# Searching the State Space

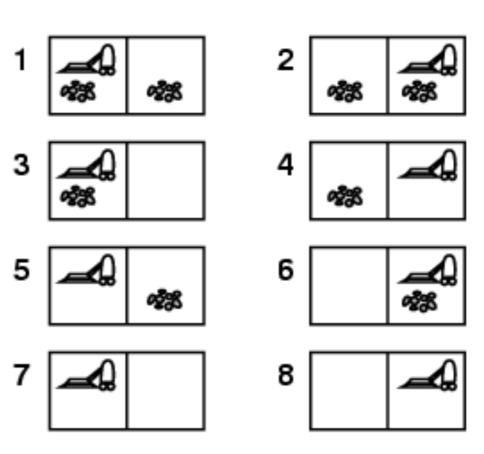
Part 1

#### State space

- A state is a data structure (object) that represents a possible configuration of the world (agent and environment).
- The state space of a problem is the set of all possible states for that problem.
- Example: A vacuum cleaner agent in two adjacent rooms which can be either clean or dirty.

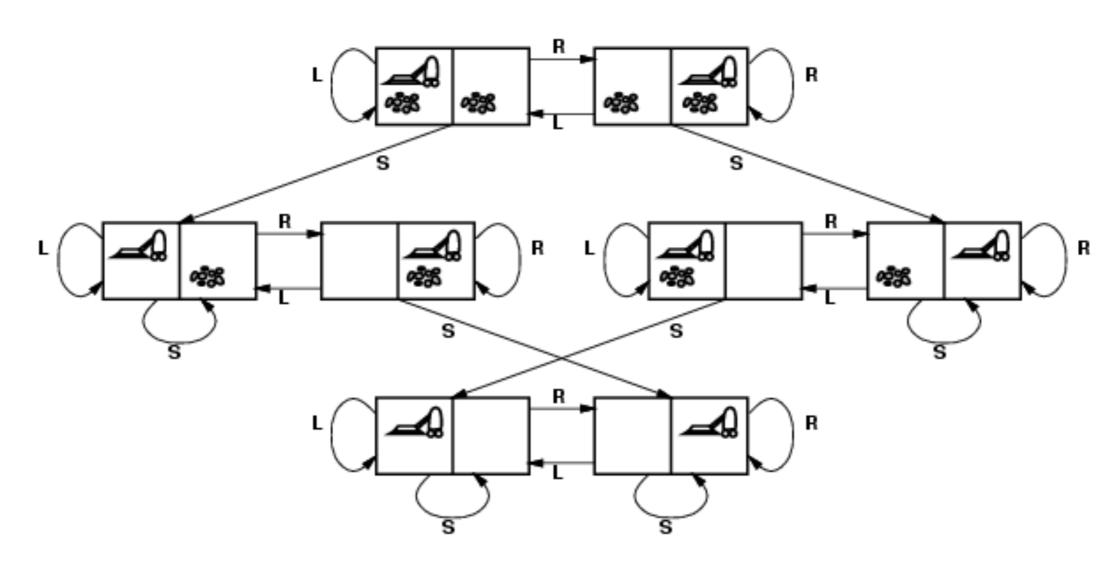
- Location = {left, right}
- Left-room-condition = {dirty, clean}
- Right-room-condition = {dirty, clean}
- State-space = Location
  - × Left-room-condition
  - × Right-room-condition

In this example, each state is represented by a triple (3-tuple).



## State space graphs

- Actions change the state of the world.
- Example: Suppose the vacuum cleaner agent can take the following actions: L (go left), R (go right), S (suck).



## Directed graphs

- Many Al problems can be abstracted into the problem of finding a path in a directed graph.
- A graph consists of a set of nodes and a set of arcs.
  - nodes are usually used for states.
  - arcs are used for actions.
- In theory, a **path** is sequence of nodes  $\langle n_0, n_1, ..., n_k \rangle$  where there is an arc from  $n_i$  to  $n_{i+1}$ . In practice, a path is sequence of arcs (see the provided Python module in the quiz.)
- The **length** of path  $\langle n_0, n_1, ..., n_k \rangle$  is k.
- An arc can have an associated cost (which could mean distance, time, energy, etc). The cost of a path is the sum of the cost of the arcs along the path.
- Given a set of **starting nodes** and a set of **goal nodes** (desired states), a **solution** is a path from a start node to a goal node.

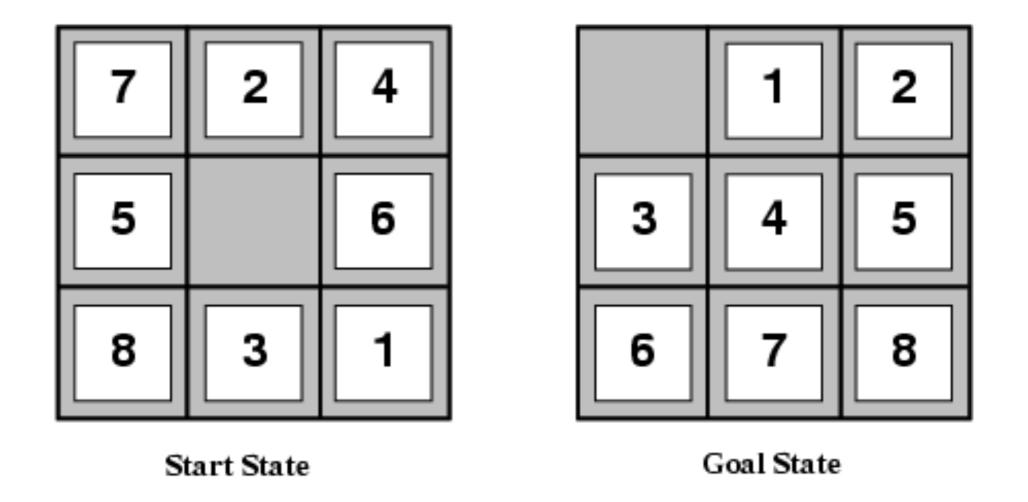
# Explicit vs Implicit graphs

- In explicit graphs nodes (vertices) and arcs (edges) are readily available. They are read from the input and stored in a data structure such as an adjacency list or an adjacency matrix.
  - The entire graph is in the memory
  - The complexity of algorithms are measured in terms of the number of vertices and/or edges.
- In implicit graphs a procedure outgoing\_arcs (or neighbours) is defined that given a node, returns the set of directed arcs that connect the node to other nodes.
  - The graph is generated on the fly.
  - The complexity of algorithms are measured in terms of the depth of a goal node and the average branching factor (average number of outgoing arcs).

#### Example: the 8-puzzle

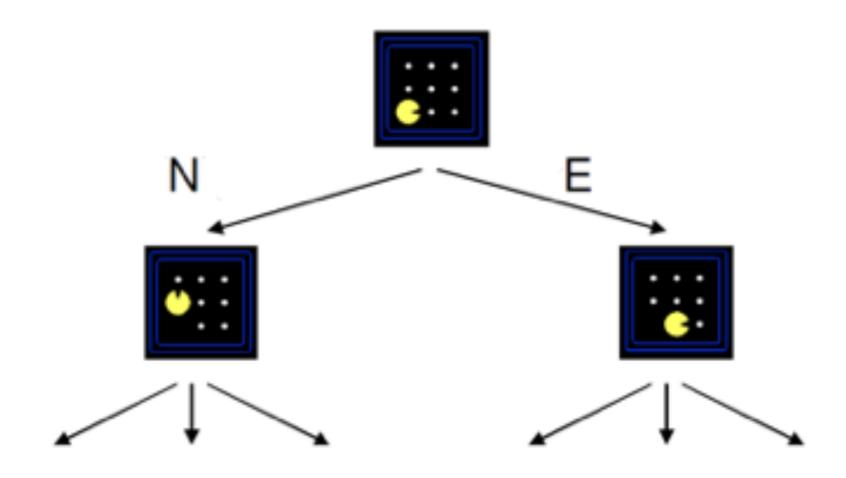
States: location of tiles

 Actions: Move tiles that can be moved (or move the blank space) left, right, up, down.



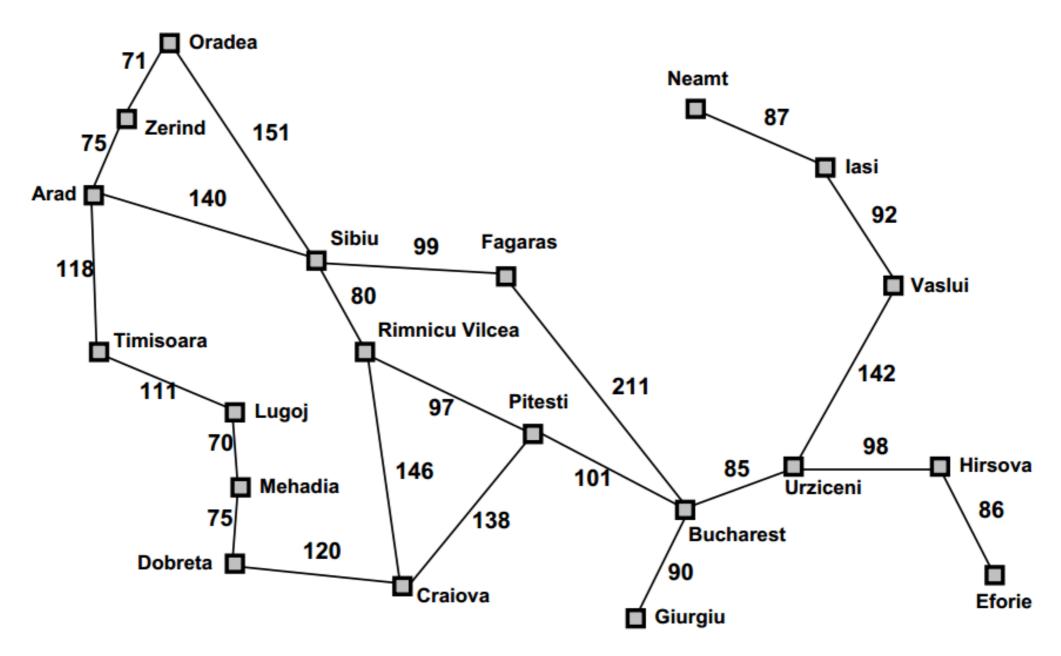
#### Example: Pac-Man

- States: permutation of food and Pacman in its world.
- Actions: N, E, S, W (when possible)
- Goal states: eaten all the food



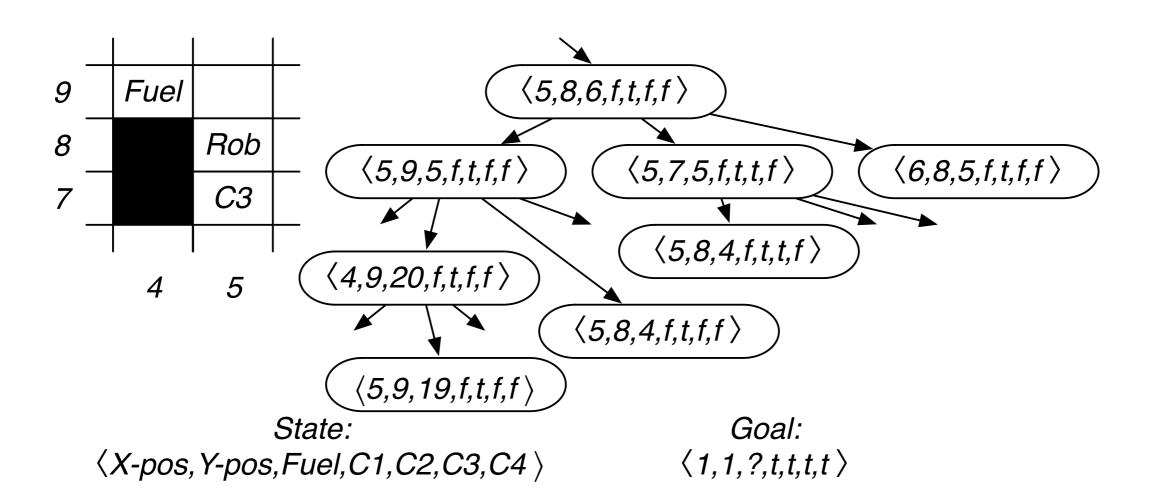
#### Example: holiday in Romania

 We are on holiday in Romania; currently in Arad. Flight leaves tomorrow from Bucharest. We need to get there.



# Example: a grid game

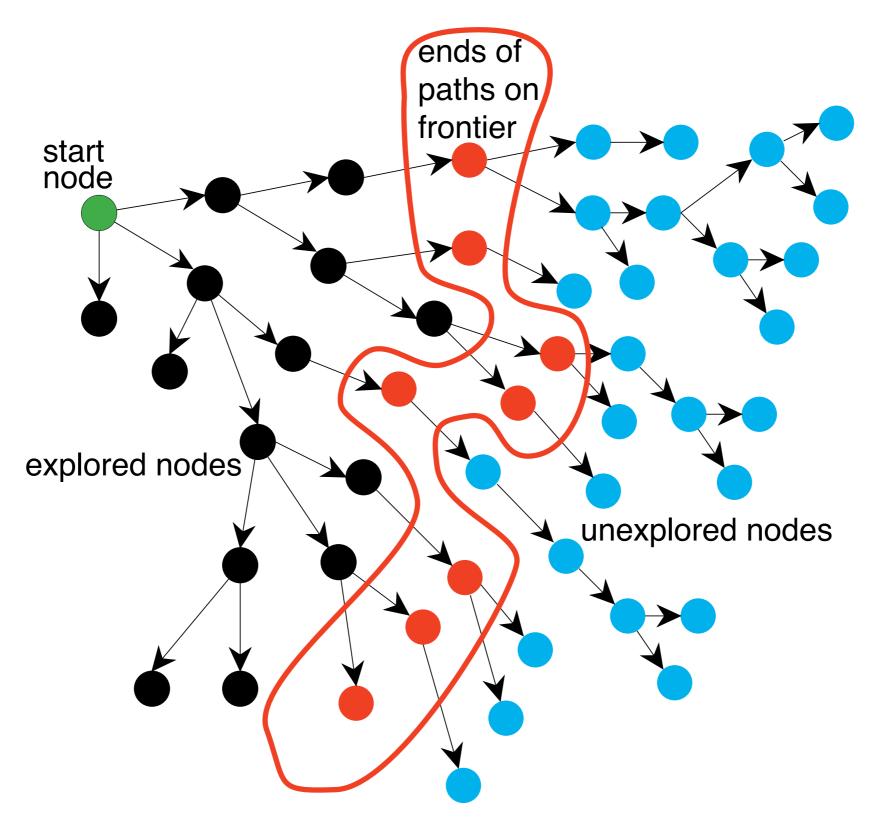
 Grid game: Rob needs to collect coins C1, C2, C3, C4, without running out of fuel, and end up at location (1, 1)



## Searching graphs

- Generic search algorithm: given a graph, start nodes, and goal nodes, incrementally explore paths from the start nodes.
- Maintain a frontier of paths that have been explored. [All the paths are from the starting node(s).]
- As search proceeds, the frontier is updated and the graph is explored until a goal node is encountered.
- The way (order) in which paths are removed from (and added to) the frontier defines the search strategy.

#### Search tree



# Generic graph search algorithm

```
Input: a graph,
         a set of start nodes,
         Boolean procedure goal(n) that tests if n is a goal node.
frontier := \{\langle s \rangle : s \text{ is a start node}\};
while frontier is not empty:
         select and remove path \langle n_0, \ldots, n_k \rangle from frontier;
         if goal(n_k)
            return \langle n_0, \ldots, n_k \rangle;
         for every neighbor n of n_k
            add \langle n_0, \ldots, n_k, n \rangle to frontier;
end while
```

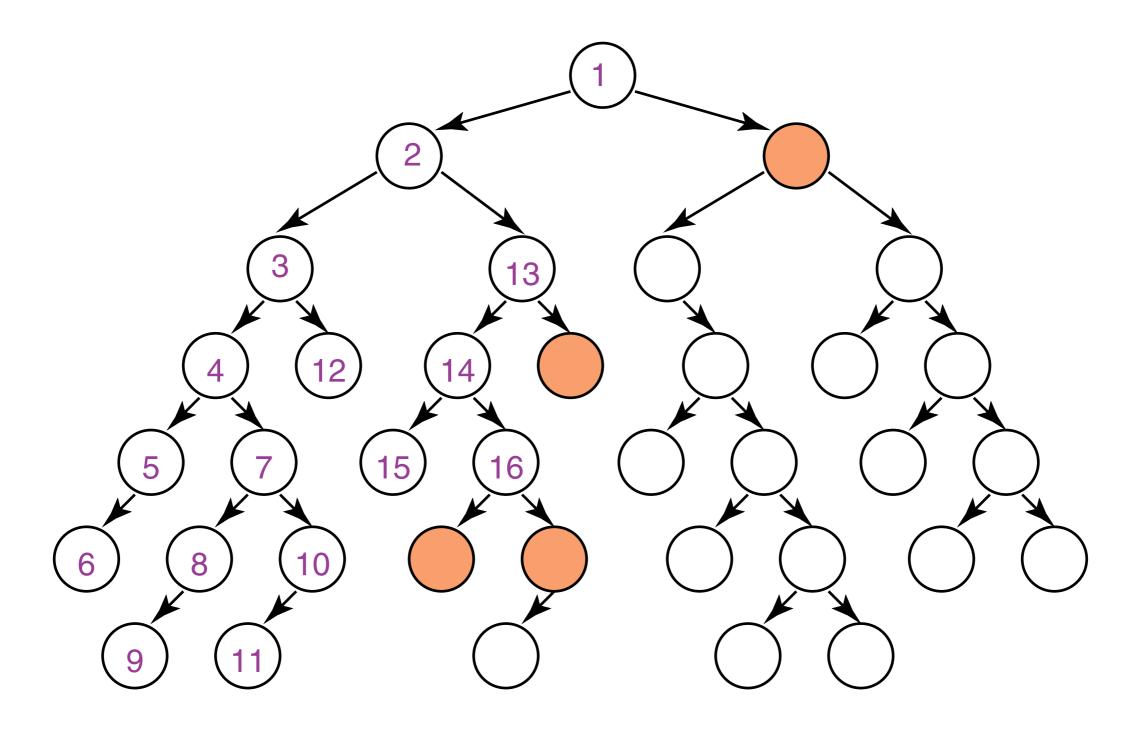
#### Remarks

- Which value is selected from the frontier at each stage defines the search strategy. In our implementation we pass a frontier object to the search procedure. The frontier object is in charge of selecting the next path.
- The function neighbors defines the graph. In our implementation we use the method outgoing\_arcs for this purpose.
- The function goal defines what is a solution. In our implementation we use the method is\_goal for this purpose.
- If more than one answer is required, the search can continue.
   For this reason, in our implementation we use yield instead of return.

#### Depth-first search

- In order to perform DFS, the generic graph search must be used with a stack frontier (last in, first out).
- If the stack is a Python list of the form [..., p, q] where each element is a path, then
  - q is selected (popped).
  - if the algorithm continues, then paths that extend q are pushed (appended) to the stack.
  - p is only selected (popped) when all paths from q have been explored.
- As a result, at each stage, the algorithm expands the deepest path.

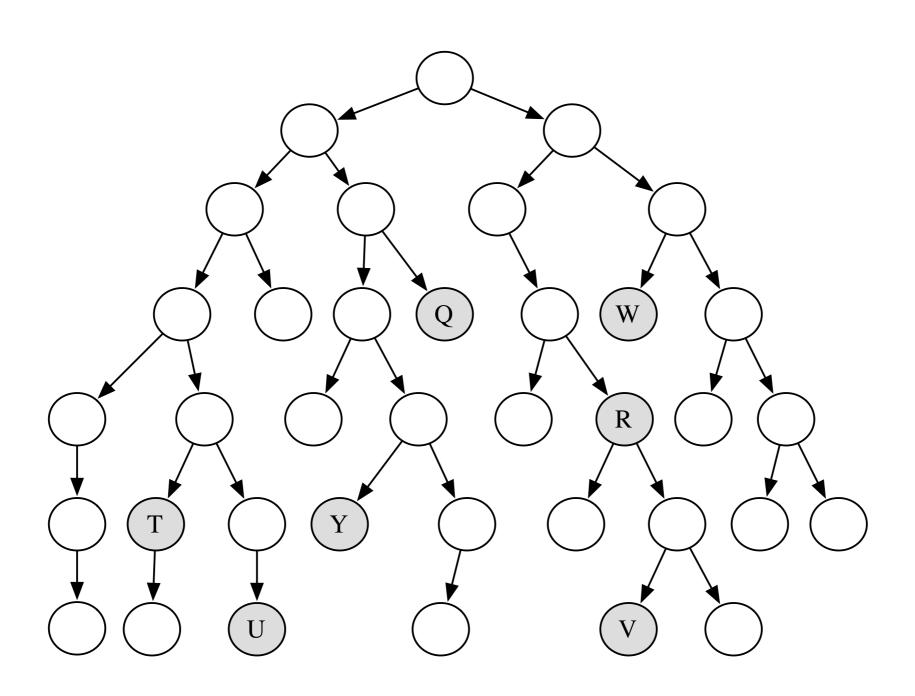
#### **DFS: illustration**



• [Assuming that in the sequence of Arcs returned by the function *neighbors* (or the method outgoing\_arcs in the implementation), the right arc comes before the left arc.]

#### DFS: behaviour

Which shaded goal will a depth-first search find first?



## DFS: behaviour and complexity

- Does DFS guarantee to find a solution with the fewest arcs (if there is a solution)?
- Is it complete? (i.e. does it guarantee to find a solution if there is one?)
- Does it halt on every graph?
- Does the goal state affect the search behaviour?

Assume a finite search tree of depth *d* and branching factor *b*:

- What is the time complexity?
- What is the space complexity?

# Explicit graphs in quizzes

- In some exercises we use small explicit graphs to study the behaviour of various search frontiers.
- Nodes are specified in a set. The use of set should remind you that the order of the nodes does not matter. The elements of the sets are strings (node names).

```
nodes={'a', 'b', 'c', 'd'}
```

- Edges are specified in a list. The use of list should remind you that the order of the edges matters. The elements are either:
  - → pairs of nodes (tail, head); or
  - → triples of nodes (tail, head, cost).

edge\_list = 
$$[('a','b',5), ('a', 'c', 3)]$$

#### How do we trace the frontier

- Starting with an empty frontier we record all the calls to the frontier: to add or to get a path. We dedicate one line per call.
- When we ask the frontier to add a path, we start the line with a + followed by the path that is being added.
- When we ask for a path from the frontier, we start the line with a followed by the path that is being removed.
- When using a priority queue, the path is followed by a comma and then the key (e.g. cost, heuristic, f-value, ...).
- The lines of the trace should match the following regular expression (case and space insensitive): ^[+-][a-z]+(,\d+)?!?\$

# Example: tracing frontier in DFS

#### Given the following graph

```
nodes={a, b, c, d},
edge_list=[(a,b), (a,d), (a, c), (c, d)],
starting_nodes = [a],
goal_nodes = {d}
```

trace the frontier in depth-first search (DFS).

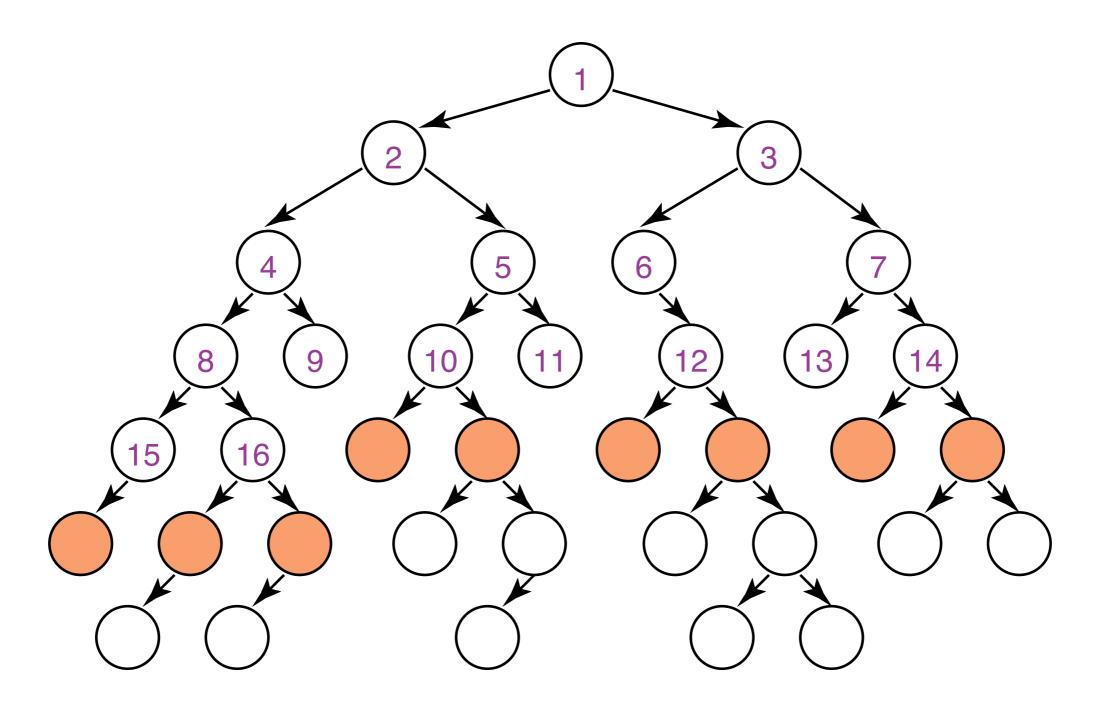
#### Answer:

- + a
- a
- + ab
- + ad
- + ac
- ac
- + acd
- acd

#### Breadth-first search

- In order to perform BFS, the generic graph search must be used with a queue frontier (first in, first out).
- If the queue is a Python deque of the form [p, q, ..., r], then
  - p is selected (dequeued from left).
  - if the algorithm continues then paths that extend p are enqueued (appended) to the queue after r.
  - in the next iteration q is selected (dequeued) from the frontier.
- As a result, at each stage, the algorithm expands the shallowest path.

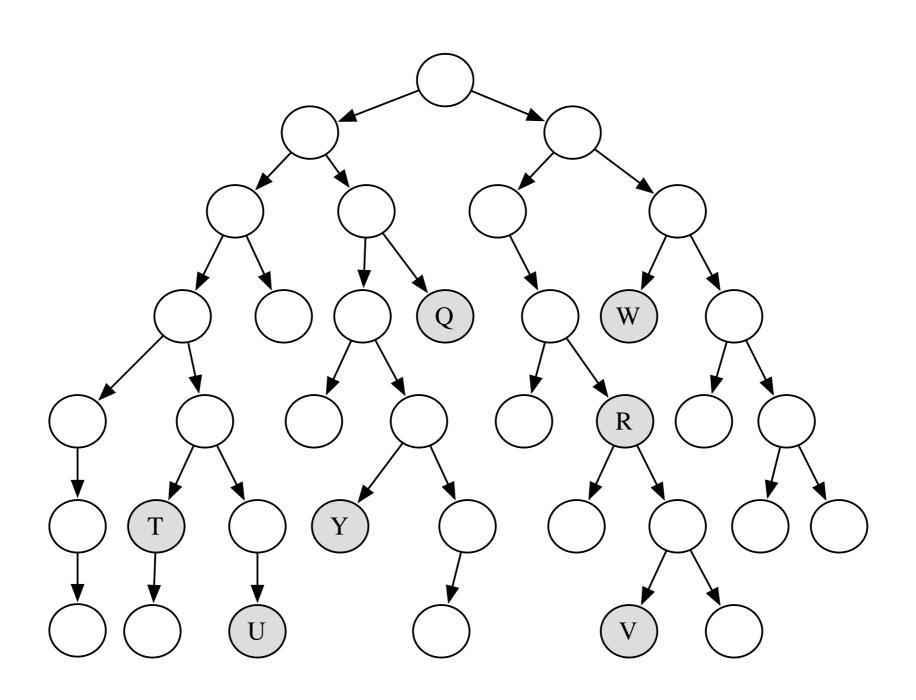
#### BFS: illustration of search tree



 [Assuming that in the sequence of Arcs returned by the function neighbors (or the method outgoing\_arcs in the implementation), the left arc comes before the right arc.]

#### **BFS:** behaviour

Which shaded goal will a breadth-first search find first?



# BFS: behaviour and complexity

- Does BFS guarantee to find a solution with the fewest arcs (if there is a solution)?
- Is it complete? (i.e. does it guarantee to find a solution if there is one?)
- Does it halt on every graph?
- Does the goal state affect the search behaviour?

Assume a finite search tree of depth *d* and branching factor *b*:

- What is the time complexity?
- What is the space complexity?

#### Example: tracing frontier in BFS

#### Given the following graph

```
nodes={a, b, c, d},
edge_list=[(a,b), (a,d), (a, c), (c, d)],
starting_nodes = [a],
goal_nodes = {d}
```

trace the frontier in breadth-first search (BFS).

#### Answer:

- + a
- a
- + ab
- + ad
- + ac
- ab
- ad

#### Lowest-cost-first search (LCFS)

- The cost of a path is the sum of the costs of its arcs.
- LCFS selects a path on the frontier with the lowest cost.
- The frontier is a priority queue ordered by path cost.
- LCFS finds an optimal solution: a least-cost path to a goal node.
- Another name for this algorithm is *uniform-cost search* (which is somewhat misleading).

# Priority queue refresher

- 1. A container in which each element has a priority (cost).
- 2. An element (path) with higher priority (lower cost) is always selected/removed/dequeued before an element with lower priority (higher cost).
- 3. We require the priority queue to be stable: if two or more elements have the same priority, elements that were enqueued earlier are dequeued earlier.
- 4. In Python you can use heapq. You need to store objects in a way that the above properties hold.

# Priority queue example

On an empty frontier, after executing:

```
+ c, 5
+ b, 10
+ a, 5
+ d, 10
```

a sequence of selection/removals yields:

- -c, 5
- a, 5
- b, 10
- d, 10

## Example: tracing frontier in LCFS

#### Given the following graph

trace the frontier in lowest-cost-first search (LCFS).

#### Answer:

```
+ a, 0
- a, 0
+ ab, 4
+ ac, 2
+ ad, 1
- ad, 1
+ adg, 5
- ac, 2
+ acg, 4
- ab, 4
+ abq, 8
- acg, 4
```