search space
- assume (worst case) that there is 1 goal leaf at the RHS
- so DFS will expand all nodes


$$
\begin{aligned}
& =1+b+b^{2}+\ldots \ldots \ldots+b^{d} \\
& =\mathbf{O}\left(b^{d}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

- Space Complexity (for treesearch)
- how many nodes can be in the queue (worst-case)?
- O(bd) if deepest node at depth d



# Example, Diamond Networks graph-search vs tree-search (BFS vs DFS) 



- Graph-search \& BFS
- Tree-search \& DFS


## Depth-First tree-search Properties

- Non-optimal solution path
- Incomplete unless there is a depth bound
- (we will assume depth-limited DF-search)
- Re-expansion of nodes (when the state-space is a graph)
- Exponential time
- Linear space (for tree-search)


## Comparing DFS and BFS

- BFS optimal, DFS is not
- Time Complexity worse-case is the same, but
- In the worst-case BFS is always better than DFS
- Sometime, on the average DFS is better if:
- many goals, no loops and no infinite paths
- BFS is much worse memory-wise
- DFS can be linear space
- BFS may store the whole search space.
- In general
- BFS is better if goal is not deep, if long paths, if many loops, if small search space
- DFS is better if many goals, not many loops
- DFS is much better in terms of memory


## Iterative-Deepening Search (DFS)

- Every iteration is a DFS with a depth cutoff.

Iterative deepening (ID)

1. $\quad i=1$
2. While no solution, do
3. DFS from initial state $S_{0}$ with cutoff $i$
4. If found goal, stop and return solution, else, increment cutoff

Comments:

- IDS implements BFS with DFS
- Only one path in memory
- BFS at step $i$ may need to keep $2^{\mathrm{i}}$ nodes in OPEN

Iterative deepening search $L=0$

Limit $=0$
(-1)


Iterative deepening search $L=1$


Iterative deepening search $L=2$


Iterative Deepening Search $L=3$


## Iterative deepening search



Depth bound $=1$


Depth bound $=2$


Depth bound $=3$


Depth bound $=4$

Stages in Iterative-Deepening Search

## Iterative Deepening (DFS)

- Time:

$$
T(n)=\sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{b^{j+1}-1}{b-1}=\frac{b^{n+2}}{(b-1)^{2}}=O\left(b^{n}\right)
$$

- BFS time is $O\left(b^{n}\right)$, b is the branching degree - IDS is asymptotically like BFS,
o For $b=10 \quad d=5 \quad d=c u t-o f f$
o DFS $=1+10+100, \ldots,=111,111$
- IDS = 123,456
- Ratio is $\frac{b}{b-1}$


## Summary on IDS

- A useful practical method
- combines
- guarantee of finding an optimal solution if one exists (as in BFS)
- space efficiency, O(bd) of DFS
- But still has problems with loops like DFS


## Bidirectionalsearch

- Idea
- simultaneously search forward from $S$ and backwards from $G$
- stop when both "meet in the middle"
- need to keep track of the intersection of 2 open sets of nodes
- What does searching backwards from $G$ mean
- need a way to specify the predecessors of G
- this can be difficult,
- e.g., predecessors of checkmate in chess?
- what if there are multiple goal states?
- what if there is only a goal test, no explicit list?
- Complexity
- time complexity is best: $\mathrm{O}\left(2 \mathrm{~b}^{(\mathrm{d} / 2)}\right)=\mathrm{O}\left(\mathrm{b}^{(\mathrm{d} / 2)}\right)$
- memory complexity is the same


## Bi-Directional Search



Fig. 2.10 Bidirectional and unidirectional breadth-first searches.

## Comparison of Algorithms

| Criterion | Breadth- <br> First | Uniform- <br> Cost | Depth- <br> First | Depth- <br> Limited | Iterative <br> Deepening | Bidirectional <br> (if applicable) |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Time | $b^{d}$ | $b^{d}$ | $b^{m}$ | $b^{l}$ | $b^{d}$ | $b^{d / 2}$ |
| Space | $b^{d}$ | $b^{d}$ | $b m$ | $b l$ | $b d$ | $b^{d / 2}$ |
| Optimal? | Yes | Yes | No | No | Yes | Yes |
| Complete? | Yes | Yes | No | Yes, if $l \geq d$ | Yes | Yes |

Figure 3.18 Evaluation of search strategies. $b$ is the branching factor; $d$ is the depth of solution; $m$ is the maximum depth of the search tree; $l$ is the depth limit.

## Summary

- A review of search
- a search space consists of nodes and operators: it is a tree/graph
- There are various strategies for "uninformed search"
- breadth-first
- depth-first
- iterative deepening
- bidirectional search
- Uniform cost search
- Depth-first branch and bound
- Repeated states can lead to infinitely large search trees
- we looked at methods for detecting repeated states
- All of the search techniques so far are "blind" in that they do not look at how far away the goal may be: next we will look at informed or heuristic search, which directly tries to minimize the distance to the goal.

