

Uninformed Search

Chapter 3

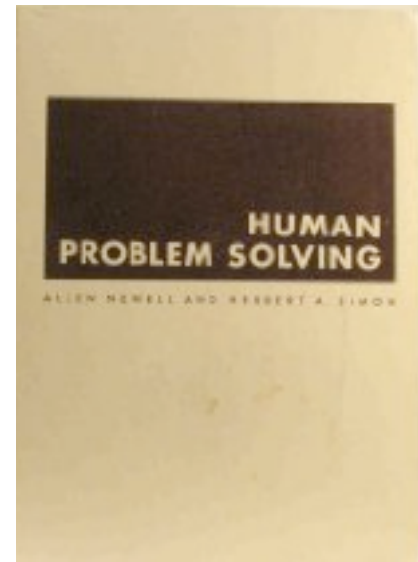
Some material adopted from notes
by Charles R. Dyer, University of
Wisconsin-Madison

Today's topics

- Goal-based agents
- Representing states and actions
- Example problems
- Generic state-space search algorithm
- Specific algorithms
 - Breadth-first search
 - Depth-first search
 - Uniform cost search
 - Depth-first iterative deepening
- Example problems revisited

Big Idea

[Allen Newell](#) and [Herb Simon](#) developed the *problem space principle* as an AI approach in the late 60s/early 70s



"The rational activity in which people engage to solve a problem can be described in terms of (1) a set of **states** of knowledge, (2) **operators** for changing one state into another, (3) **constraints** on applying operators and (4) **control** knowledge for deciding which operator to apply next."

Newell A & Simon H A. Human problem solving.
Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall. 1972.

Example: 8-Puzzle

Given an initial configuration of 8 numbered tiles on a 3x3 board, move the tiles to produce a desired goal configuration

5	4	
6	1	8
7	3	2

Start State

1	2	3
8		4
7	6	5

Goal State

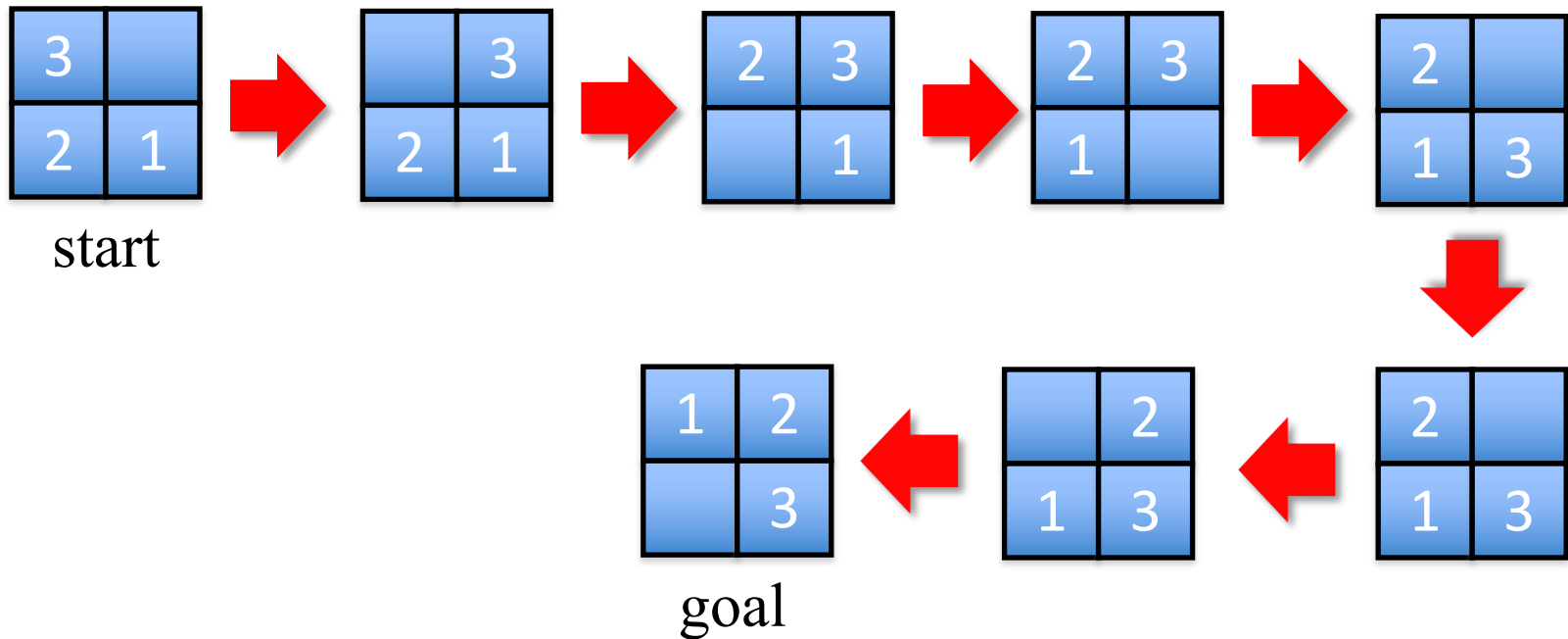
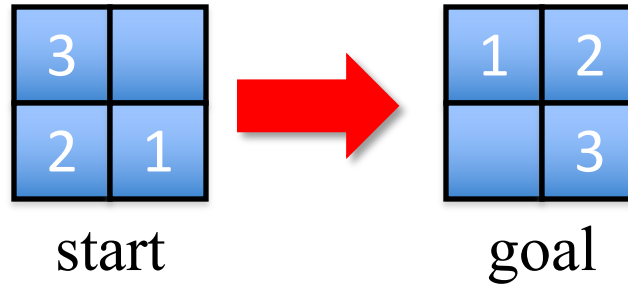
15 puzzle

- Popularized, but not invented, by [Sam Loyd](#)
- He [offered](#) \$1000 to all who could solve it in 1896
- He sold many puzzles
- Its states form two *disjoint* spaces
- There was no path to solution from initial state!



Sam Loyd's 1914 illustration of the unsolvable variation

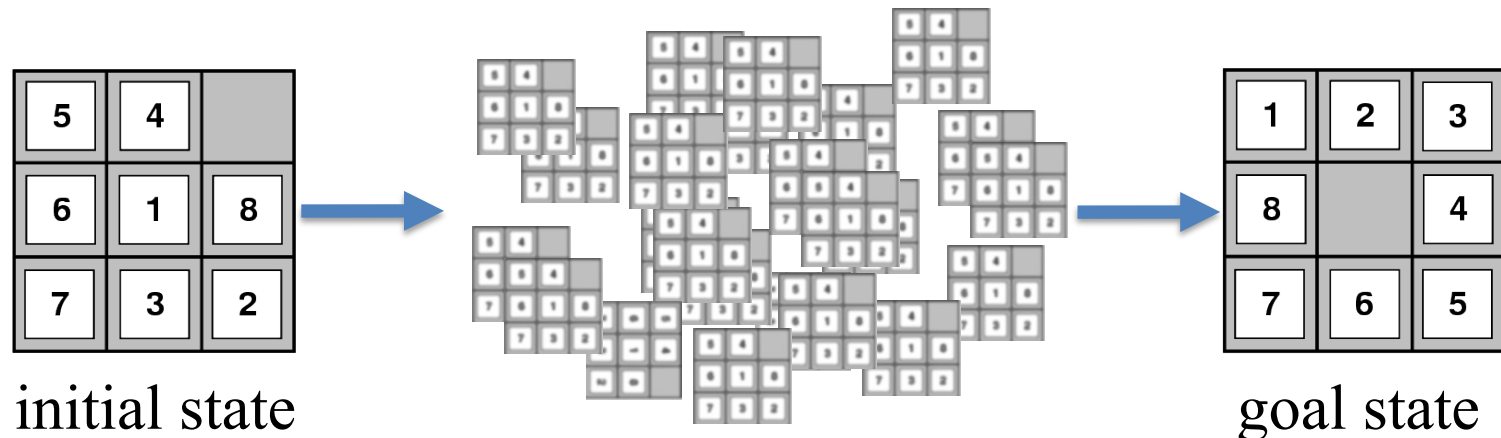
Simpler: 3-Puzzle



Building goal-based agents

We must answer the following questions

- How do we represent the **state** of the “world”?
- What is the **goal** and how can we recognize it?
- What are the possible **actions**?
- What *relevant* information do we encoded to describe states, actions and their effects and thereby solve the problem?



Representing states

- State of an 8-puzzle?

5	4	
6	1	8
7	3	2

Representing states

5	4	
6	1	8
7	3	2

- State of an 8-puzzle?
- A 3x3 array of integer in {0..8}
- No integer appears twice
- 0 represents the empty space

- In Python, we might implement this using a nine-character string: "540681732"
- And write functions to map the 2D coordinates to an index

What's the goal to be achieved?



- Describe situation we want to achieve, a set of properties that we want to hold, etc.
- Defining a **goal test** function that when applied to a state returns True or False
- For our problem:

```
def isGoal(state):  
    return state == "123405678"
```

What are the actions?



- **Primitive actions** for changing the state
 - In a **deterministic** world: no uncertainty in an action's effects (simple model)
- Given action and description of **current world state**, action completely specifies
 - Whether action **can** be applied to the current world (i.e., is it applicable and legal?) and
 - What state **results** after action is performed in the current world (i.e., no need for *history* information to compute the next state)

Representing actions



- Actions ideally considered as **discrete events** that occur at an **instant of time**
- Example, in a planning context
 - If `state:inClass` and perform `action:goHome`, then next state is `state:atHome`
 - There's no time where you're neither in class nor at home (i.e., in the state of “going home”)

Representing actions

- Actions for 8-puzzle?

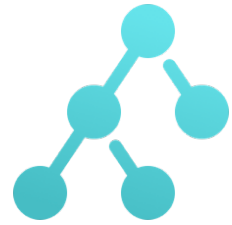
5	4	
6	1	8
7	3	2

Representing actions

5	4	
6	1	8
7	3	2

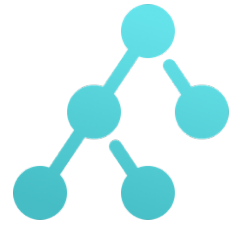
- Actions for 8-puzzle?
- Number of actions/operators depends on the **representation** used in describing a state
 - Specify 4 possible moves for each of the 8 tiles, resulting in a total of **$4*8=32$ actions**
 - Or, Specify four moves for “blank” square and we only need **4 actions**
- **Representational shift can simplify a problem!**

Representing states



- **Size of a problem** usually described in terms of possible **number of states**
 - Tic-Tac-Toe has about 3^9 states ($19,683 \approx 2 * 10^4$)
 - Checkers has about 10^{40} states
 - Rubik's Cube has about 10^{19} states
 - Chess has about 10^{120} states in a typical game
 - Go has $2 * 10^{170}$
- State space size \approx solution difficulty

Representing states



- Our estimates were loose upper bounds
- How many **possible, legal** states does tic-tac-toe really have?
- Simple upper bound: nine board cells, each of which can be empty, O or X, so 3^9
- Only 593 states after eliminating

– impossible states 

– Rotations and reflections 

Can a Problem space be infinite?

Yes, examples include theorem proving and this simple example from Knuth (1964)

- Starting with the number 4, a sequence of square root, floor, and factorial operations can reach any desired positive integer
- To get to 5 from 4, do

$$\lfloor \sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{(4!)!}}}}} \rfloor = 5.$$

- $\text{floor}(\text{sqrt}(\text{sqrt}(\text{sqrt}(\text{sqrt}(\text{sqrt}(\text{fact}(\text{fact } 4)))))))$

Are they infinitely hard to solve?

- No
- But you must be more careful in searching a space that may be infinite
- Some approaches (e.g. breadth first search) may be better than others (e.g., depth first search)

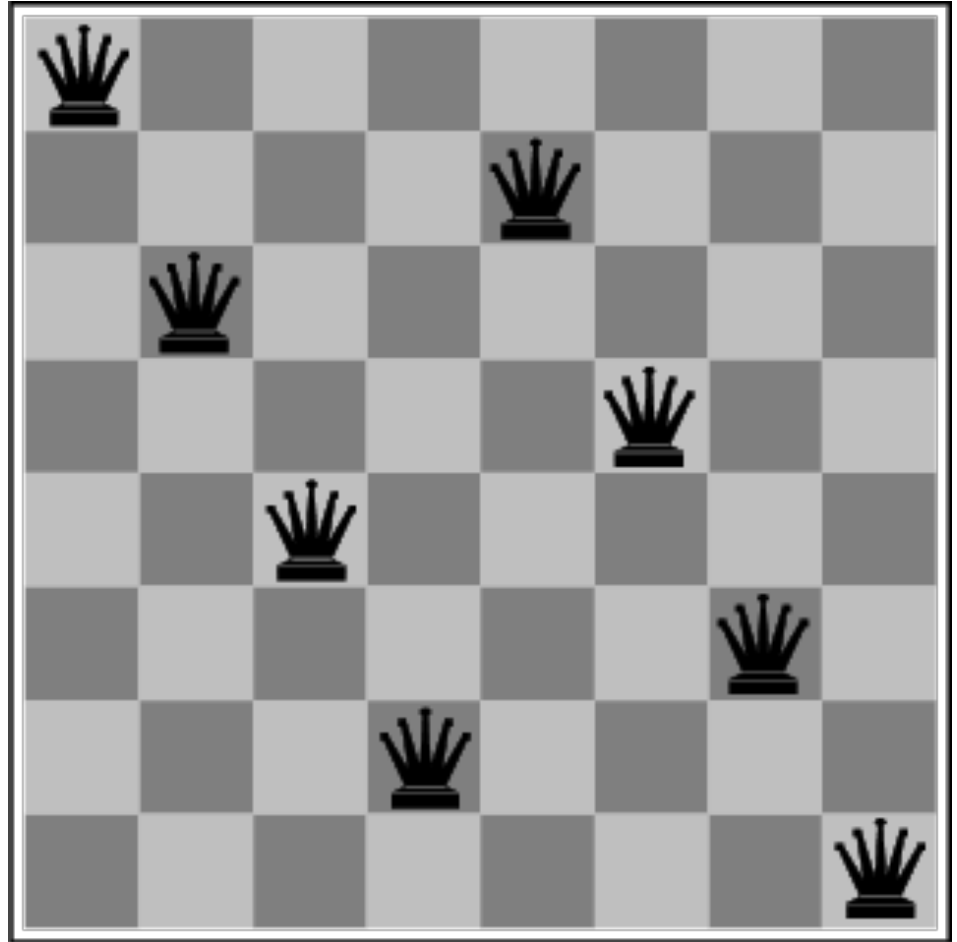
Some example problems

- Toy problems and micro-worlds
 - 8-Puzzle
 - Missionaries and Cannibals
 - Cryptarithmic
 - Remove 5 Sticks
 - Water Jug Problem
- Real-world problems

The 8-Queens Puzzle

Place eight queens on a chessboard such that no queen attacks any other

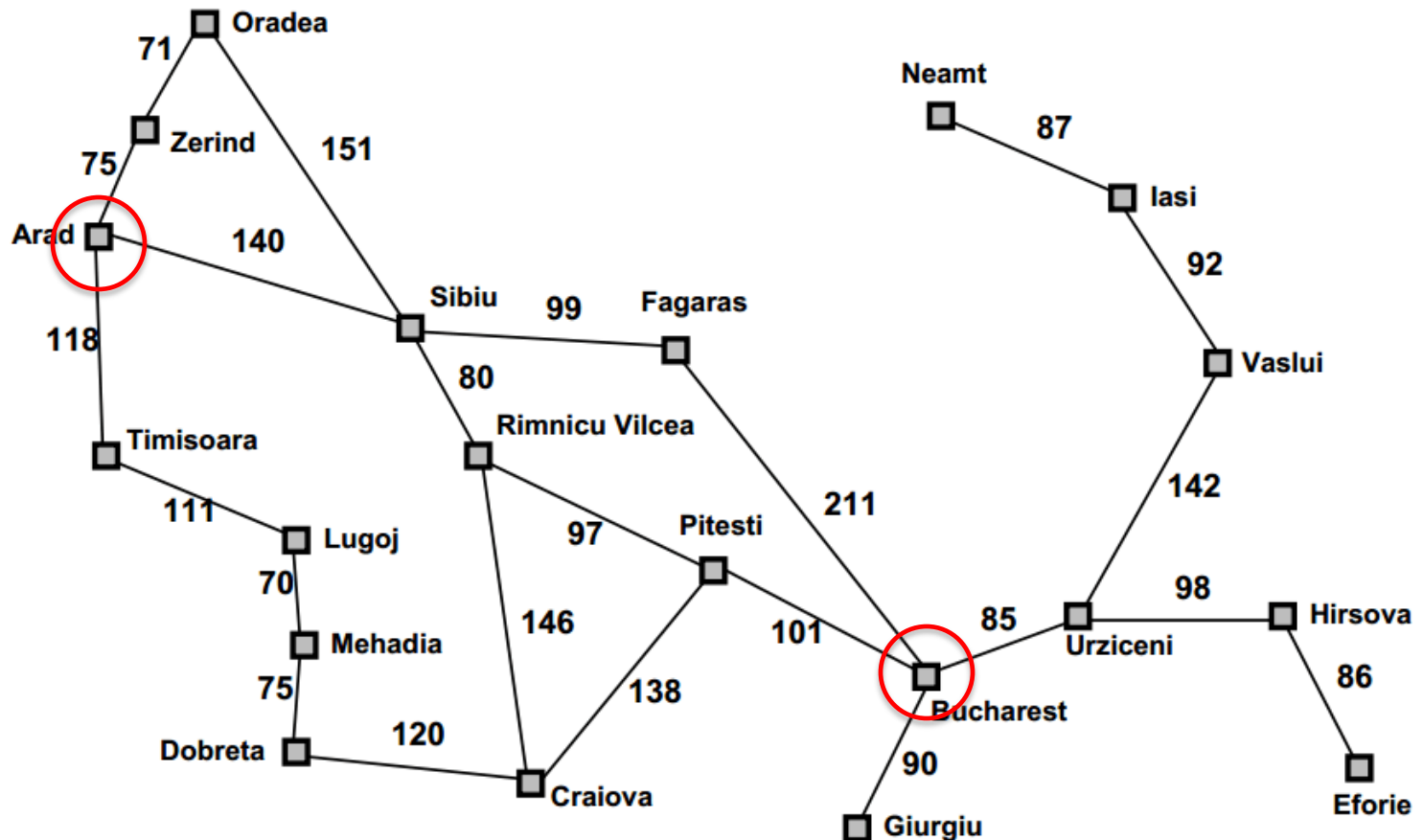
We can generalize the problem to a $N \times N$ chessboard



What are the states, goal test, actions?

Route Planning

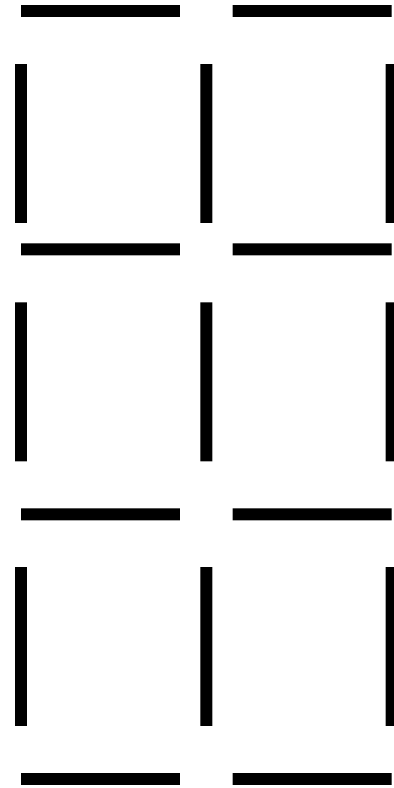
Find a route from Arad to Bucharest



A simplified map of major roads in Romania used in our text

Remove 5 Sticks

Given this configuration of sticks, remove exactly five sticks so that the remaining ones form exactly three squares



Other tasks:

- Remove 4 sticks and leave 4 squares
- Remove 3 sticks and leave 4 squares
- Remove 4 sticks and leave 3 squares

Water Jug Problem



- Two jugs $J1$ & $J2$ with capacity $C1$ & $C2$
- Initially $J1$ has $W1$ water and $J2$ has $W2$ water
 - e.g.: full 5 gallon jug and empty 2 gallon jug
- Possible actions:
 - Pour from jug X to jug Y until X empty or Y full
 - Empty jug X onto the floor
- Goal: $J1$ has $G1$ water and $J2$ $G2$
 - $G1$ or $G2$ can be -1 to represent any amount
- E.g.: initially full jugs with capacities 3 and 1 liters, goal is to have 1 liter in each

So...

- How can we represent the states?
- What's an initial state; how to recognize a goal state
- What are the actions; how can we tell which can be done in a given state; what's the resulting state
- How do we search for a solution from an initial state any goal state
- What is a solution, e.g.:
 - The goal state achieved, or
 - The path (i.e., sequence of actions) taking us from the initial state to a goal state?

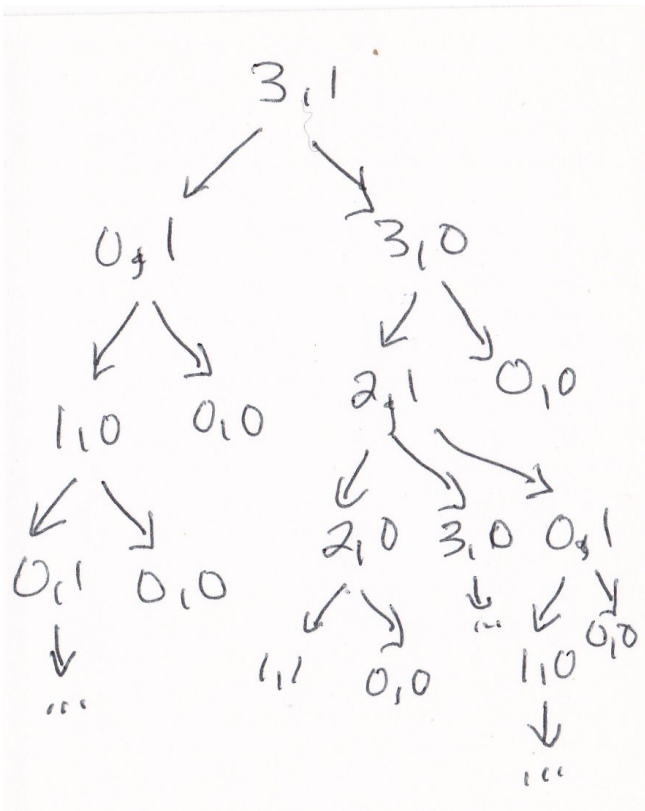
Search in a state space

- Basic idea:
 - Create representation of initial state
 - Try all possible actions & connect states that result
 - Recursively apply process to the new states until we find a solution or dead ends
- We need to keep track of the connections between states and might use a
 - Tree data structure or
 - Graph data structure
- A graph structure is best in general...

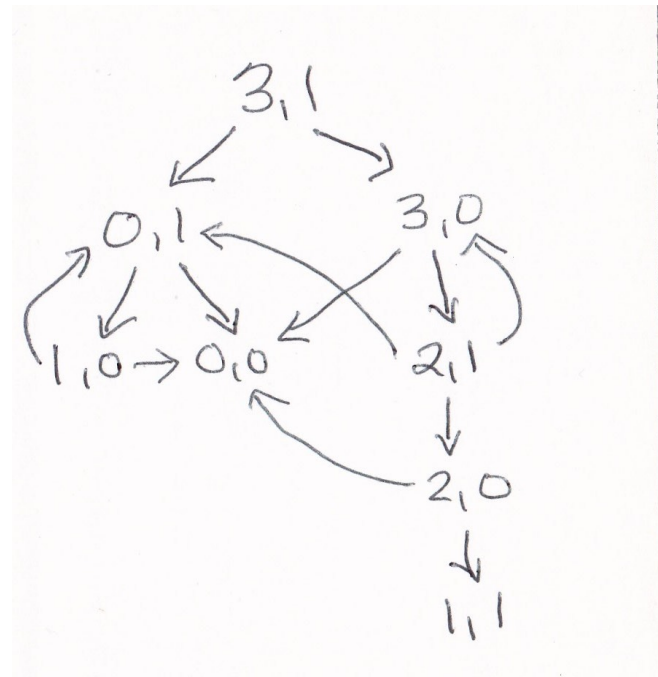
Search in a state space

Consider a water jug problem with a 3-liter and 1-liter jug, an initial state of (3,1) and a goal stage of (1,1)

Tree model of space



Graph model of space



graph model avoids redundancy and loops and is usually preferred

Formalizing state space search

- A state space is a **graph** (V, E) where V is a set of **nodes** and E is a set of **arcs**, and each arc is directed from a node to another node
- **Nodes:** data structures with state description and other info, e.g., node's parent, name of action that generated it from parent, etc.
- **Arcs:** instances of actions, head is a state, tail is the state that results from action, label on arc is action's name or id

Formalizing search in a state space

- Each arc has fixed, positive **cost** associated with it corresponding to the action cost
 - Simple case: all costs are 1
- Each node has a set of **successor nodes** corresponding to all legal actions that can be applied at node's state
 - **Expanding** a node = generating its successor nodes and adding them and their associated arcs to the graph
- One or more nodes are marked as **start nodes**
- A **goal test** predicate is applied to a state to determine if its associated node is a goal node

Example: Water Jug Problem



- Two jugs J1 and J2 with capacity C1 and C2
- Initially J1 has W1 water and J2 has W2 water
 - e.g.: a full 5-gallon jug and an empty 2-gallon jug
- Possible actions:
 - Pour from jug X to jug Y until X empty or Y full
 - Empty jug X onto the floor
- Goal: J1 has G1 water and J2 G2
 - G1 or G0 can be -1 to represent any amount

Example: Water Jug Problem



Given full 5-gal. jug
and empty 2-gal. jug,
fill 2-gal jug with one
gallon

- State = (x,y) , where x is water in jug 1; y is water in jug 2
- Initial State = $(5,0)$
- Goal State = $(-1,1)$, where -1 means any amount

Action table

Name	Cond.	Transition	Effect
dump1	$x > 0$	$(x,y) \rightarrow (0,y)$	Empty Jug 1
dump2	$y > 0$	$(x,y) \rightarrow (x,0)$	Empty Jug 2
pour_1_2	$x > 0$ & $y < C2$	$(x,y) \rightarrow (x-D,y+D)$ $D = \min(x, C2-y)$	Pour from Jug 1 to Jug 2
pour_2_1	$y > 0$ & $X < C1$	$(x,y) \rightarrow (x+D,y-D)$ $D = \min(y, C1-x)$	Pour from Jug 2 to Jug 1

Formalizing search

- **Solution:** sequence of actions associated with a path from a start node to a goal node
- **Solution cost:** sum of the arc costs on the solution path
 - If all arcs have same (unit) cost, then solution cost is length of solution (number of steps)
 - Algorithms generally require that arc costs cannot be negative (why?)

Formalizing search

- **State-space search:** searching through state space for solution by **making explicit** a portion of an **implicit** state-space graph to find a goal node
 - Can't materializing whole space for large problems
 - Initially $V=\{S\}$, where S is the start node, $E=\{\}$
 - On **expanding** S , its **successor nodes** are generated and added to V and associated **arcs added to E**
 - Process continues until a goal node is found
- Nodes represent a *partial solution* path (+ cost of partial solution path) from S to the node
 - From a node there may be many possible paths (and thus solutions) with this partial path as a prefix

State-space search algorithm

;; problem describes the start state, operators, goal test, and operator costs

;; queueing-function is a comparator function that ranks two states

;; general-search returns either a goal node or failure

```
function general-search (problem, QUEUEING-FUNCTION)
  nodes = MAKE-QUEUE (MAKE-NODE (problem.INITIAL-STATE) )
  loop
    if EMPTY(nodes) then return "failure"
    node = REMOVE-FRONT(nodes)
    if problem.GOAL-TEST (node.STATE) succeeds
      then return node
    nodes = QUEUEING-FUNCTION (nodes, EXPAND (node,
      problem.OPERATORS) )
  end
```

;; Note: The goal test is NOT done when nodes are generated

;; Note: This algorithm does not detect loops

Key procedures to be defined

- EXPAND
 - Generate a node's successor nodes, adding them to the graph if not already there
- GOAL-TEST
 - Test if state satisfies all goal conditions
- QUEUEING-FUNCTION
 - Maintain ranked list of nodes that are candidates for expansion
 - Changing definition of the QUEUEING-FUNCTION leads to different search strategies: Which node to expand next

Bookkeeping

Typical node data structure includes:

- State at this node
- Parent node(s)
- Action(s) applied to get to this node
- Depth of this node (# of actions on shortest known path from initial state)
- Cost of path (sum of action costs on best path from initial state)

Some issues

- Search process constructs a search tree/graph, where
 - **root** is initial state and
 - **leaf nodes** are nodes
 - not yet expanded (i.e., in list “nodes”) or
 - having no successors (i.e., they’re *deadends* because no operators were applicable and yet they are not goals)
- Search tree may be infinite due to loops; even graph may be infinite for some problems
- Solution is a *path* or a *node*, depending on problem.
 - E.g., in cryptarithmic return a node; in 8-puzzle, a path
- Changing definition of the QUEUEING-FUNCTION leads to different search strategies

Informed vs. uninformed search



Uninformed search strategies (blind search)

- Use no information about likely *direction* of a goal
- Methods: breadth-first, depth-first, depth-limited, uniform-cost, depth-first iterative deepening, bidirectional

Informed search strategies (heuristic search)

- Use information about domain to (try to) (usually) head in the general direction of goal node(s)
- Methods: hill climbing, best-first, greedy search, beam search, algorithm A, algorithm A*

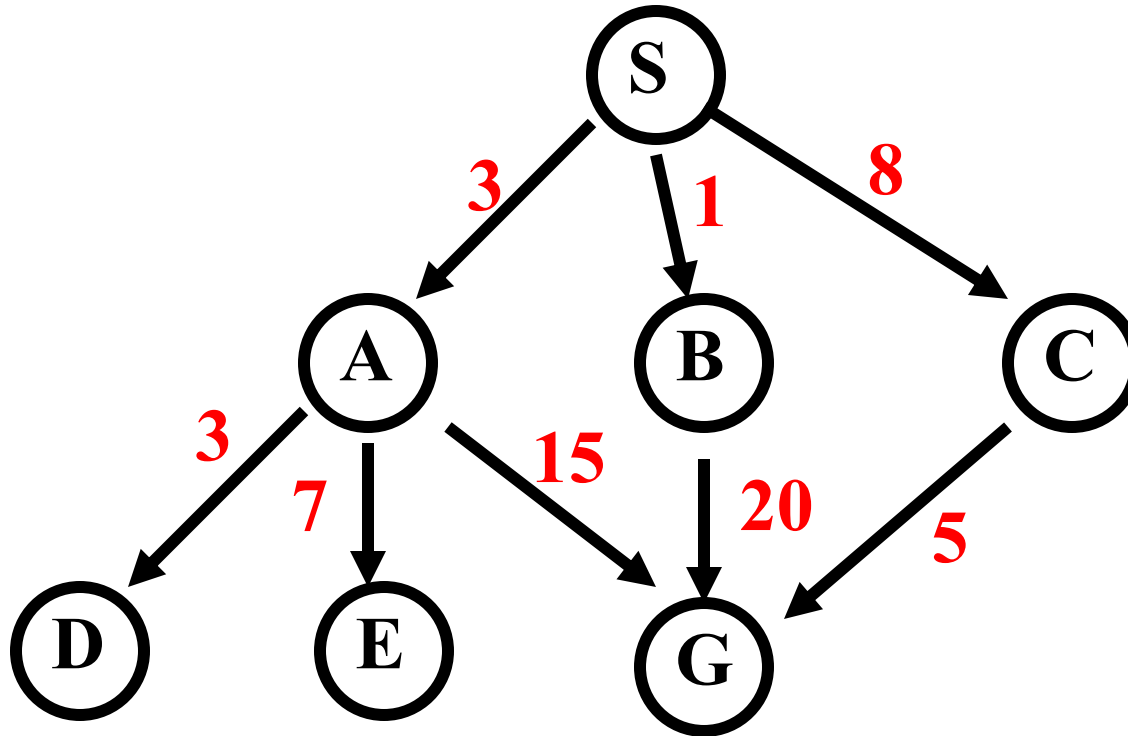
Evaluating search strategies

- **Completeness**
 - Guarantees finding a solution whenever one exists
- **Time complexity** (worst or average case)
 - Usually measured by *number of nodes expanded*
- **Space complexity**
 - Usually measured by maximum size of graph/tree during the search
- **Optimality (aka Admissibility)**
 - If a solution is found, is it **guaranteed** to be an optimal one, i.e., one with minimum cost

Classic uninformed search methods

- The four classic uninformed search methods
 - Breadth first search (BFS)
 - Depth first search (DFS)
 - Uniform cost search (*generalization of BFS*)
 - Iterative deepening (*blend of DFS and BFS*)
- To which we can add another technique
 - Bi-directional search (*hack on BFS*)

Example of uninformed search strategies

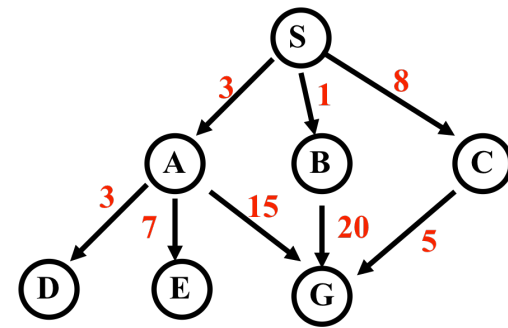


Consider this search space where S is the start node, G is the goal, and numbers are arc costs

assume graph is not known in advance

Breadth-First Search

ignore weights on arcs



Expanded node

Nodes list (aka Fringe)

	$\{ S^0 \}$
S^0	$\{ A^3 B^1 C^8 \}$
A^3	$\{ B^1 C^8 D^6 E^{10} G^{18} \}$
B^1	$\{ C^8 D^6 E^{10} G^{18} G^{21} \}$
C^8	$\{ D^6 E^{10} G^{18} G^{21} G^{13} \}$
D^6	$\{ E^{10} G^{18} G^{21} G^{13} \}$
E^{10}	$\{ G^{18} G^{21} G^{13} \}$
G^{18}	$\{ G^{21} G^{13} \}$

FIFO (queue)

Notation

G¹⁸

G is node; 18 is cost of shortest known path from S

- Typically don't check if node is goal until we expand it (why?)
- Solution path found is S A G , cost 18
- # nodes expanded (including goal node) = 7

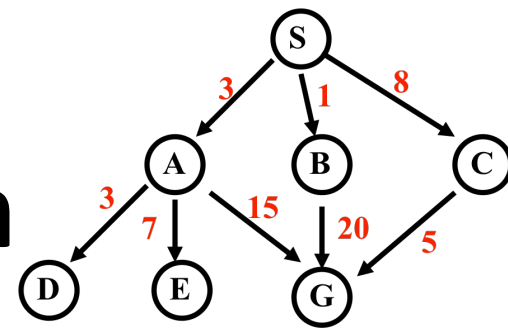
Breadth-First Search (BFS)

- **Long time to find solutions** with many steps: we must look at all shorter length possibilities first
 - Complete tree of depth d where nodes have b children has $1+b+b^2+\dots+b^d = (b^{(d+1)}-1)/(b-1)$ nodes = **$O(b^d)$**
 - Tree with depth 12 & branching 10 > trillion nodes
 - If BFS expands 1000 nodes/sec and nodes uses 100 bytes, can take 35 years & uses 111TB of memory!
- + **Always finds solution if one exists**
- + **Solution found is optimal**

Breadth-First Search

- Enqueue nodes in **FIFO** (first-in, first-out) order
- **Complete**
- **Optimal** (i.e., admissible) finds shortest path, which is optimal if all operators have same cost
- **Exponential time and space complexity, $O(b^d)$** , where d is depth of solution; b is branching factor (i.e., # of children)
- **Long time to find long solutions** since we explore all shorter length possibilities first

Depth-First Search



Expanded node

Nodes list (aka fringe)

{ S⁰ }

LIFO (stack)

S⁰

{ A³ B¹ C⁸ }

A³

{ D⁶ E¹⁰ G¹⁸ B¹ C⁸ }

D⁶

{ E¹⁰ G¹⁸ B¹ C⁸ }

E¹⁰

{ G¹⁸ B¹ C⁸ }

G¹⁸

{ B¹ C⁸ }

Solution path found is S A G, cost 18

Number of nodes expanded (including goal node) = 5

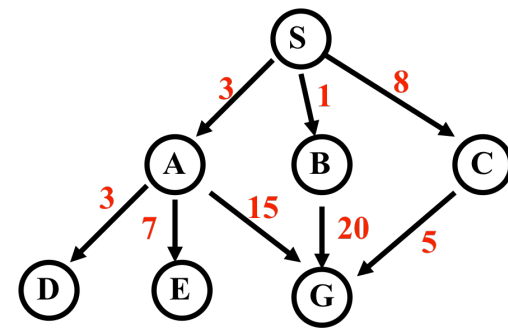
Depth-First (DFS)

- Enqueue nodes on nodes in **LIFO** (last-in, first-out) order, i.e., use stack data structure to order nodes
- **May not terminate** *w/o depth bound*, i.e., ending search below fixed depth D (depth-limited search)
- **Not complete** (with or w/o cycle detection, with or w/o a cutoff depth)
- **Exponential time**, $O(b^d)$, but **linear space**, $O(bd)$
- Can find **long solutions quickly** if lucky (and **short solutions slowly** if unlucky!)
- On reaching deadend, can only back up one level at a time even if problem occurs because of a bad choice at top of tree

Uniform-Cost Search (UCS)

- Enqueue nodes by **path cost**. i.e., let $g(n)$ = cost of path from *start* to current node n . Sort nodes by increasing value of $g(n)$.
- Aka [Dijkstra's Algorithm](#) and similar to [Branch and Bound Algorithm](#) from operations research
- **Complete (*)**
- **Optimal/Admissible (*)**
Depends on goal test being applied *when node is removed from nodes list*, not when its parent node is expanded & node first generated
- **Exponential time and space complexity, $O(b^d)$**

Uniform-Cost Search



Expanded node

Nodes list

	$\{ S^0 \}$
S^0	$\{ B^1 A^3 C^8 \}$
B^1	$\{ A^3 C^8 G^{21} \}$
A^3	$\{ D^6 C^8 E^{10} G^{18} G^{21} \}$
D^6	$\{ C^8 E^{10} G^{18} G^{21} \}$
C^8	$\{ E^{10} G^{13} G^{18} G^{21} \}$
E^{10}	$\{ G^{13} G^{18} G^{21} \}$
G^{13}	$\{ G^{18} G^{21} \}$

priority queue

Solution path found is S C G, cost 13

Number of nodes expanded (including goal node) = 7

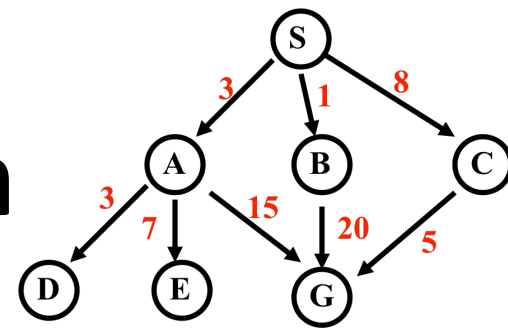
Depth-First Iterative Deepening (DFID)

- Do DFS to depth 0, then (if no solution) DFS to depth 1, etc.
- Often used with a tree search
- **Complete**
- **Optimal/Admissible** if all operators have unit cost, else finds shortest solution (like BFS)
- Time complexity a bit worse than BFS or DFS
Nodes near top of search tree generated many times, but since almost all nodes are near tree bottom, worst case time complexity still exponential, $O(b^d)$

Depth-First Iterative Deepening (DFID)

- If branching factor is b and solution is at depth d , then nodes at depth d are generated once, nodes at depth $d-1$ are generated twice, etc.
 - Hence $b^d + 2b^{(d-1)} + \dots + db \leq b^d / (1 - 1/b)^2 = O(b^d)$.
 - If $b=4$, worst case is $1.78 * 4^d$, i.e., 78% more nodes searched than exist at depth d (in worst case)
- **Linear space complexity**, $O(bd)$, like DFS
- Has advantages of BFS (completeness) and DFS (i.e., limited space, finds longer paths quickly)
- Preferred for **large state spaces** where **solution depth is unknown**

How they perform



- **Depth-First Search:**

- 4 Expanded nodes: S A D E G
- Solution found: S A G (cost 18)

- **Breadth-First Search:**

- 7 Expanded nodes: S A B C D E G
- Solution found: S A G (cost 18)

- **Uniform-Cost Search:**

- 7 Expanded nodes: S A D B C E G
- Solution found: S C G (cost 13)

Only uninformed search that worries about costs

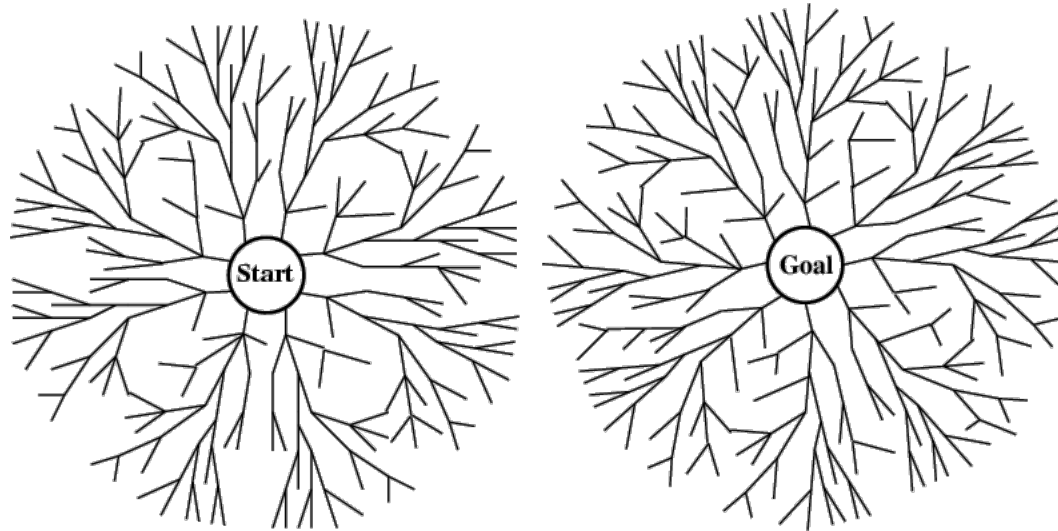
- **Iterative-Deepening Search:**

- 10 nodes expanded: S S A B C S A D E G
- Solution found: S A G (cost 18)

Searching Backward from Goal

- Usually a successor function is reversible
 - i.e., can generate a node's predecessors in graph
- If we know a single goal (rather than a goal's properties), we could search backward to the initial state
- It might be more efficient
 - Depends on whether the graph fans in or out

Bi-directional search



- Alternate searching from the start state toward the goal and from the goal state toward the start
- Stop when the frontiers intersect
- Works well only when there are unique start & goal states
- Requires ability to generate “predecessor” states
- Can (sometimes) lead to finding a solution more quickly

Comparing Search Strategies

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

Summary

- Search in a problem space is at the heart of many AI systems
- Formalizing the search in terms of states, actions, and goals is key
- The simple “uninformed” algorithms we examined can be augmented to heuristics to improve them in various ways
- But for some problems, a simple algorithm is best