

Search Algorithms

CE2103 - Algorithms and Data Structures II



Disclaimer / Descargo de Responsabilidad

Esta presentación corresponde a una guía usada por el profesor durante las clases. La misma ha sido modificada para ser utilizado en el modelo de cursos asistidos por tecnología. No es una versión final, por lo que la misma podría requerir todavía hacer algunos ajustes. Para aspectos de evaluación esta presentación es solo una guía, por lo que el estudiante debe profundizar con el material de lectura asignado y lo discutido en clases para aspectos de evaluación.

This presentation corresponds to a guide material used by the professor during classes. It has been modified to be used in the model of technology-assisted courses. It is not a final version, so it may still require some adjustments. For evaluation aspects, this presentation is only a guide, so the student should delve with the assigned reading material and what has been discussed in class.

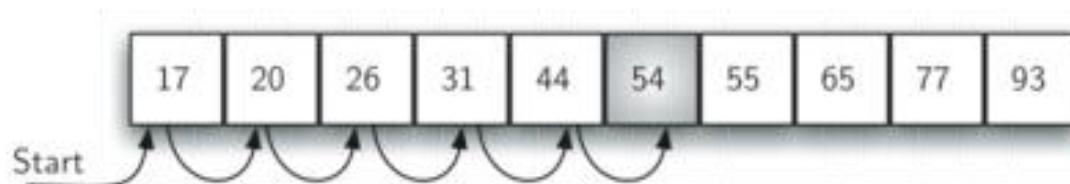
Levels of Complexity

1	Constant	Common Problems
log N	Logarithmic	
N	Linear	
N log N	Linear Logarithmic	
N²	quadratic	
N³	qubic	
2^N	Exponential	Hard Problems
N!	Factorial	

Sequential Search

Complexity:
 $O(n)$

- Is the simplest search algorithm.
- Used to search for an element in a list or vector.
- In the worst case, as many comparison as elements in the array.



Sequential Search (Code)

Complexity:
 $O(n)$

→ If the array is **not sorted**

```
01  int i = 0;
02  for(; i < N; i++) {
03      if(array[i] == number)
04          break;
05  }
06  if(i == N)
07      i = -1;
```

Sequential Search (Code)

Complexity:
 $O(n)$

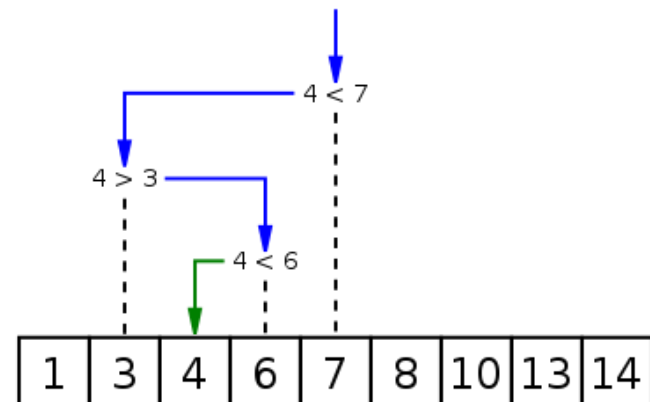
→ If the array is **sorted**

```
01  int i = 0;
02  for(; i < N; i++){
03      if(array[i] == number)
04          break;
05      if(array[i] > number) {
06          i = -1;
07          break;
08      }
09  }
10  if(i == N)
11      i = -1;
```

Binary Search

Complexity:
 $O(\log(n))$

- Finds a number in a **sorted** array.
- Compares the input element with the **middle** of the array.
- If the input element matches, return the index to that element.
- Otherwise, runs the algorithm with the right or left **subarray**, depending if the input key is greater or less than the middle element.
- Array must be sorted.



Binary Search (Code)

Complexity:
 $O(\log(n))$

```
01  int binarySearch(int pArray[], int pKey, int pIndexMin, int pIndexMax)
02  {
03      while (pIndexMax >= pIndexMin)
04      {
05          int middle = (int)((pIndexMax + pIndexMin) / 2);
06
07          if (pArray[middle] < pkey)
08              pIndexMin = middle + 1;
09          else if (pArray[middle] > pKey)
10              pIndexMax = middle - 1;
11          else
12              return middle;
13      }
14      return -1;
15  }
```


Interpolation Search

Complexity:
 $\log(n)$

$O(\log$

- Modification of Binary Search.
- In each step tries to calculate where the number might be.
- Based on the idea of looking for a person in the phonebook. If you're looking for Bob, you know it should be at the beginning.

name	number
Alice	077293
Brian	079442
Clare	0800314
Dan	076213

Interpolation Search

Complexity:
 $\log(n)$

$O(\log$

→ Modification of Binary Search.

→ In each step tries to calculate where the num

If elements are uniformly distributed, otherwise can be $O(n)$

→ Based on the idea of looking for a person in the phonebook. If you're looking for Bob, you know it should be at the beginning.

name	number
Alice	077293
Brian	079442
Clare	0800314
Dan	076213

Interpolation Search (Code)

Complexity:
 $\log(n)$

$O(\log$

01	middle = low + ((number - array[low]) * (high -
02	low)) / (array[high] - array[low]);

**Rest of the code is equal
to Binary Search**

Interpolation Search (Example)

Complexity:
 $\log(n)$

$O(\log$

01	$\text{middle} = \text{low} + ((\text{number} - \text{array}[\text{low}]) * (\text{high} - \text{low}))$ $/ (\text{array}[\text{high}] - \text{array}[\text{low}]);$
02	

5	6	9	11	15	18	20	25	28	39
---	---	---	----	----	----	----	----	----	----

Let's search for 28...

Interpolation Search (Example)

Complexity:
 $\log(n)$

$O(\log$

01	$\text{middle} = \text{low} + ((\text{number} - \text{array}[\text{low}]) * (\text{high} - \text{low}))$ $/ (\text{array}[\text{high}] - \text{array}[\text{low}]);$
02	

5	6	9	11	15	18	20	25	28	39
---	---	---	----	----	----	----	----	----	----

*The middle will be... $0 + ((28-5) * (10-0)) / (39 - 5) = 6,76 = 7$*

Interpolation Search (Example)

Complexity:
 $\log(n)$

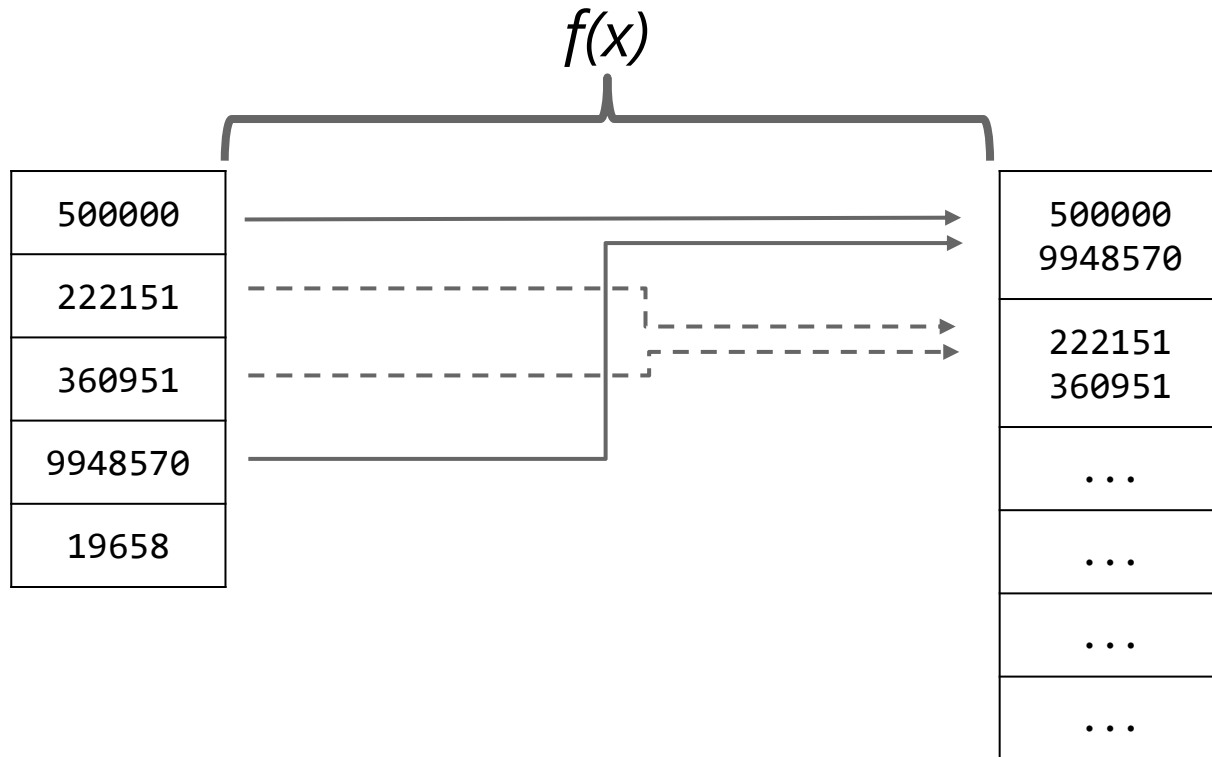
$O(\log$

01	$\text{middle} = \text{low} + ((\text{number} - \text{array}[\text{low}]) * (\text{high} - \text{low}))$ $/ (\text{array}[\text{high}] - \text{array}[\text{low}]);$
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5	6	9	11	15	18	20	25	28	39
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Hashing



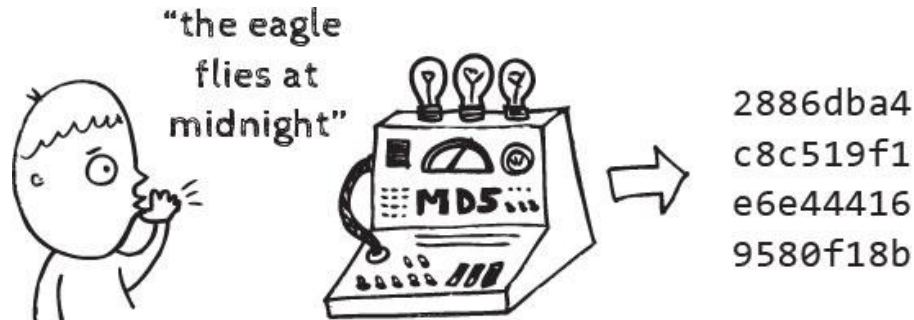
Hashing

CHARACTERISTICS

- Maps large sets of data to small sets.
- It's a fast search method.
- Hash function allows find and assign an index to a key value.
- It can map several keys to the same index.

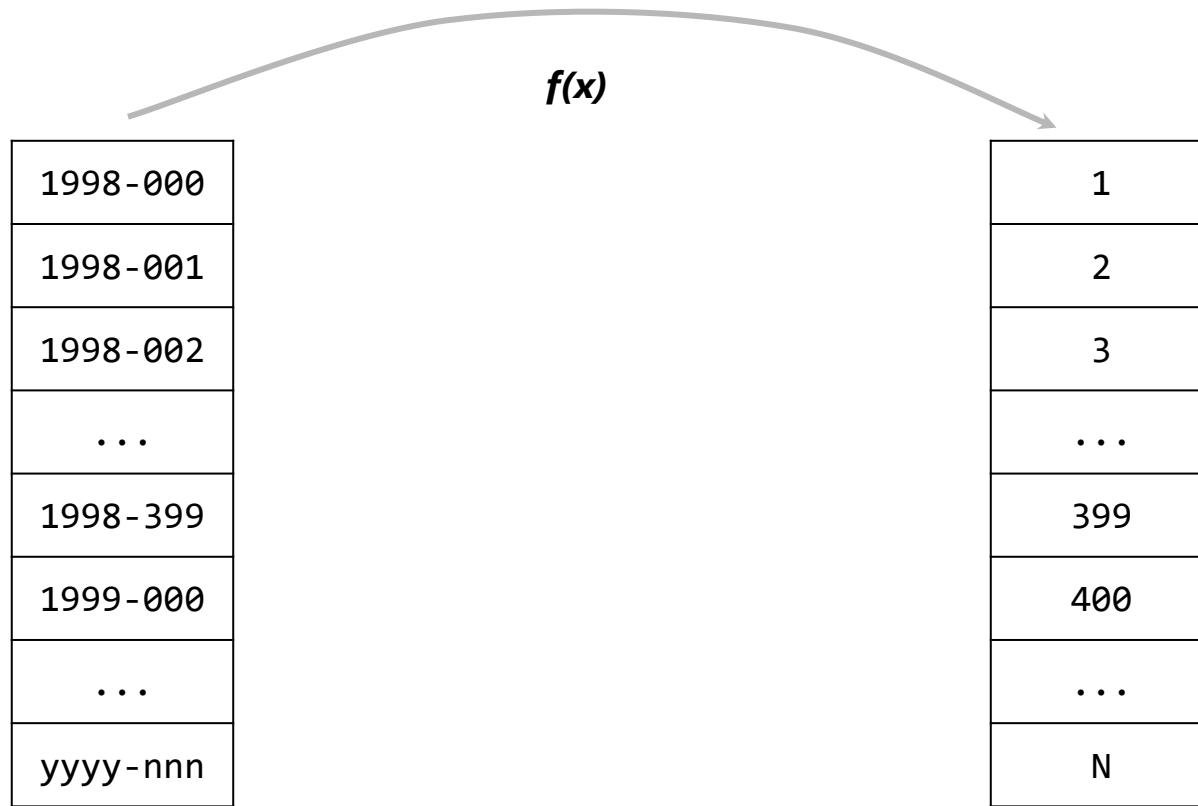
MORE CHARACTERISTICS

- Each slot in the hash table has assigned a set of data. Each slot is called bucket.
- Transforms keys to indexes.
- The basic hash function for numbers us the **identity function**. It is not used.



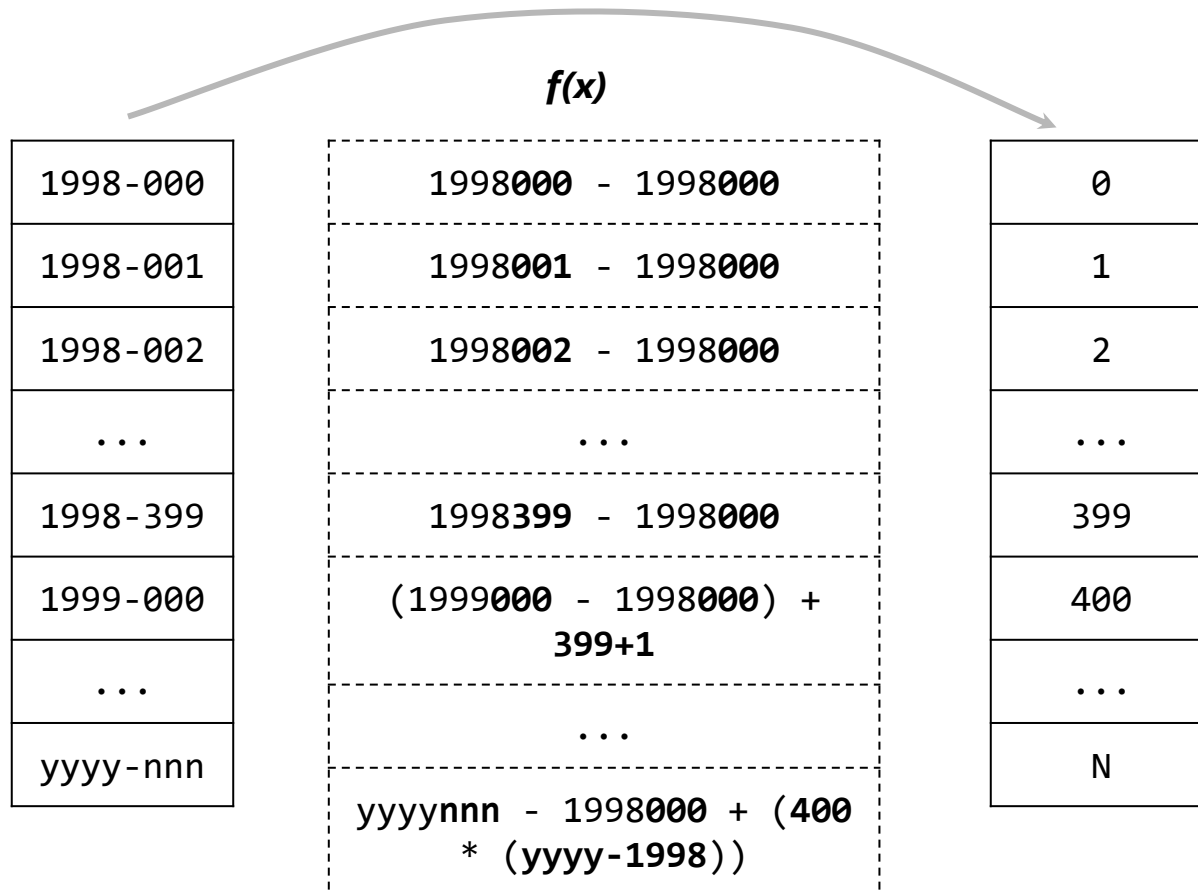
Hashing (Function)

→ Successive subtraction



Hashing (Function)

→ Successive subtraction



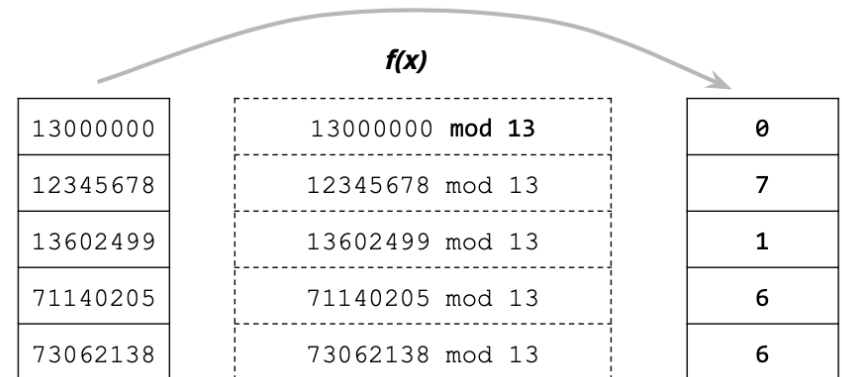
Hashing (Function)

→ Modular Arithmetic

STRATEGY

- Use a prime number.
- Index is the residue of divide the key between a number (module).
- The number defines the amount of buckets of the hash table.

EXAMPLE



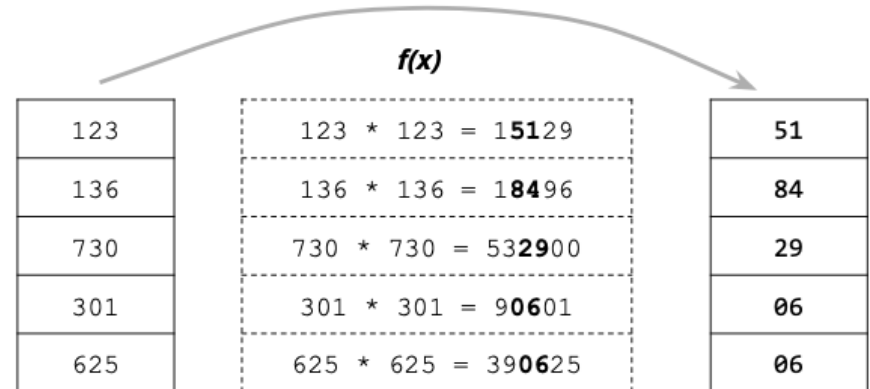
Hashing (Function)

→ Mid-Square Method

STRATEGY

- Square the key value.
- Takes the middle r digits of the result.
- It gives a value between 0 and $(2^r) - 1$

EXAMPLE



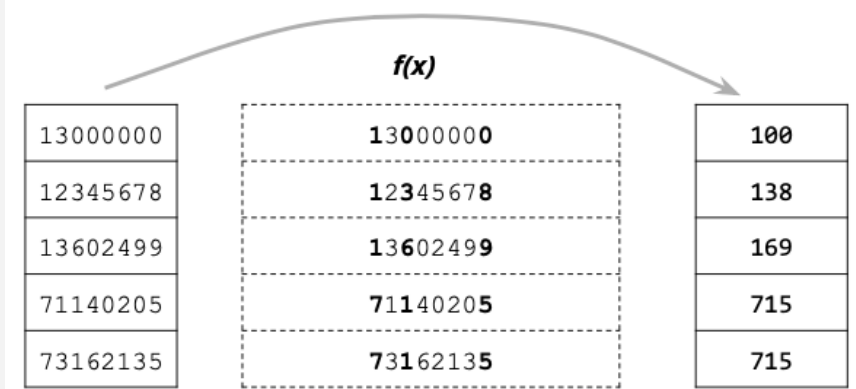
Hashing (Function)

→ Truncation Method

STRATEGY

- Ignore part of the key and use the rest as the array index.
- You don't need to get successive numbers.

EXAMPLE



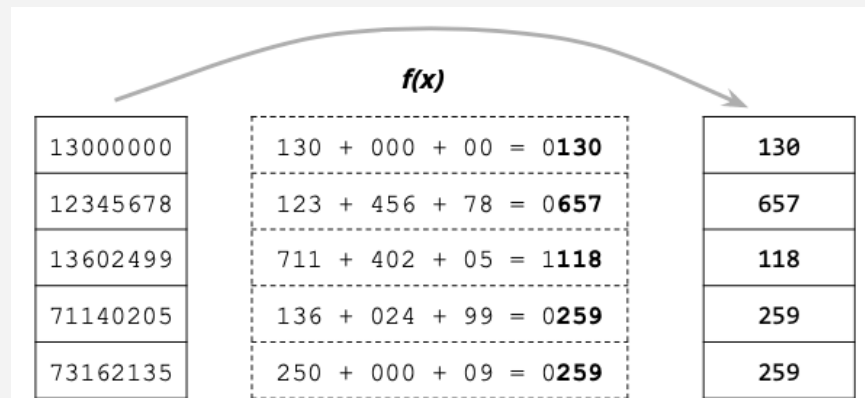
Hashing (Function)

→ Folding Method

STRATEGY

- Divide the key in parts.
- Combine this parts (might be using operator / * + -).
- For example, divide a number of 8 digits in groups of 3 digits and sum this groups.

EXAMPLE



Hashing (Function)

What's the problem of Hash Tables?

Hashing (Collisions)

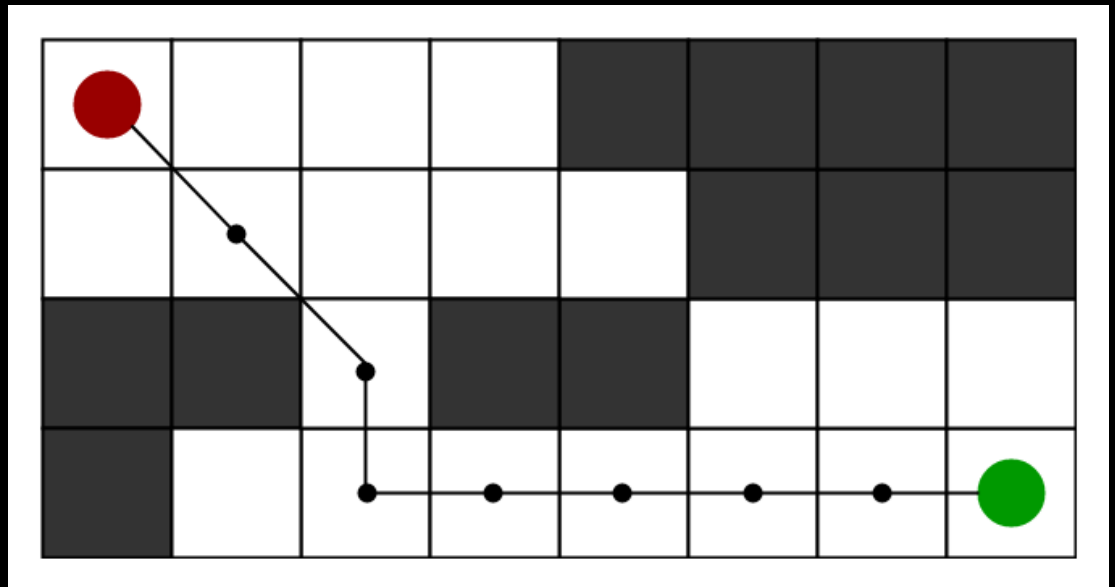
- Two or more keys with the same index.
- Collisions are practically unavoidable. Collisions Treatment in some cases is very expensive.
- Wrong choice of hash function can increase this problem.
- Almost all the hash slots remaining are empty while a few are full and present a lot of collisions.
- Small hash table and too much keys to be sorted.



Hashing

How to deal with collisions?

Pathfinding



Pathfinding

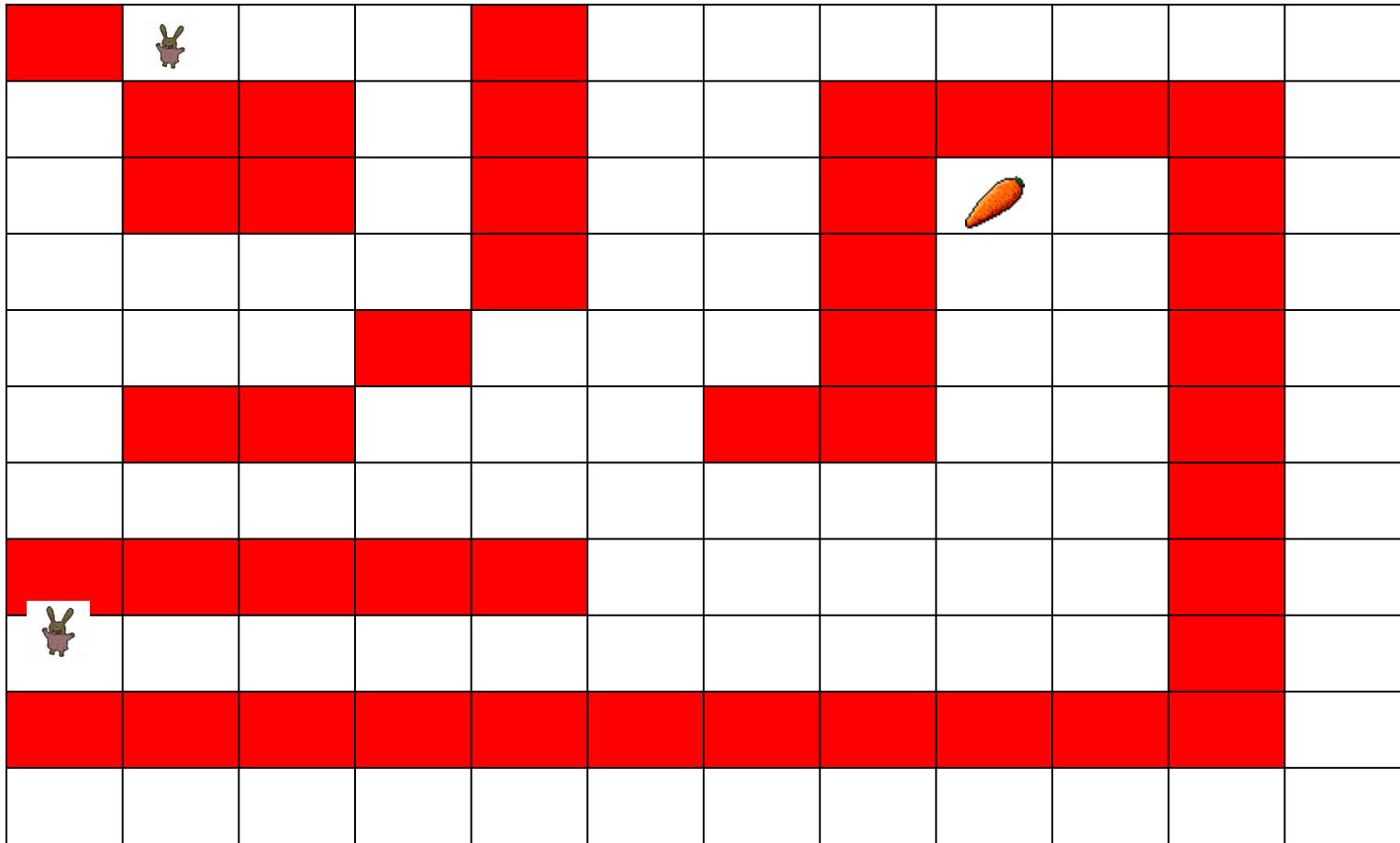
CHARACTERISTICS

- Finds the shortest route between two points.
- Used to solve mazes.
- We can abstract its functionality by saying its is an algorithm that explore adjacent nodes and selects the closest.

MORE CHARACTERISTICS

- It is usually implemented as an algorithm that runs over a matrix.
- Each matrix cell is a node.
- These kind of algorithm are used in strategy games.

Pathfinding



Pathfinding (Techniques)

- There are many ways to implement Pathfinding.
- Depends on the context:
 - ◆ Is the goal moving or stationary?
 - ◆ Are there obstacles?
 - ◆ Is the shortest solution always the best solution?
 - ◆ Is it required to reach a specific destination or just a partial route will do?

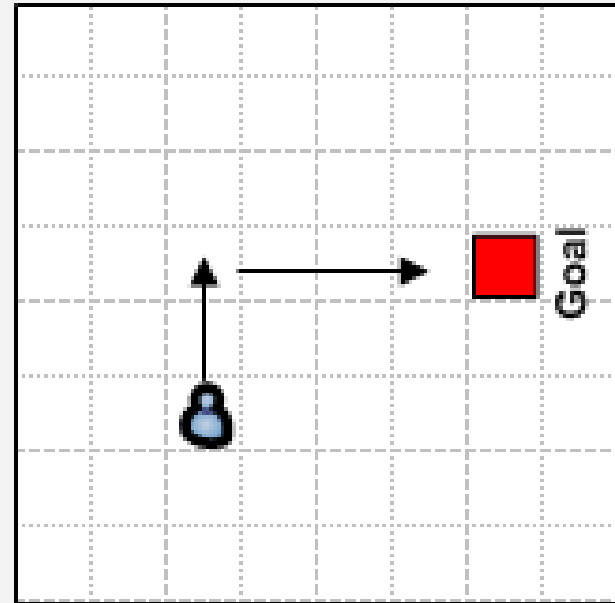
Pathfinding (Techniques)

→ Simplest Form

STRATEGY

→ **There isn't obstacles.** Just compare X and Y axis.

EXAMPLE



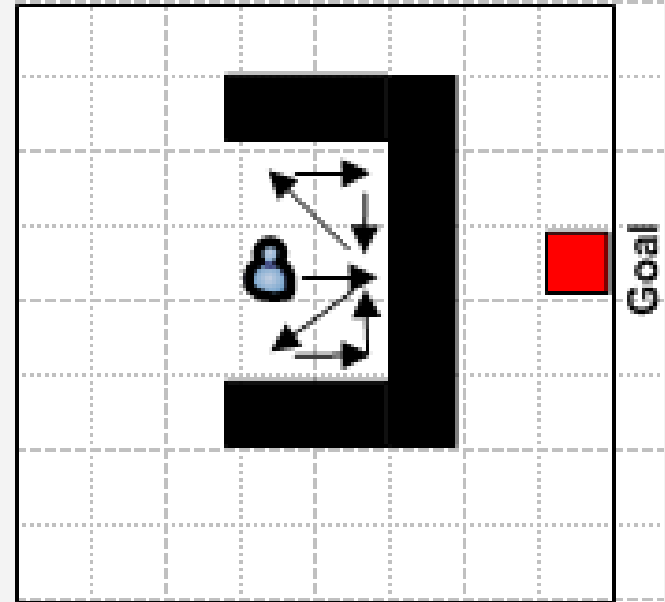
Pathfinding (Techniques)

→ Random

STRATEGY

- Take one step at a time in the direction of the goal.
- If an obstacle is encountered try to work around it by backstepping a bit **in a random direction** and then try again.

EXAMPLE



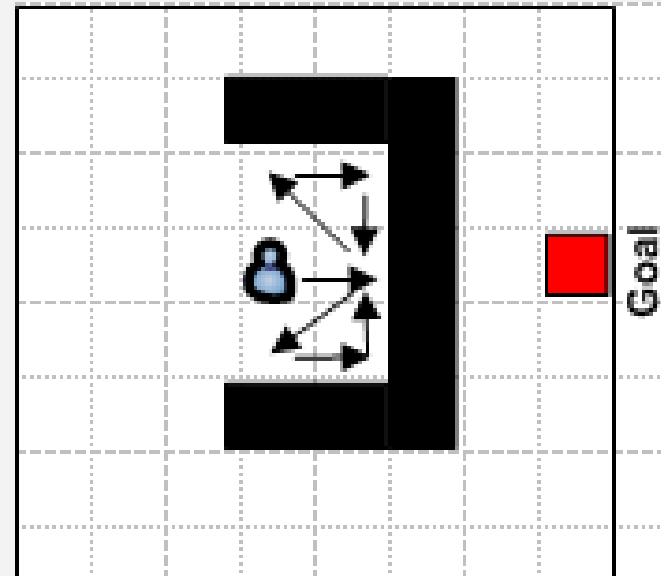
Pathfinding (Techniques)

→ Random

STRATEGY

- Take one step at a time in the direction of the goal.
- If an obstacle is encountered **takes a random adjacent cell** and tries again.

EXAMPLE



- Simplest form with obstacles.
- It shouldn't be used. Algorithm will have a "stupid" behaviour.
- Usually, this algorithm does not find the goal. **Will get stuck in a multitude of situations.**

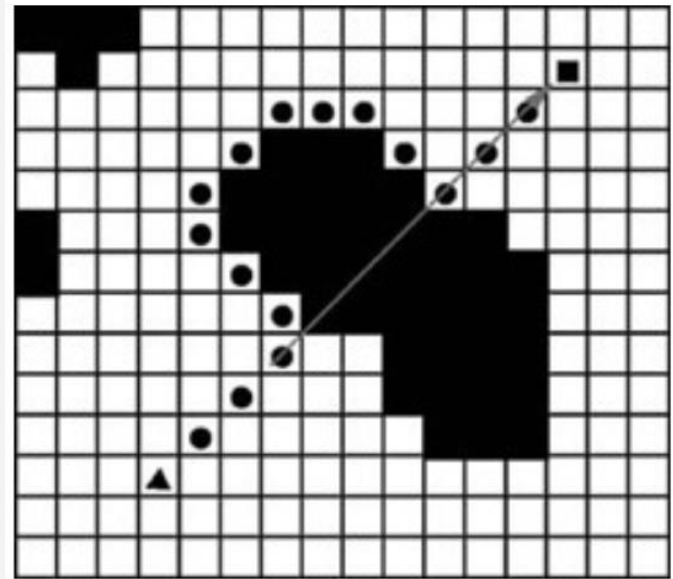
Pathfinding (Techniques)

→ Obstacle Tracing

STRATEGY

- Take one step at a time in the direction of the goal.
- If an obstacle is encountered start **tracing around the object**.
- Once there's no obstacle continue moving in the goal's direction.

EXAMPLE



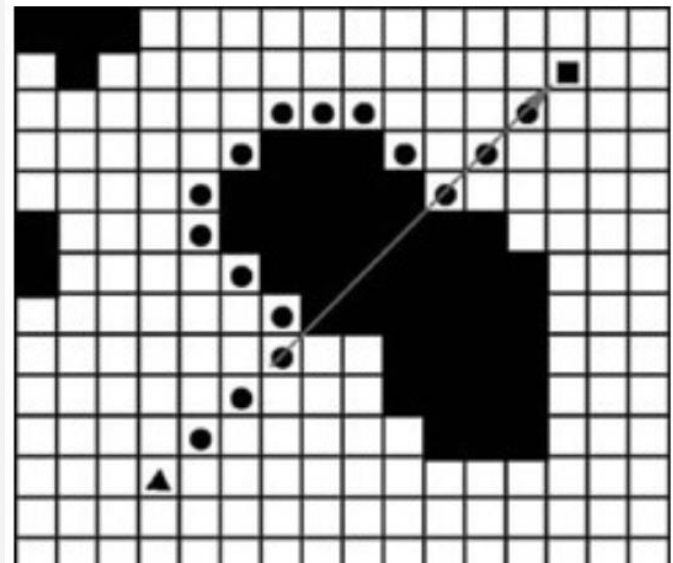
Pathfinding (Techniques)

→ Obstacle Tracing

STRATEGY

- Take one step at a time in the direction of the goal.
- If an obstacle is encountered start **tracing around the object**.
- Once there's no obstacle continue moving in the goal's direction.

EXAMPLE



→ It can also **get stuck in a multitude of situations**.

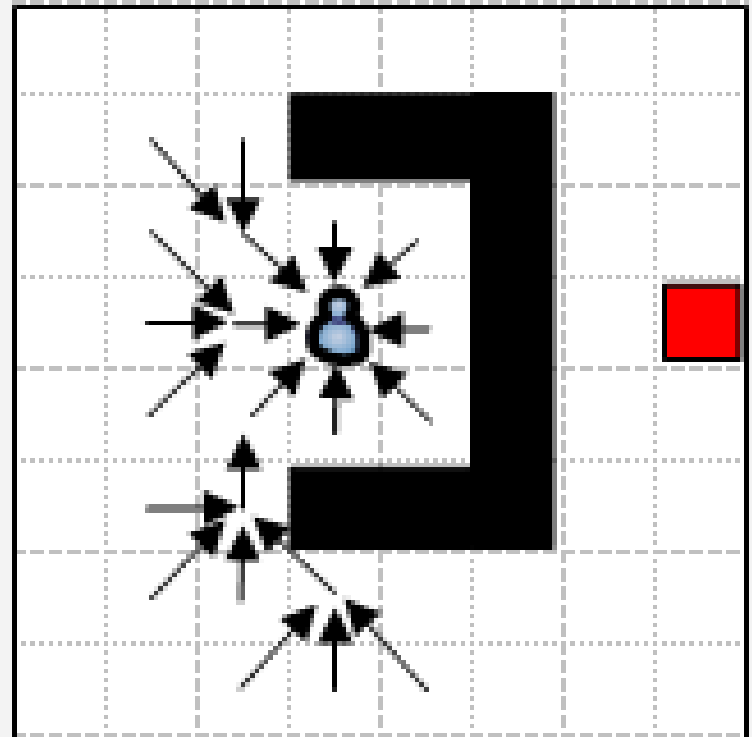
Pathfinding (Techniques)

→ Breadth-First Search (BFS)

STRATEGY

- Traverses a tree structure by fanning out to **explore the nearest neighbors and then their sublevel neighbors.**
- From the initial cell, visit the cells at one jump of distance.
- If you don't find the goal, visit at two cells of distance, if you don't find the goal, visit at three jumps and so on.
- It stops when it finds the goal.

EXAMPLE



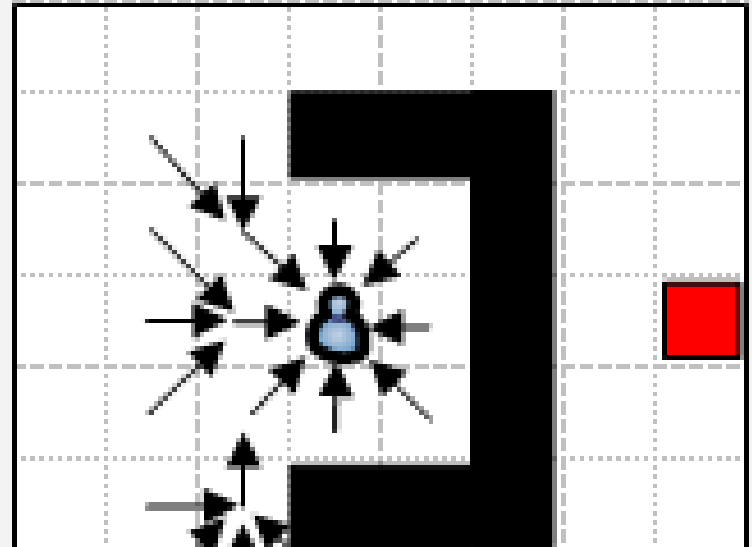
Pathfinding (Techniques)

→ Breadth-First Search (BFS)

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- From the initial cell, visit the cells at one jump of distance.
- If you don't find the goal, visit at two cells of distance, if you don't find the

EXAMPLE



- *If there is path to the goal, this algorithm will find it. Maybe not the shortest path.*
- **Inefficient.** *If the graph is unweighted it finds the shortest path although not too efficiently.*

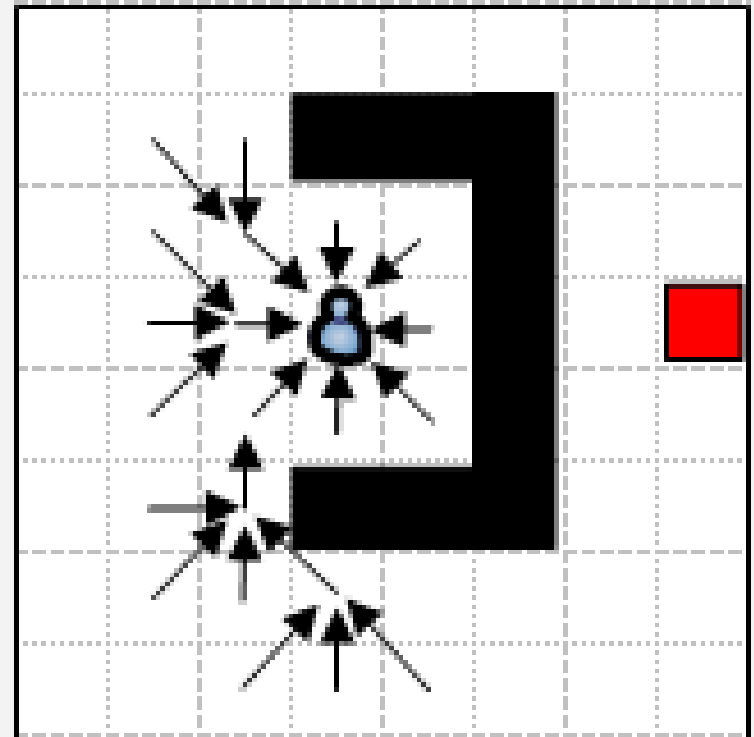
Pathfinding (Techniques)

→ Depth-First Search (DFS)

STRATEGY

→ Traverses a tree structure by **exploring as far as possible down each branch** before backtracking.

EXAMPLE



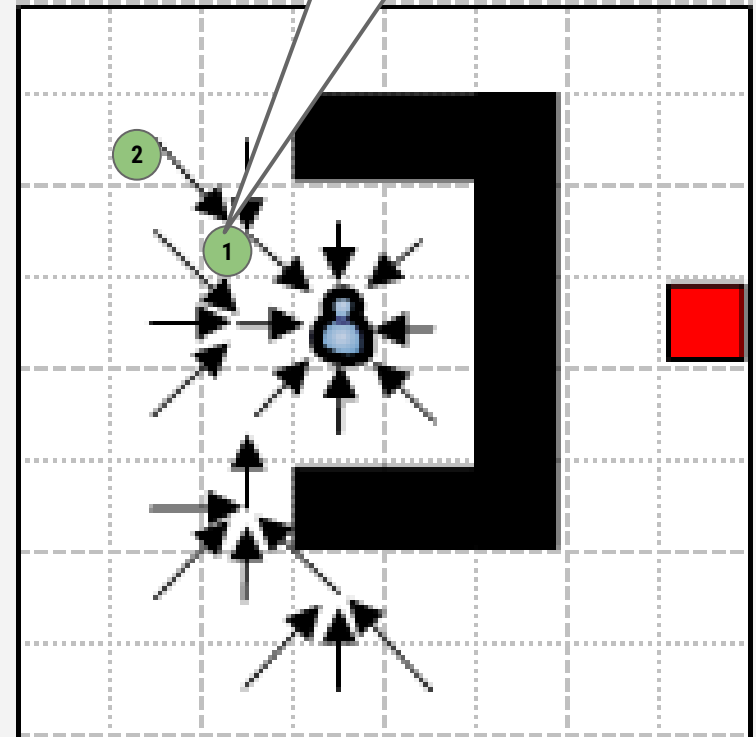
Pathfinding (Techniques)

→ Depth-First Search (DFS)

STRATEGY

→ Traverses a tree structure by **exploring as far as possible down each branch** before backtracking.

EXAMPLE



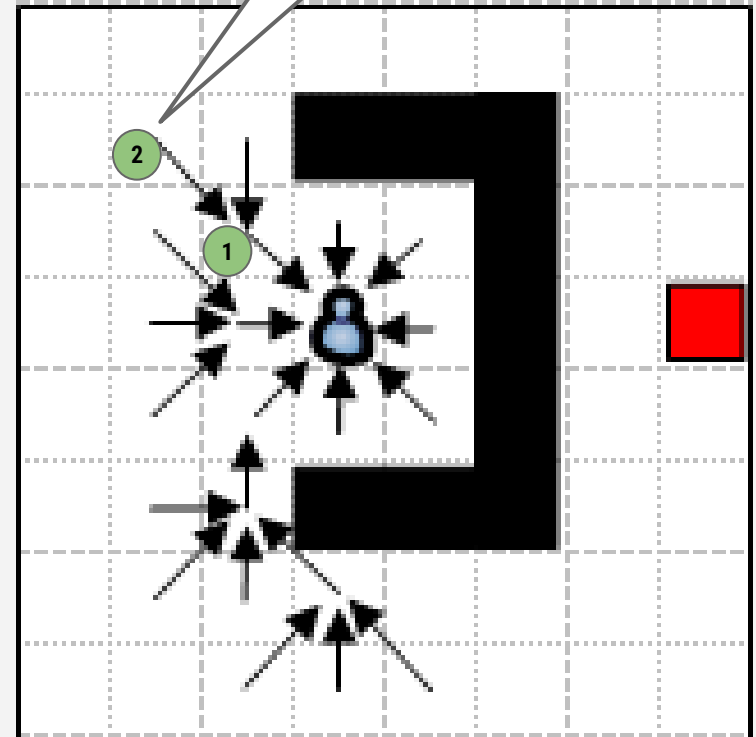
Pathfinding (Techniques)

→ Depth-First Search (DFS)

STRATEGY

→ Traverses a tree structure by **exploring as far as possible down each branch** before backtracking.

EXAMPLE



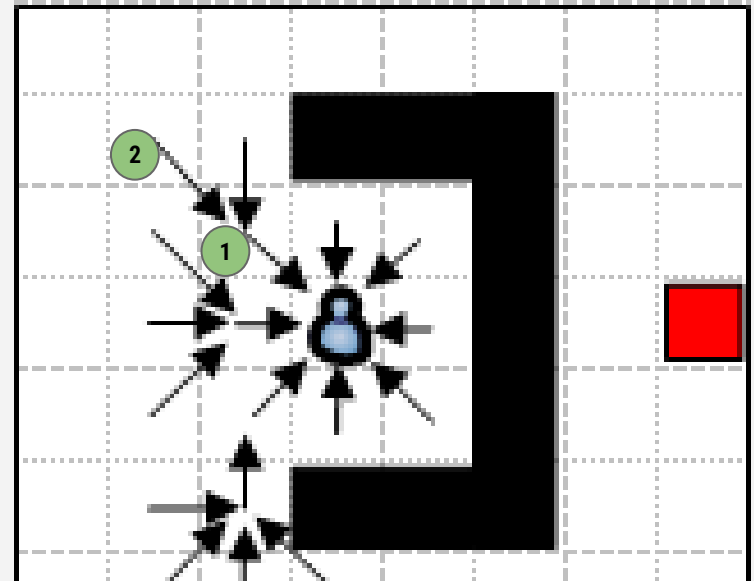
Pathfinding (Techniques)

→ Depth-First Search (DFS)

STRATEGY

- Traverses a tree structure by **exploring as far as possible down each branch** before backtracking.

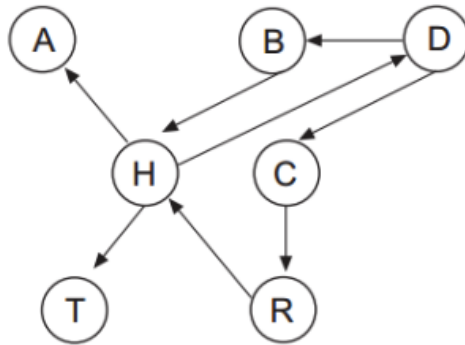
EXAMPLE



- ***Can have problems if the depth or the search is not limited.***
- *When using a recursive implementation, may lead to a stack overflow.*
- *It's better to implement it iteratively using a stack.*

Pathfinding (Techniques)

→ Difference between BFS and DFS



Queue	Visited
D	
B C	D
C H	B
H R	C
R A T	H
A T	R
T	A
Empty Queue	T

BFS

Stack	Visited nodes
D	
B C	D
B R	C
B H	R
B A T	H
B A	T
B	A
Empty Stack	B

DFS

Pathfinding (Techniques)

→ Dijkstra

STRATEGY

→ **Keeps track of the total cost** from the start to every node that is visited, and uses it to determine the best order to traverse the grapha.

EXAMPLE

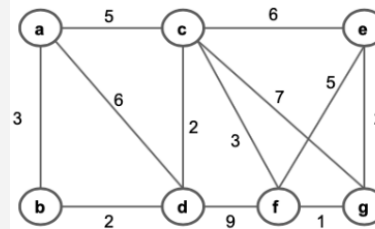
Pathfinding (Techniques)

→ Dijkstra

STRATEGY

→ **Keeps track of the total cost** from the start to every node that is visited, and uses it to determine the best order to traverse the graph.

EXAMPLE



	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 5	Step 6	Step 7
a	(0,a)	*	*	*	*	*	*
b	(3,a)	(3,a)	*	*	*	*	*
c	(5,a)	(5,a)	(5,a)	*	*	*	*
d	(6,a)	(5,b)	(5,b)	(5,b)	*	*	*
e	∞	∞	(11,c)	(11,c)	(11,c)	(11,g)	(11g)
f	∞	∞	(8,c)	(8,c)	(8,c)	*	*
g	∞	∞	(12,c)	(12,c)	(9,f)	(9,f)	*

- Works with weighted graphs and return the shortest path.
- **Might involve a lot of searching.**

Pathfinding (Techniques)

→ Best First Search

STRATEGY

- Similar to BFS but uses an heuristic that chooses the most promising neighbor first.
- The path returned may not be the shortest, but it's faster to run than BFS.

EXAMPLE

A^*

Pathfinding (A*)

STRATEGY

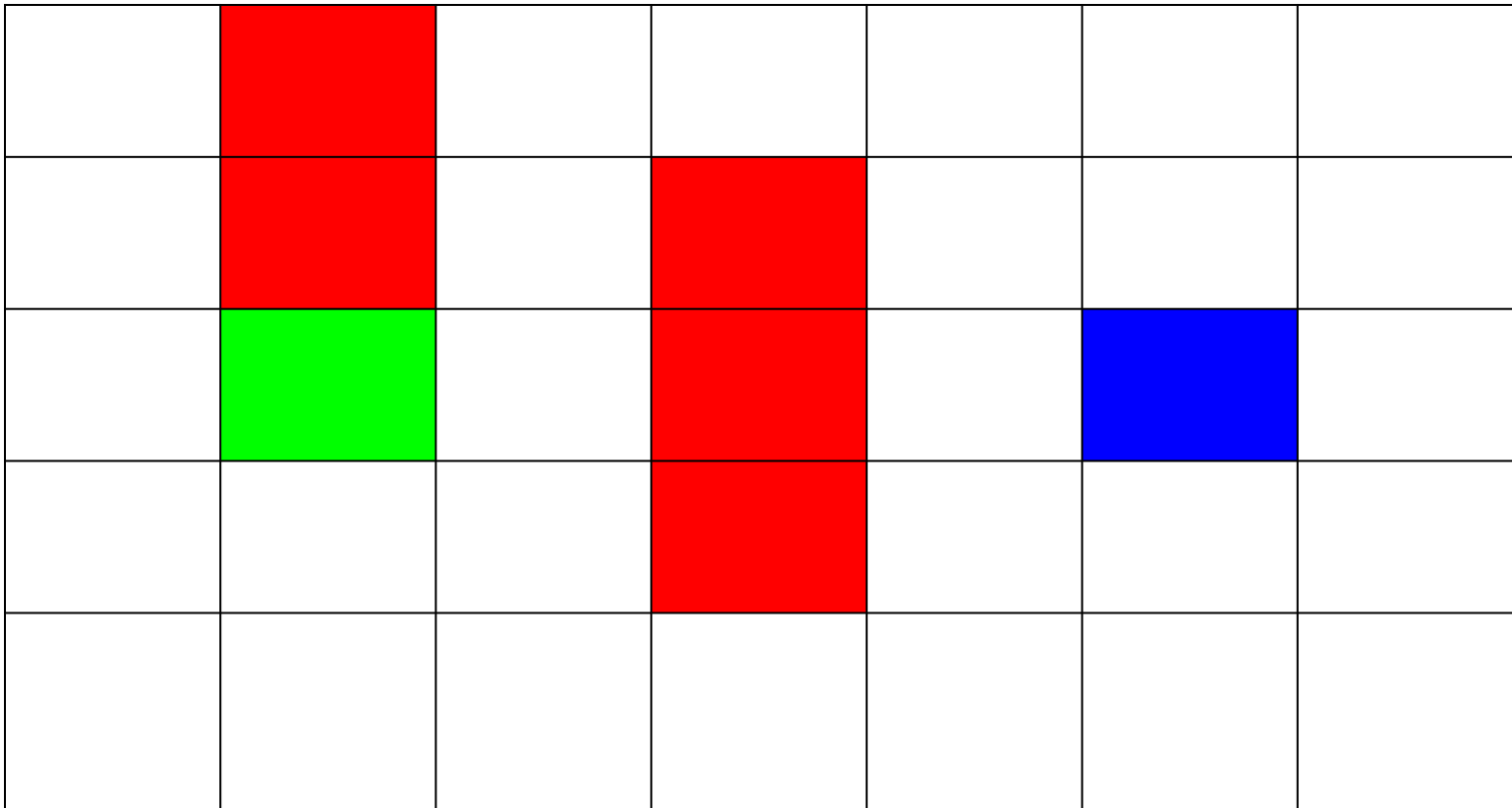
- Similar to Dijkstra but uses an **heuristic that to estimate how likely each node is close to the goal**, in order to make the best decision.

CHARACTERISTICS

- **Precise.**
- **Efficient and Fast.** Finds the shortest path in a weighted graph processing fewer cells and taking less time to perform the calculation.
- Maybe doesn't find the optimal path, but **will find a close option.**
- **One of the most commonly used in games programming.** It's extremely configurable to the particular type of game and map.

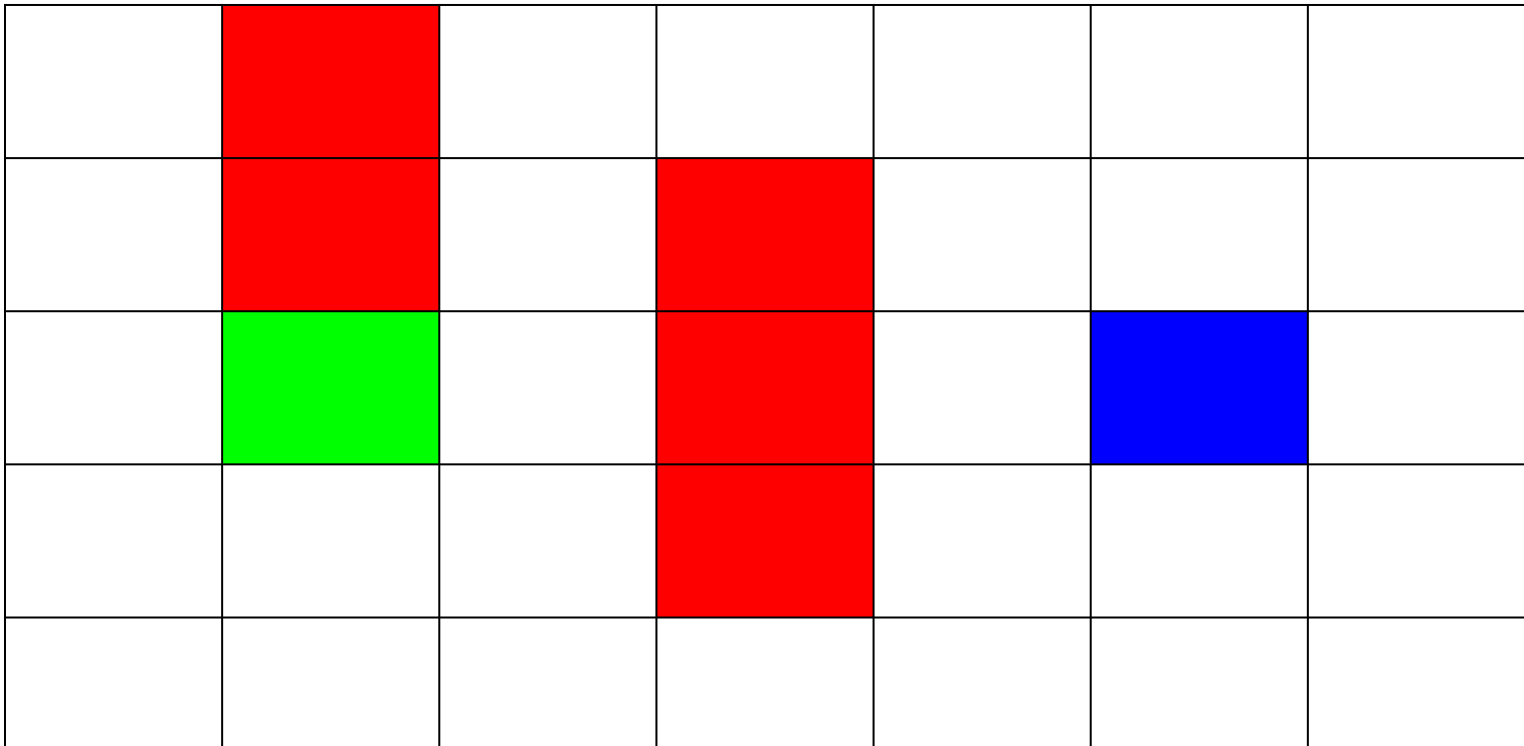
Pathfinding (A*)

→ Search area



Pathfinding (A*)

→ Search area

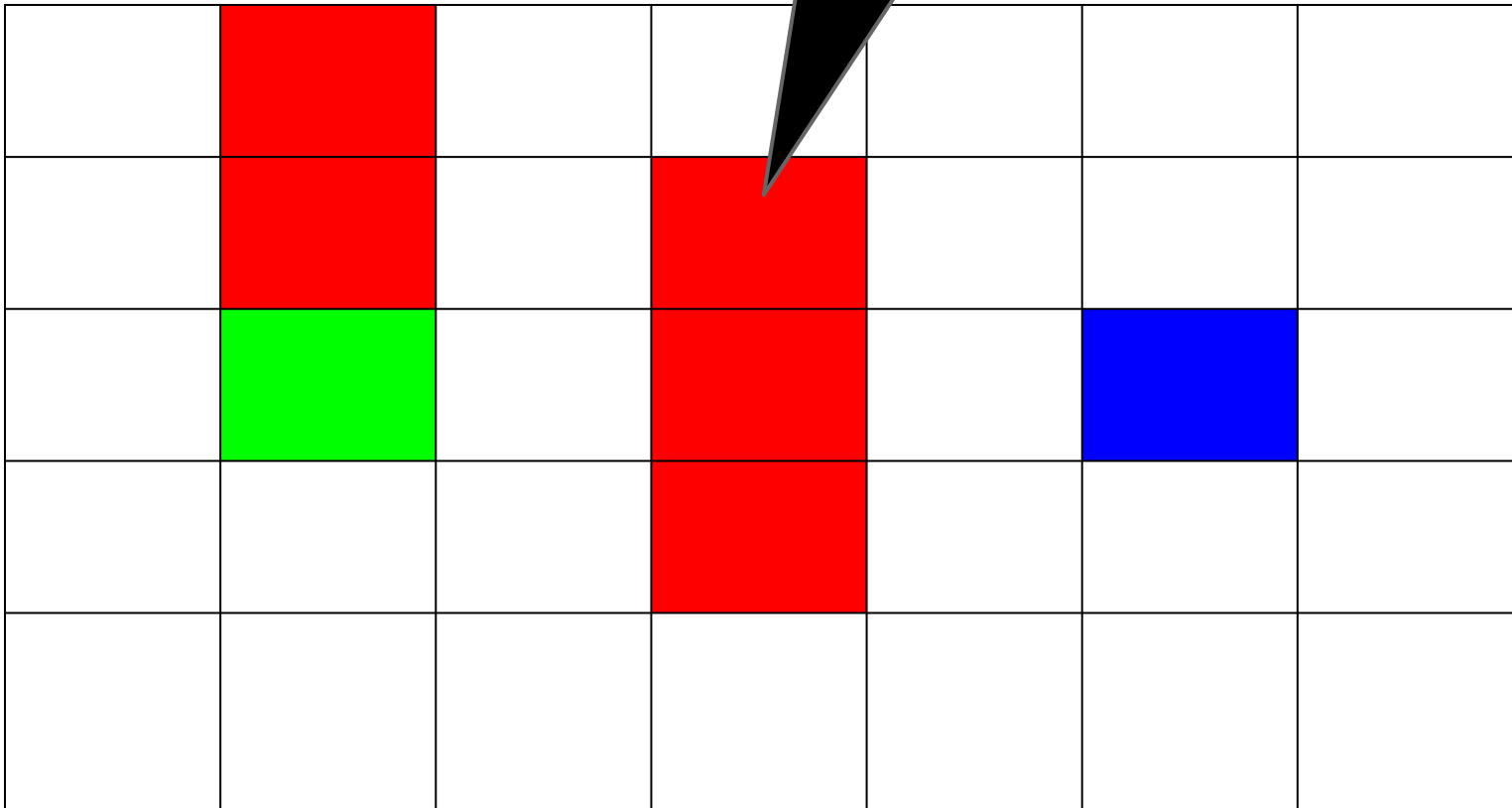


- Divide the area into a square grid. You can divide the area in another kind of shape.
- Center point in each square is called node.
- Each cell has a state

Pathfinding (A*)

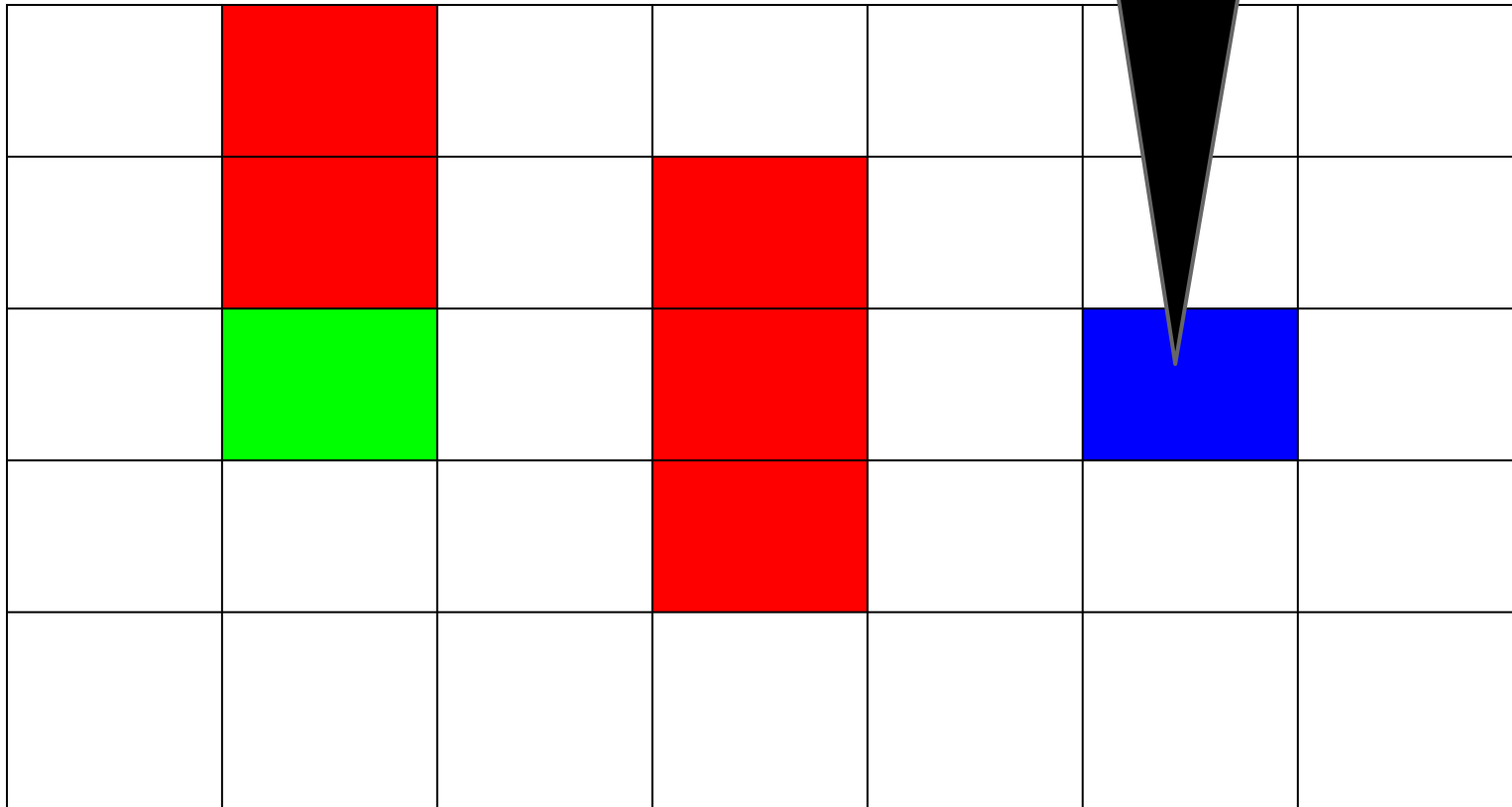
→ Search area

Wall or obstacles



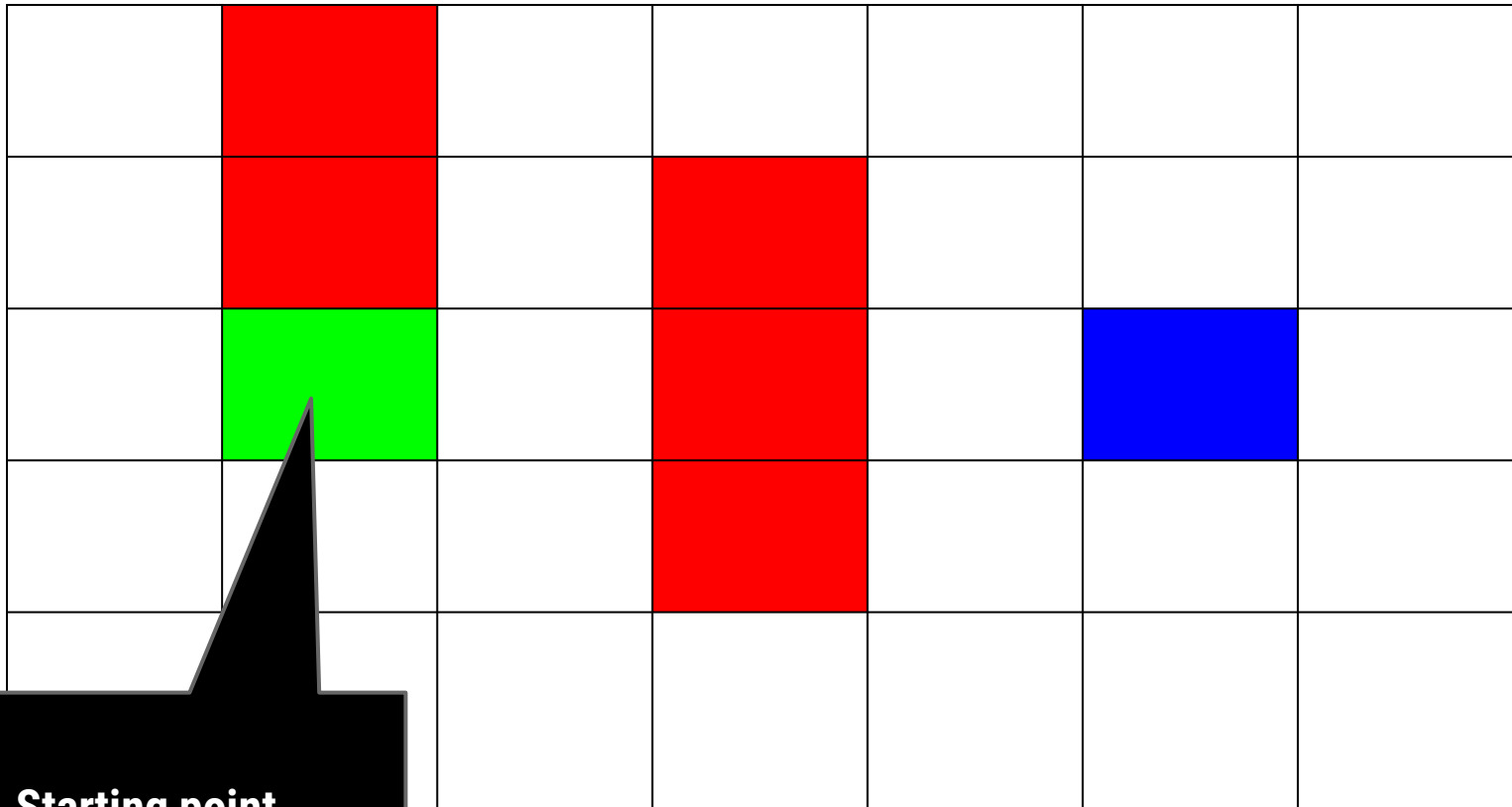
Pathfinding (A*)

→ Search area



Pathfinding (A*)

→ Search area



Starting point

Pathfinding (A*)

→ Algorithm

1. Add the starting point to an open-list of elements.
1. Check the adjacent walkable squares, add the squares to the open-list, save the starting point as a parent of these squares.
1. Remove the starting point from the open-list and add it to the close-list.
1. Get one of the adjacent squares in the open-list and repeat the process.

Pathfinding (A*)

→ Path Scoring

$$F = G + H$$

G = movement cost to move from the starting point to a given square on the grid.

H = estimated cost to move from a given square on the grid to the final destination (heuristic).

Pathfinding (A*)

→ Path Scoring

$$F = G + H$$

G = movement cost to move from the start square on the grid.

H = estimated cost to move from a given square to the final destination (heuristic).

→ You have to choose the cell with the lowest F score.

→ You have to assign a cost to move horizontal, vertical and diagonal.

Pathfinding (A*)

→ How to calculate H

Variety of methods, there isn't a well known solution. For Example:



EUCLIDEAN DISTANCE

```
dx = targetX - currentX;  
dy = targetY - currentY;  
h  = sqrt((dx * dx) + (dy * dy));
```

MANHATTAN DISTANCE

```
dx = abs(targetX - currentX);  
dy = abs(targetY - currentY);  
h  = dx + dy;
```

Pathfinding (A*)

1	2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9	10	11	12
13	14 	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24
25	26	27	28	29	30
31	32	33	34	35 	36
37	38	39	40	41	42

Node Data

H value (Heuristic)

G value (Movement cost)

F value (G+H)

Lists

Open List

List of nodes that need to be checked

Closed List

List of nodes that have been checked

Pathfinding (A*)

This is the game area

1	2	3	4	5	
7	8	9	10	11	12
13	14	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24
25	26	27	28	29	30
31	32	33	34	35	36
37	38	39	40	41	42



Node Data

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Pathfinding (A*)

1	2	3	4		
7	8	9	10		12
13	14	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24
25	26	27	28	29	30
31	32	33	34	35	36
37	38	39	40	41	42

Red cells are walls /
buildings / obstacles



Node Data

H value (Heuristic)

G value (Movement cost)

F value (G+H)

Lists

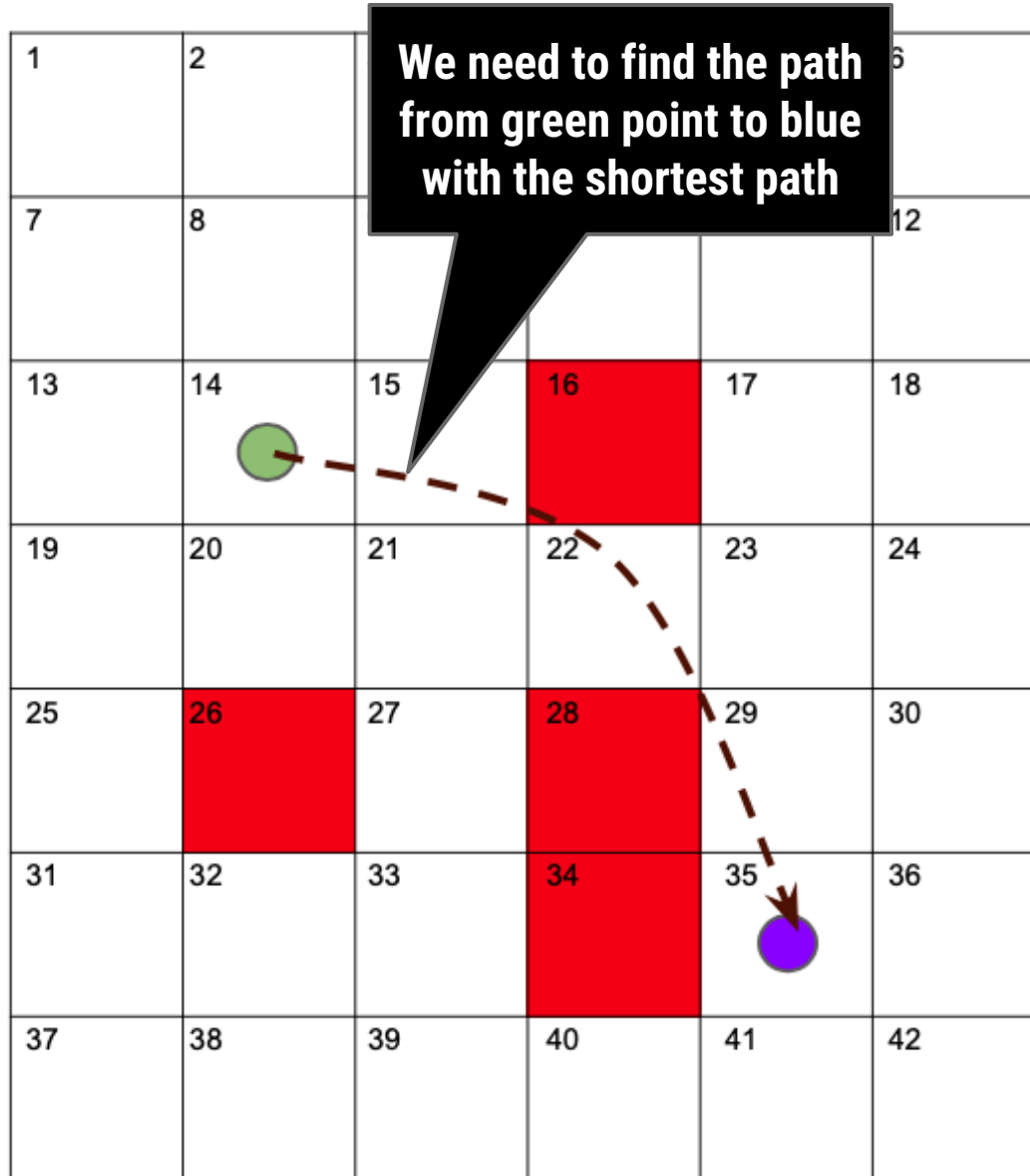
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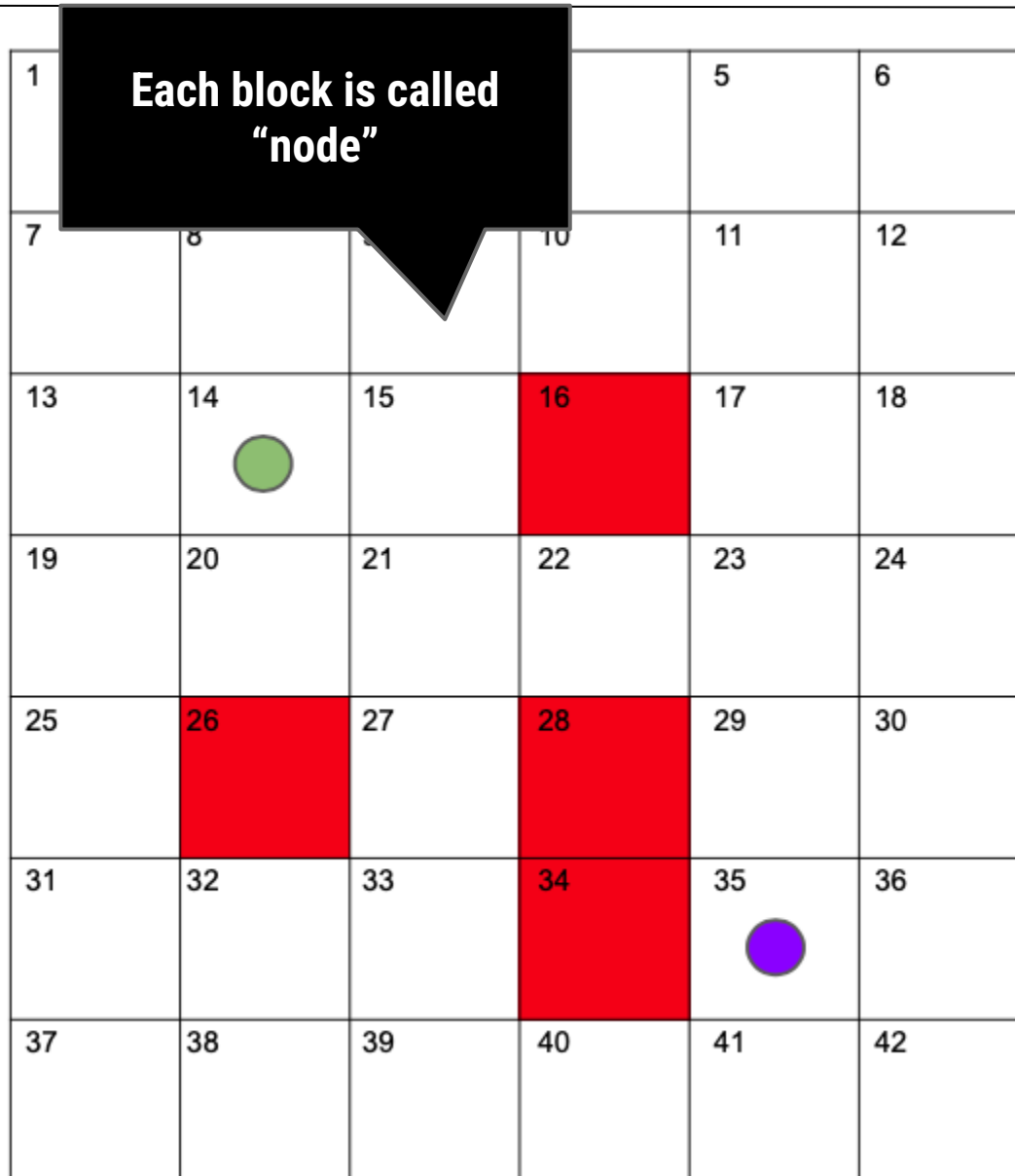
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Pathfinding (A*)



Node Data

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Lists



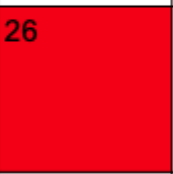



Open List

List of nodes that need to be checked

Closed List

List of nodes that have been checked

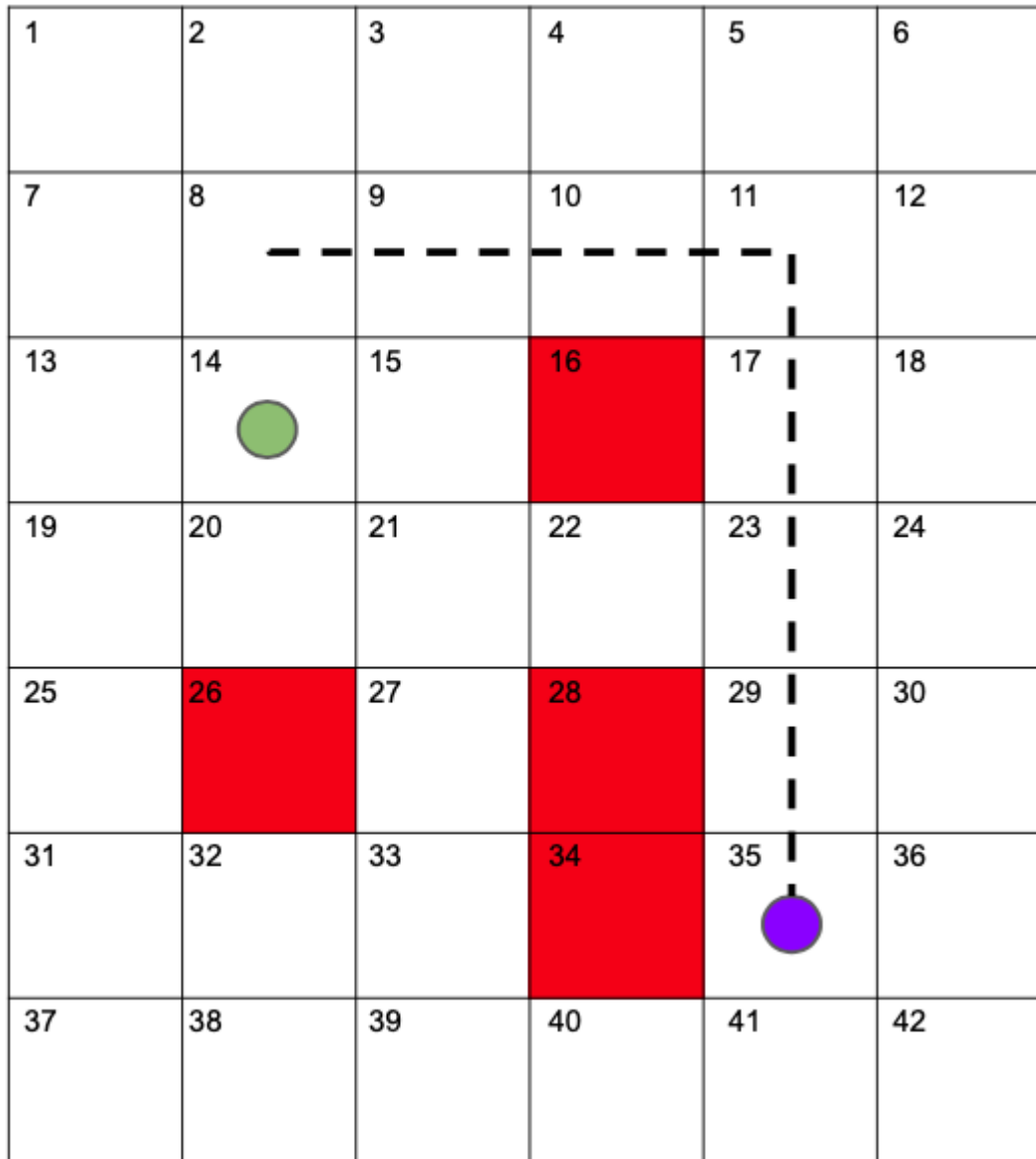
Pathfinding (A*)

1	2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9	10	11	12
13	14 	15	16 	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24
25	26 	27	28 	29	30
31	32	33	34 	35 	36
37	38	39	40	41	42

Heuristic

Using the manhattan formula, calculate the H value for **all nodes**

Pathfinding (A*)

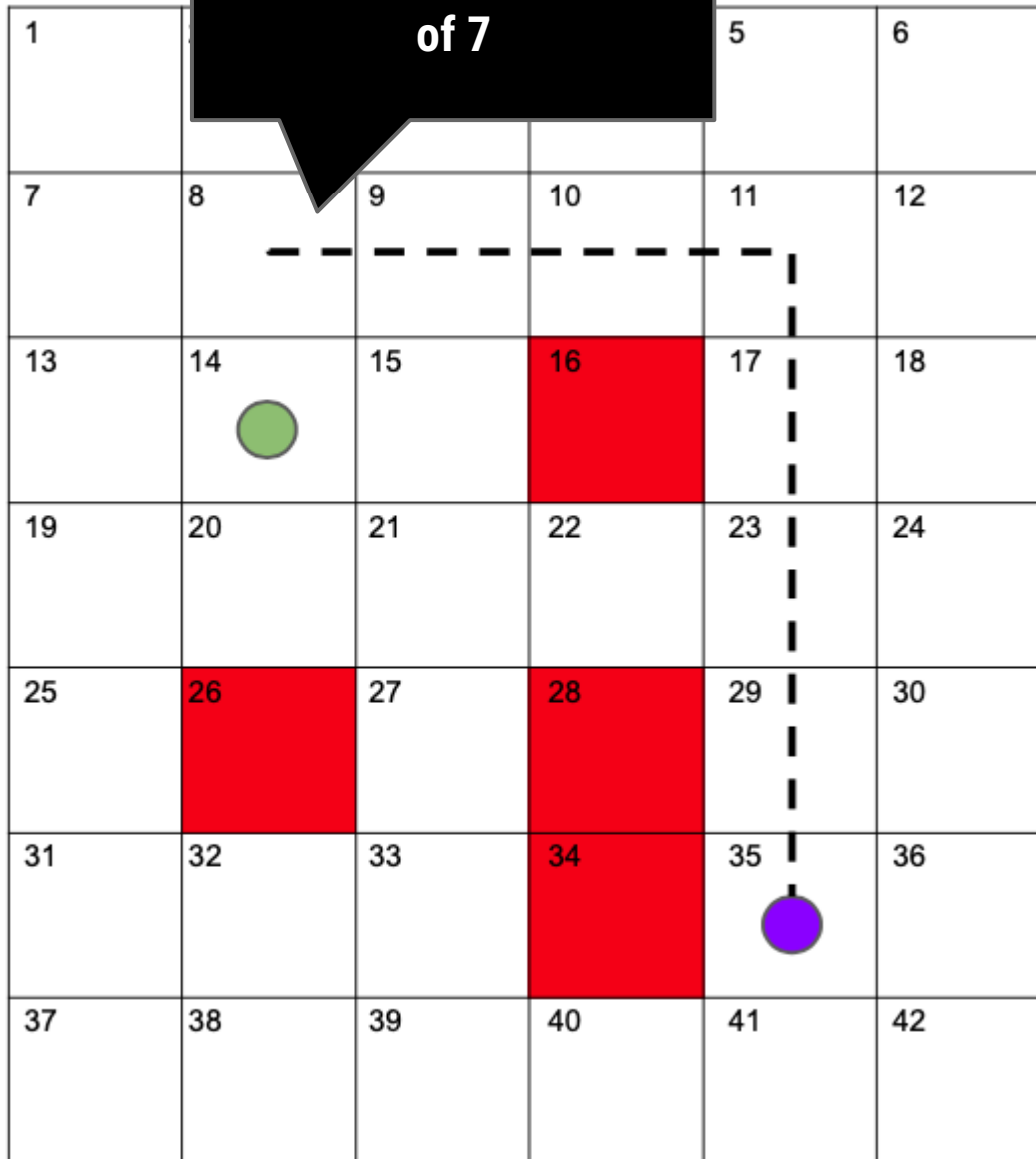


Heuristic

Using the manhattan formula, calculate the H value for **all nodes**

Pathfinding (A*)

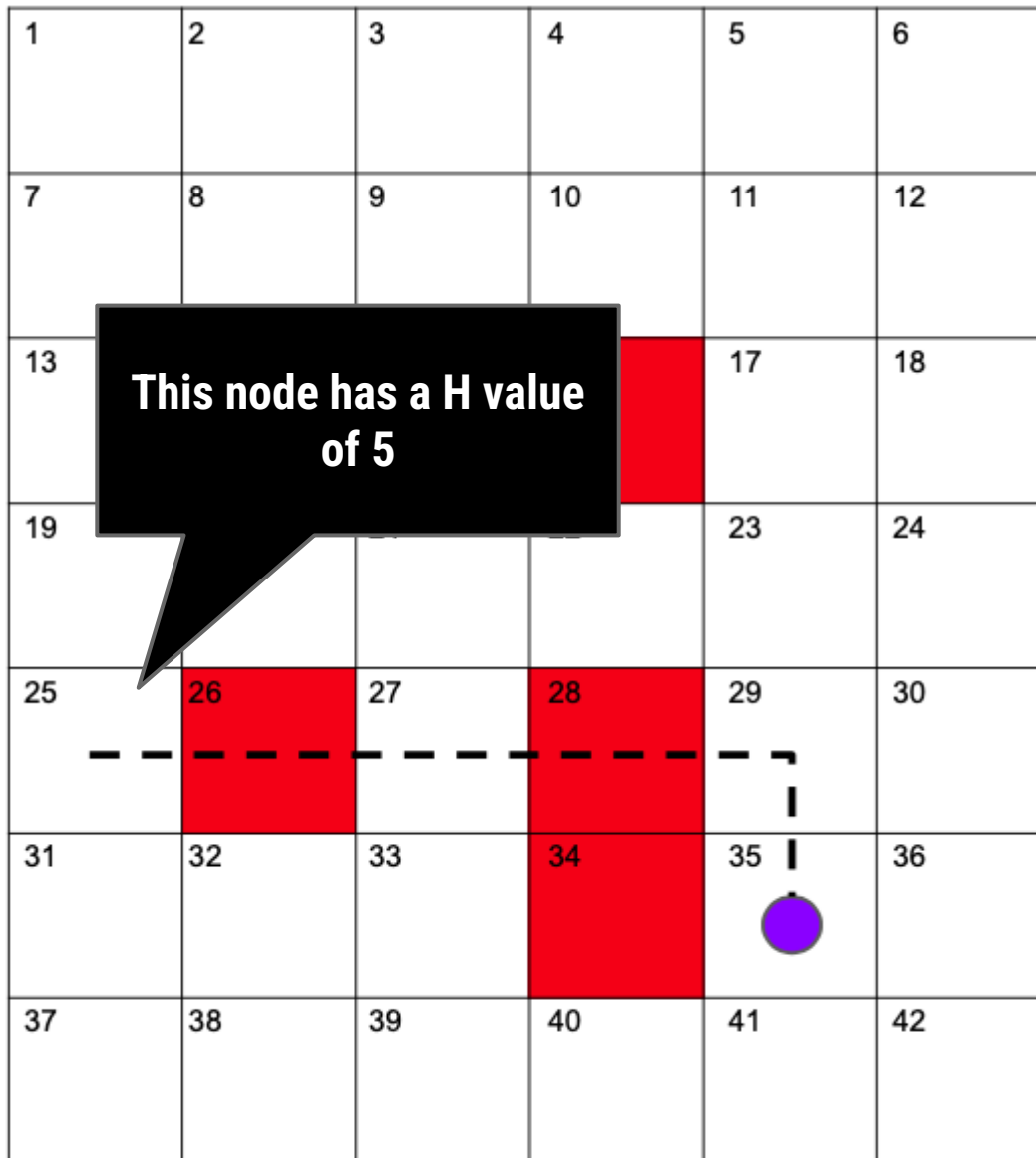
This node has a H value
of 7



Heuristic

Using the manhattan formula, calculate the H value for **all nodes**

Pathfinding (A*)



Heuristic

Using the manhattan formula, calculate the H value for **all nodes**

Pathfinding (A*)

1	9	2	8	3	7	4	6	5	5	6	6
7	8	8	7	9	6	10	5	11	4	12	5
13	7	14	6	15	5	16		17	3	18	4
19	6	20	5	21	4	22	3	23	2	24	3
25	5	26		27	3	28		29	1	30	2
31	4	32	3	33	2	34		35		36	1
37	5	38	4	39	3	40	2	41	1	42	2

Heuristic

Using the manhattan formula, calculate the H value for **all nodes**

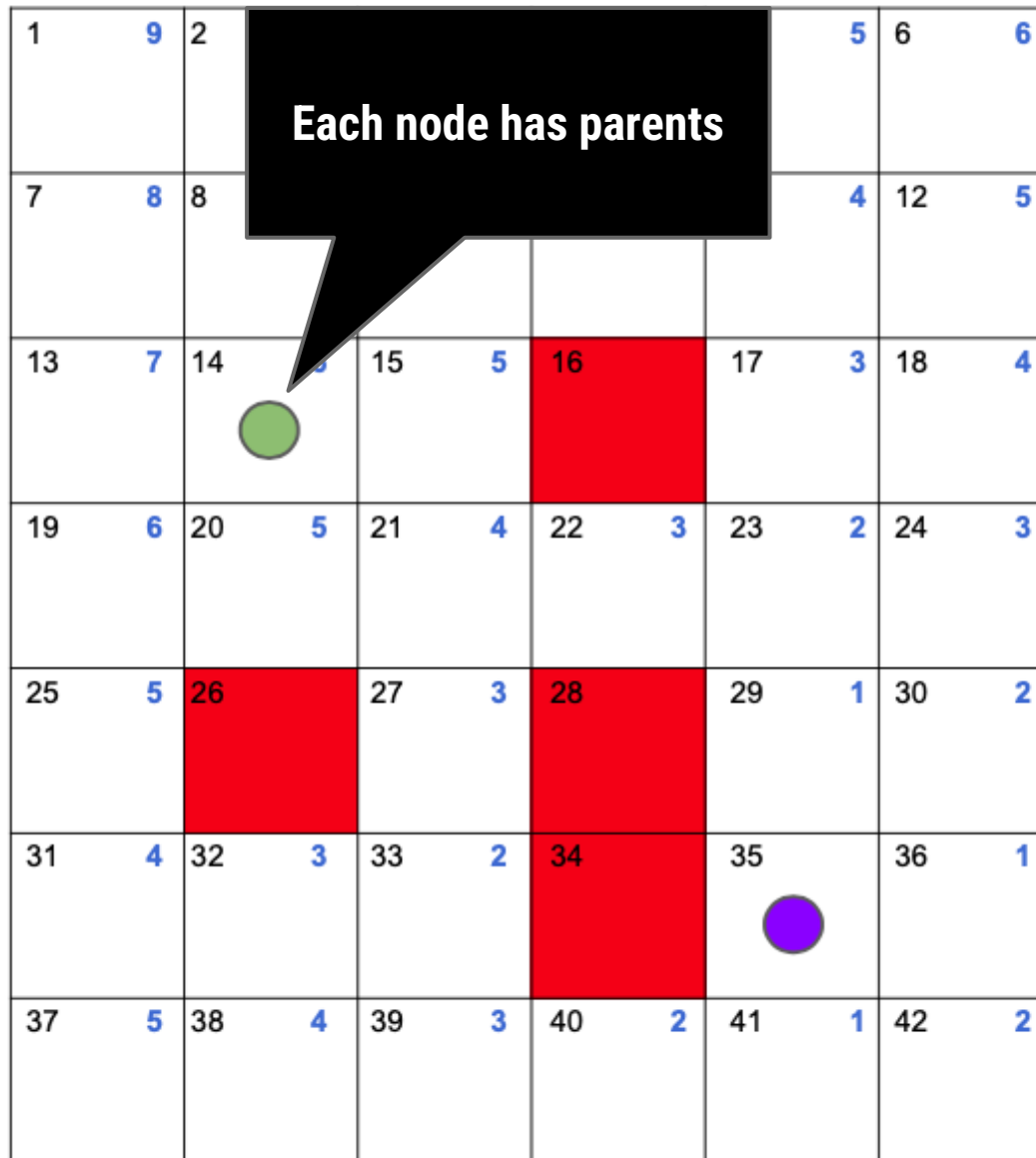
Pathfinding (A*)

1	9	2	8	3	7	4	6	5	5	6	6
7	8	8	7	9	6	10	5	11	4	12	5
13	7	14	6	15	5	16		17	3	18	4
19	6	20	5	21	4	22	3	23	2	24	3
25	5	26		27	3	28		29	1	30	2
31	4	32	3	33	2	34		35		36	1
37	5	38	4	39	3	40	2	41	1	42	2

Open List

Closed List

Pathfinding (A*)

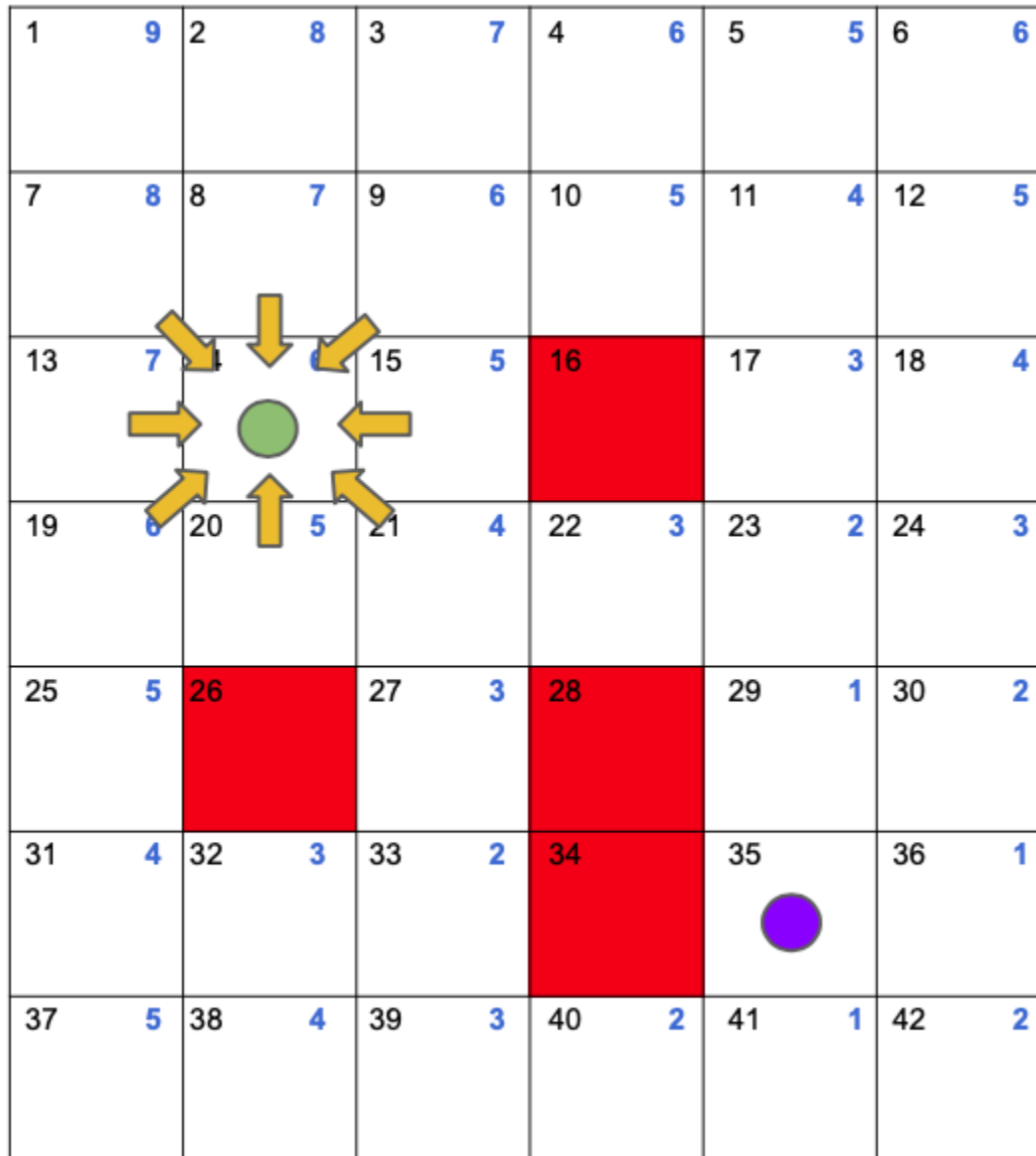


G Value

You should define a consistent formula for this. For example:
horizontal and vertical is 10, diagonal is 14

Pathfinding (A*)

1	9	2	8	3	7	4	6	5	5	6	6
7	8	8	7	9	6	10	5	11	4	12	5
13	7	1	1	15	5	16		17	3	18	4
19	6	20	5	21	4	22	3	23	2	24	3
25	5	26		27	3	28		29	1	30	2
31	4	32	3	33	2	34		35		36	1
37	5	38	4	39	3	40	2	41	1	42	2



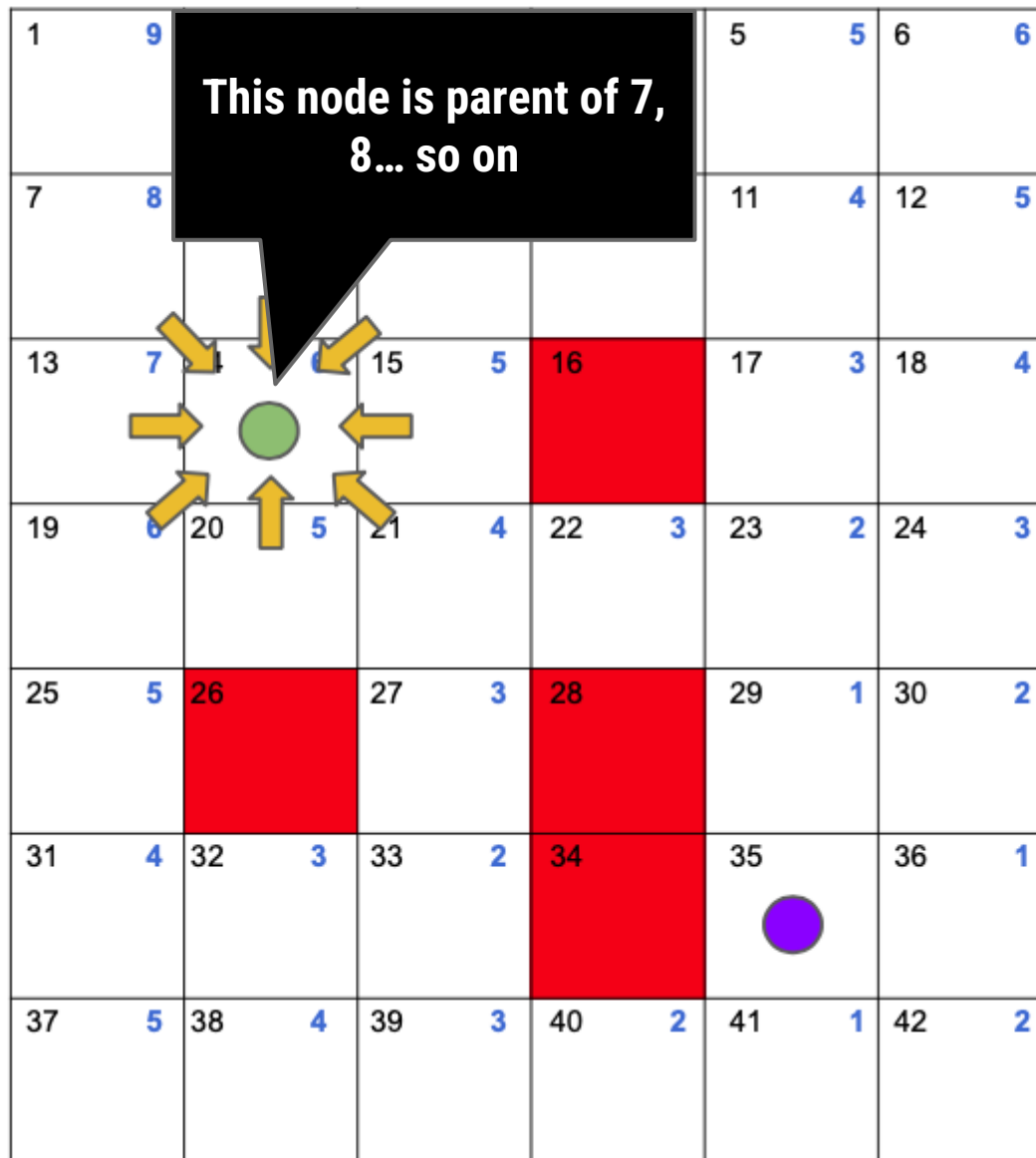
Open List

7,8,9,13,15,19,20,21

Closed List

14

Pathfinding (A*)



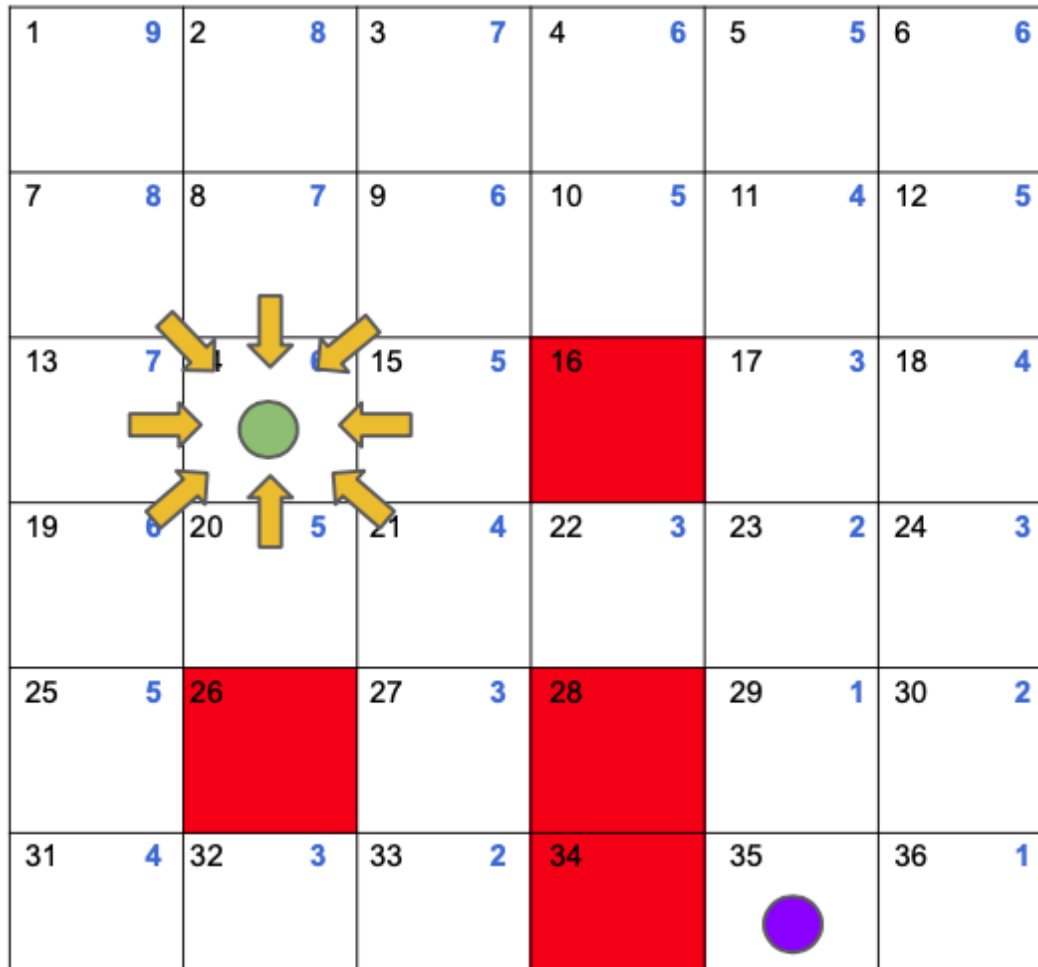
Open List

7,8,9,13,15,19,20,21

Closed List

14

Pathfinding (A*)



Open List

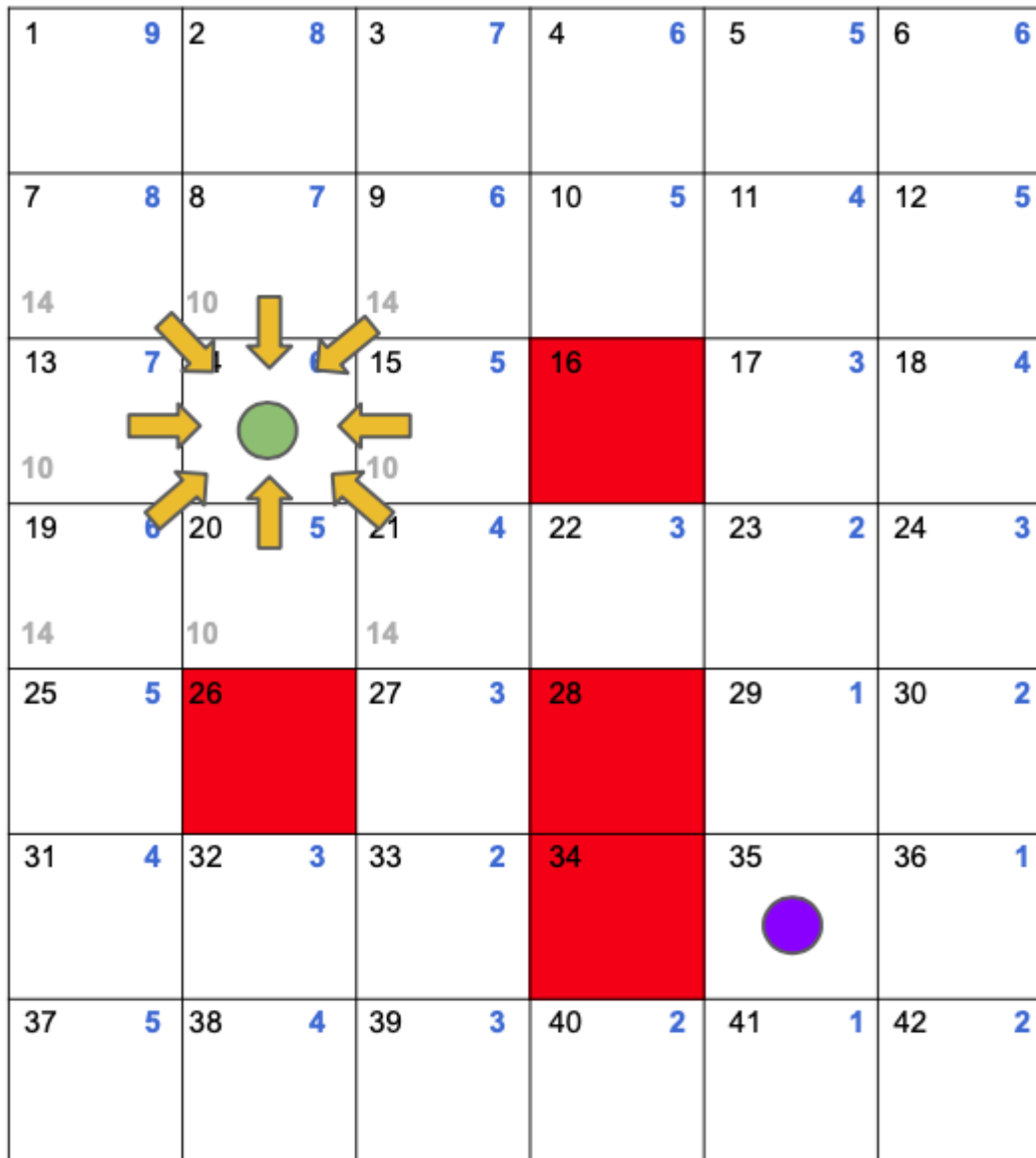
7,8,9,13,15,19,20,21

Closed List

14

Now, calculate G

Pathfinding (A*)



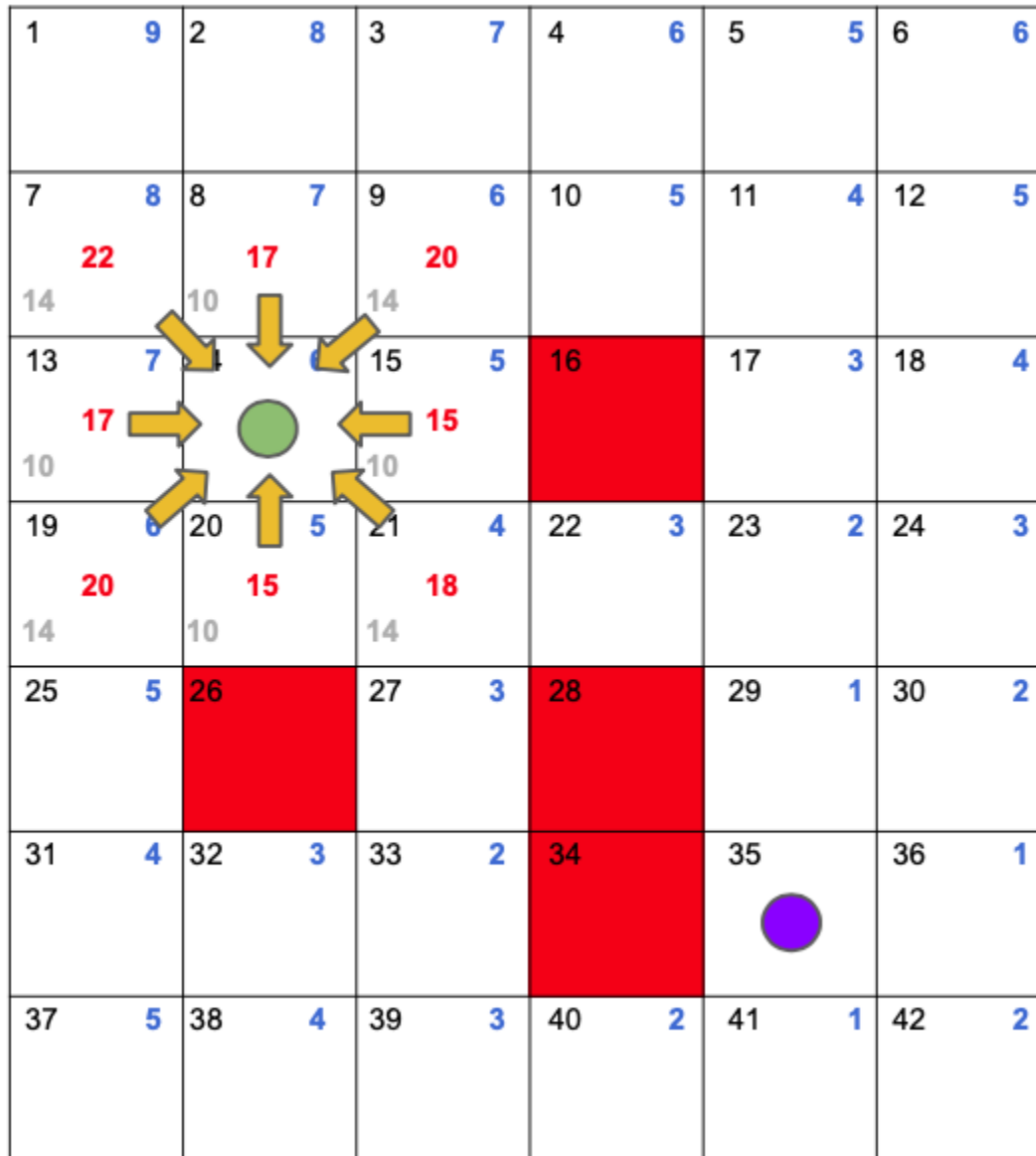
Open List

7,8,9,13,15,19,20,21

Closed List

14

Pathfinding (A*)



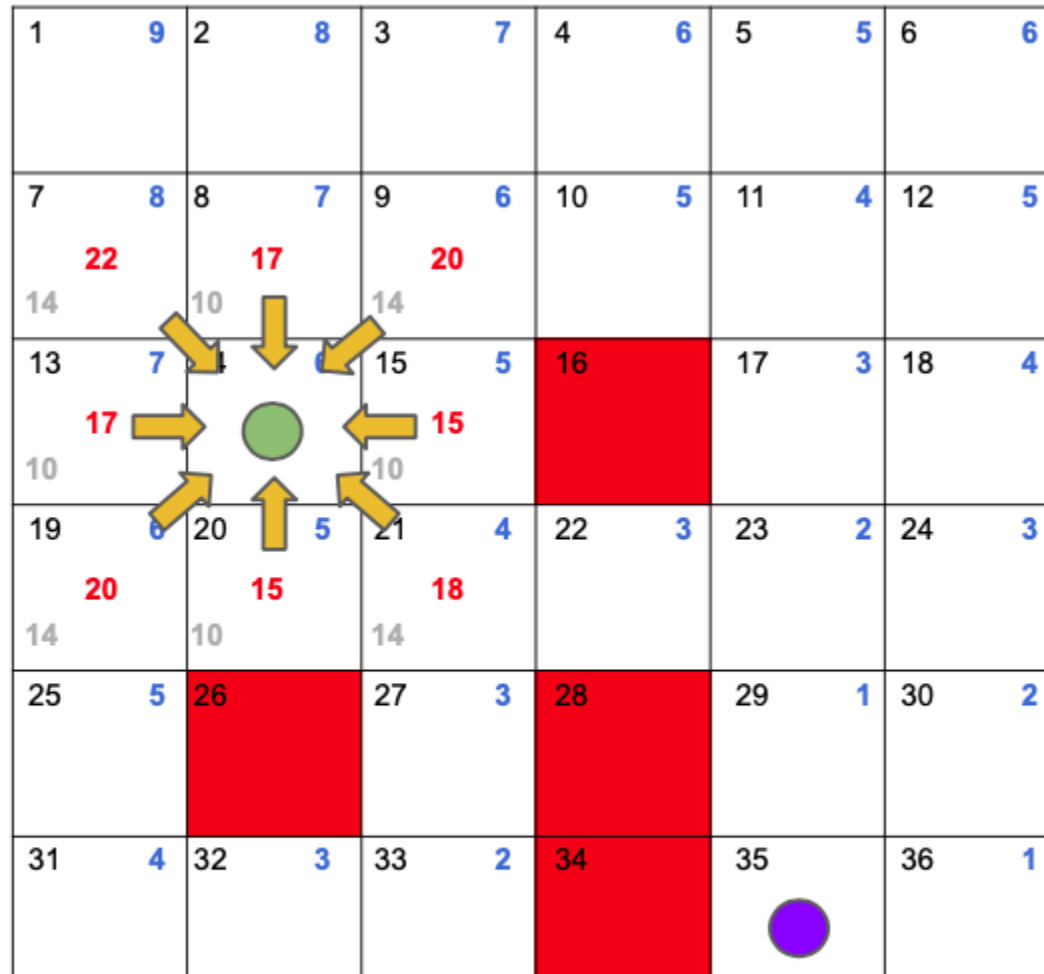
Open List

7,8,9,13,15,19,20,21

Closed List

14

Pathfinding (A*)



Open List

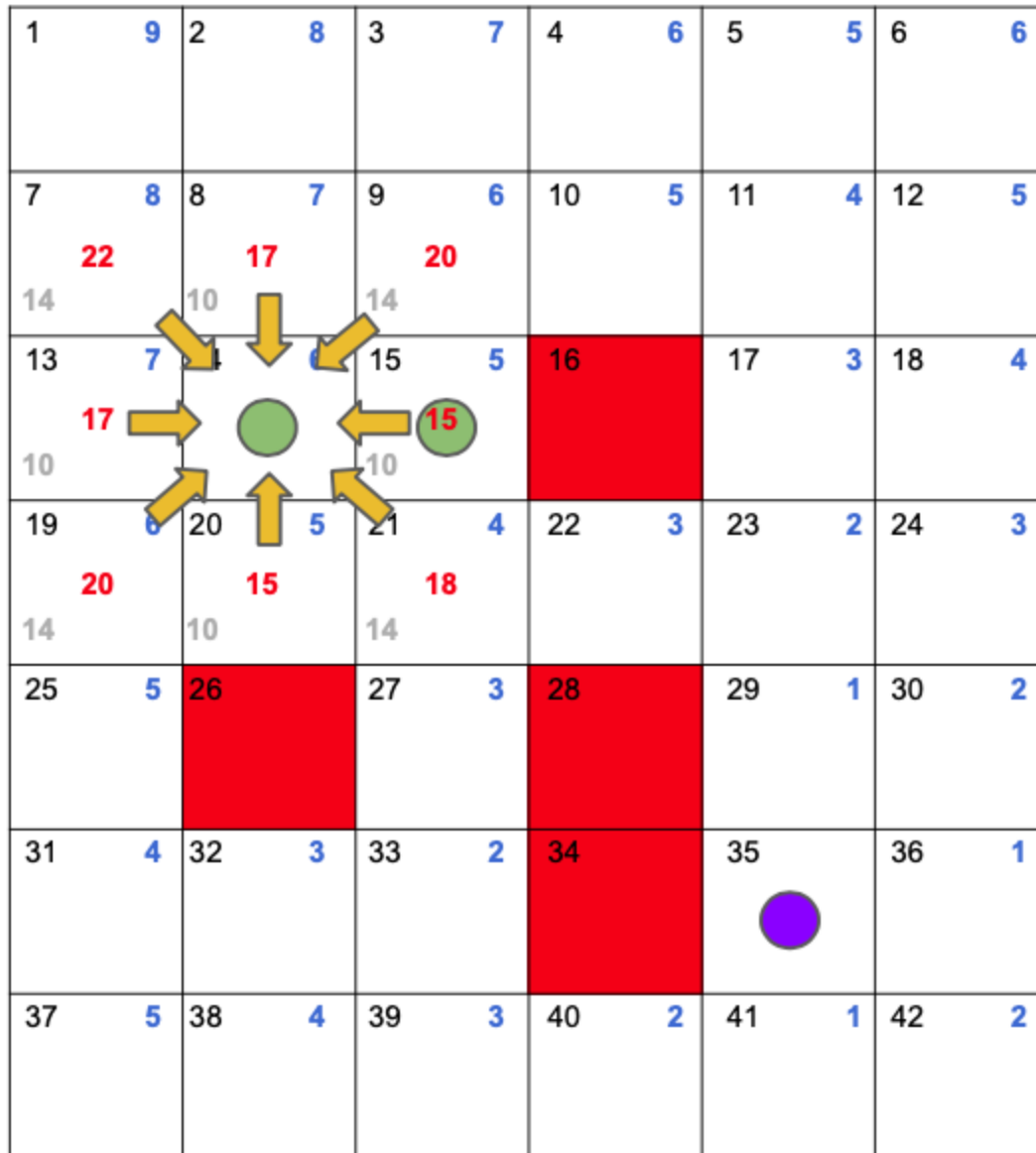
7,8,9,13,15,19,20,21

Closed List

14

Now select the smallest F value

Pathfinding (A*)



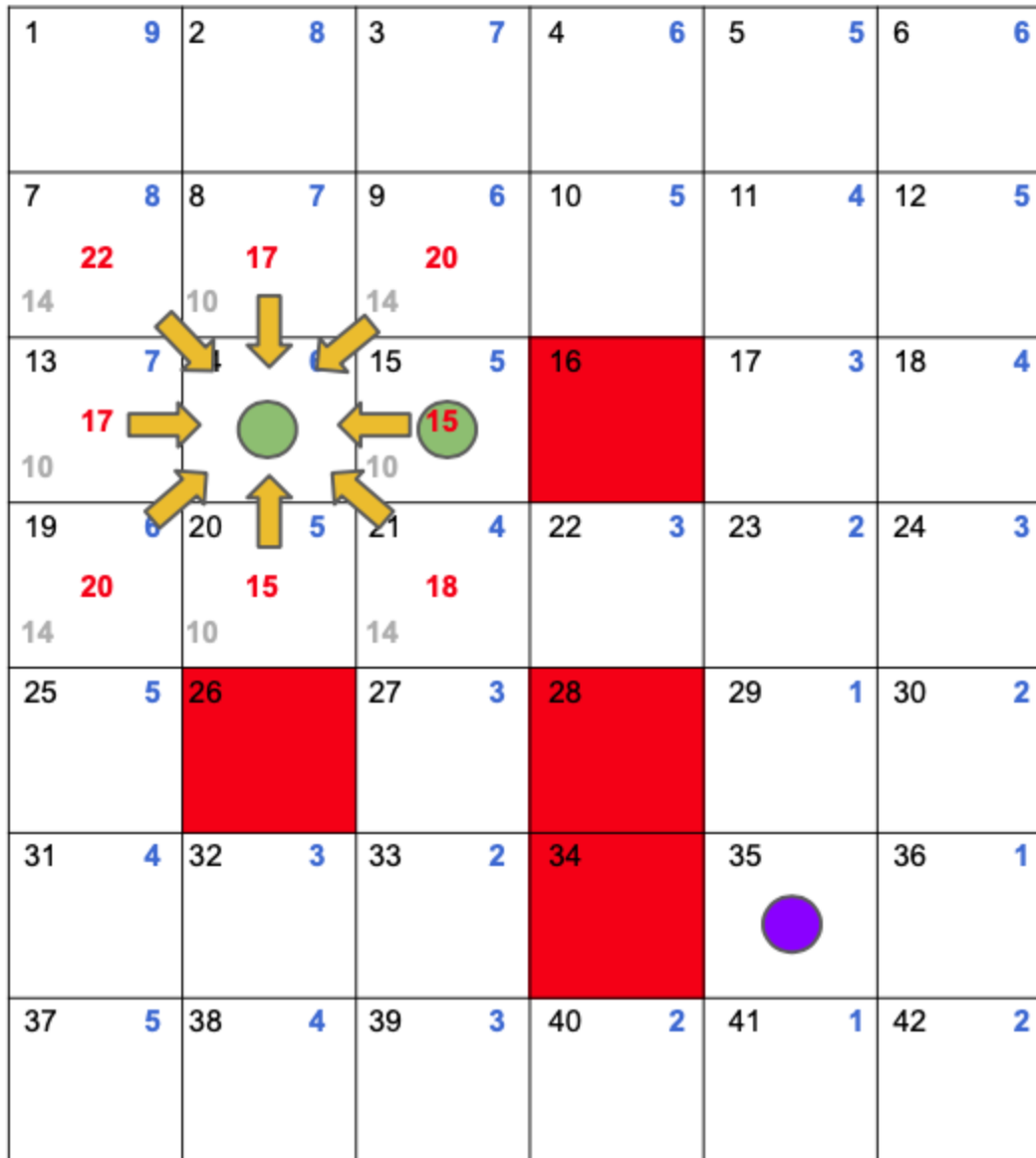
Open List

7,8,9,13,19,20,21

Closed List

14,15

Pathfinding (A*)



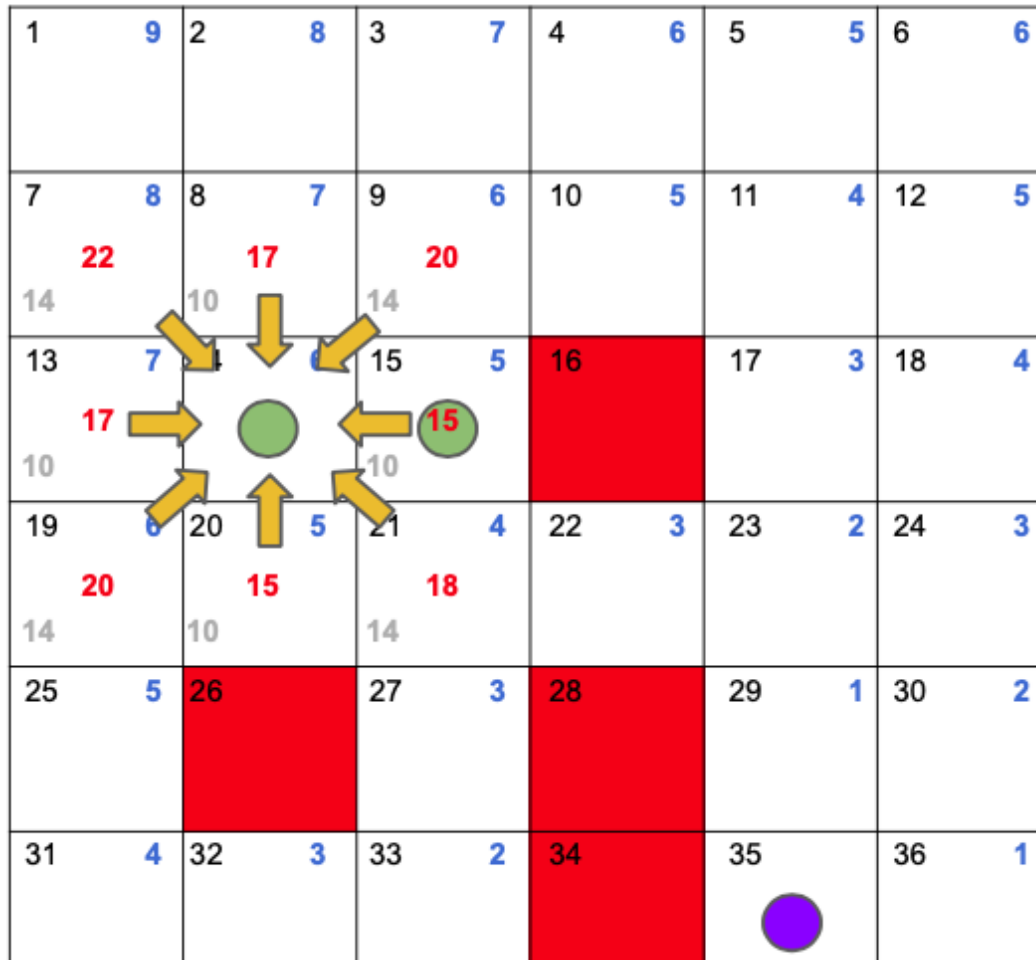
Open List

7,8,9,13,19,20,21,10,22

Closed List

14,15

Pathfinding (A*)



Open List

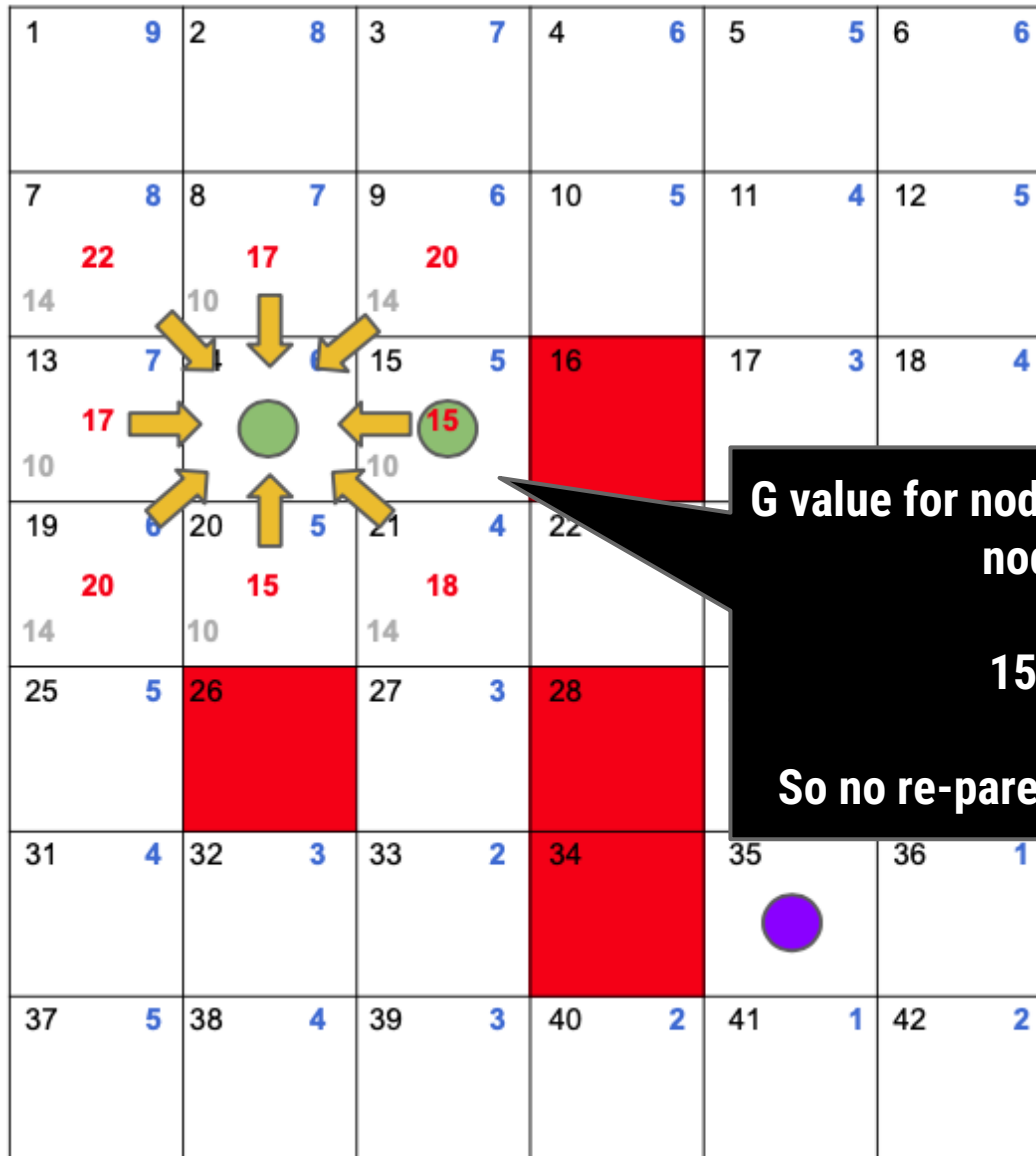
7,8,9,13,19,20,21,10,22

Closed List

14,15

Re-parent nodes...

Pathfinding (A*)



Open List

7,8,9,13,19,20,21,10,22

Closed List

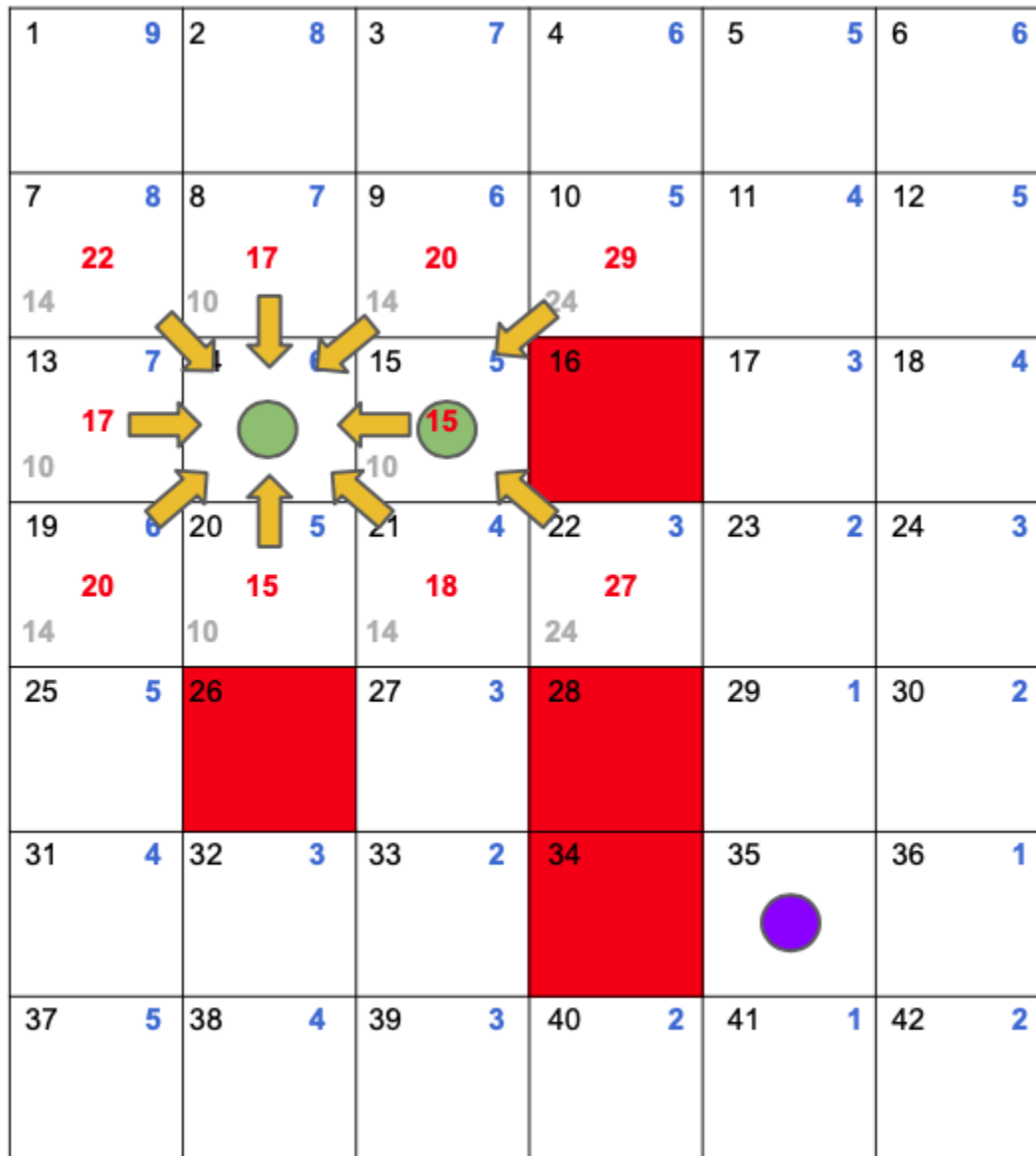
14,15

G value for node 15 is 15. G value for node 9 is 20.

$$15 + 10 > 20$$

So no re-parent is done for node 9

Pathfinding (A*)



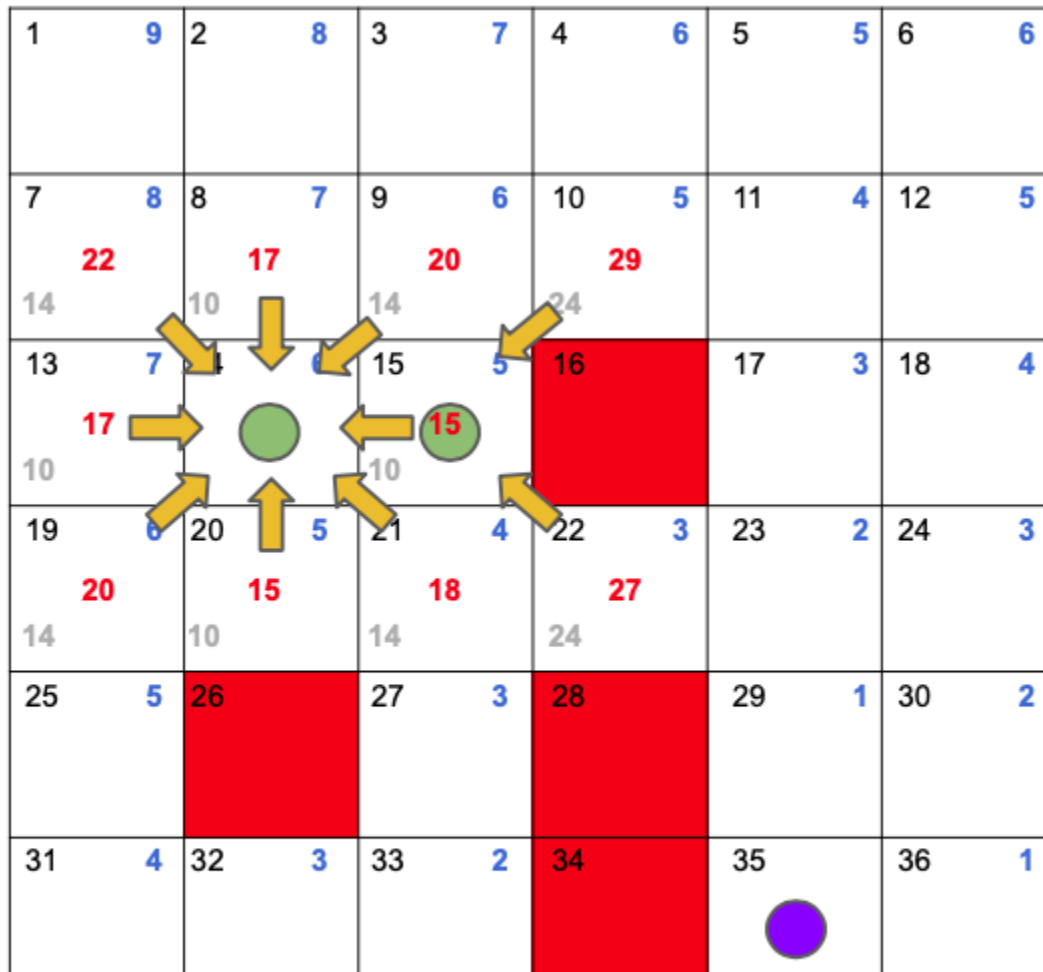
Open List

7,8,9,13,19,20,21,10,22

Closed List

14,15

Pathfinding (A*)



Open List

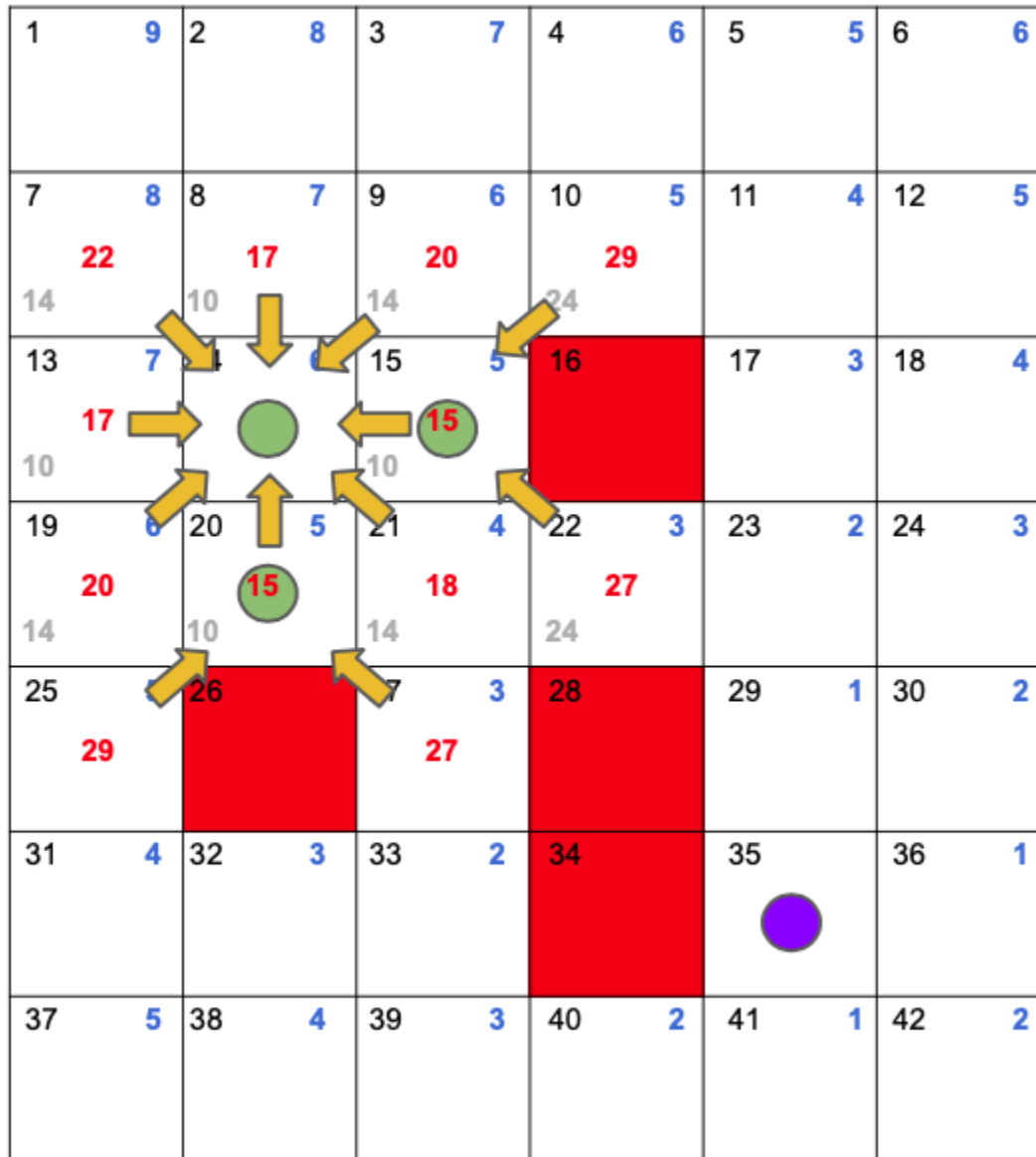
7,8,9,13,19,20,21,10,22

Closed List

14,15

Repeat process...

Pathfinding (A*)



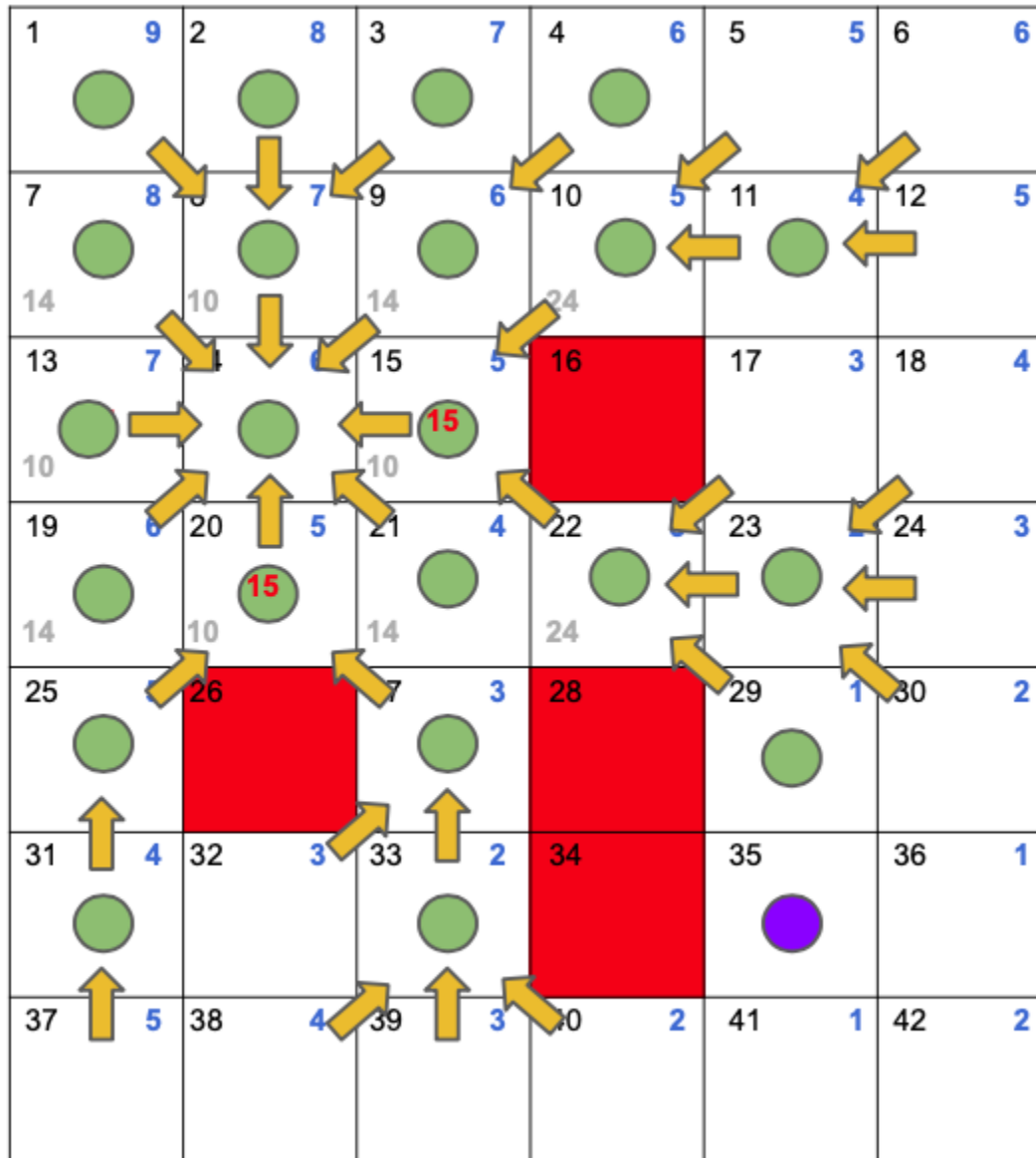
Open List

7,8,9,13,19,21,10,22

Closed List

14,15,20

Pathfinding (A*)



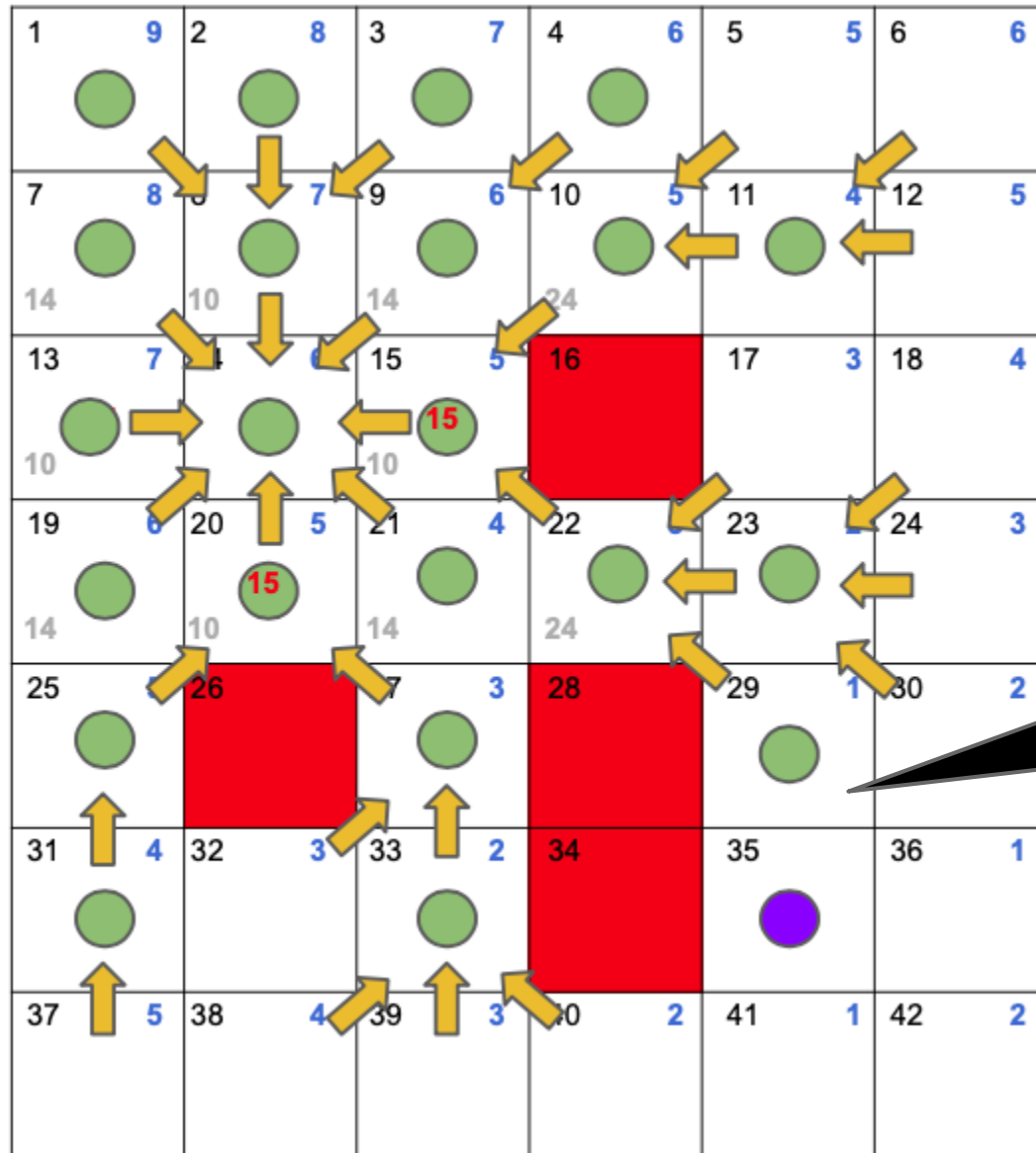
Open List

5,17,29,32,18,24,30,38,39,
40,6,12,37

Closed List

14,15,20,8,13,21,9,19,7,27,
2,10,25,22,3,1,4,23,33,31,2
9

Pathfinding (A*)



Open List

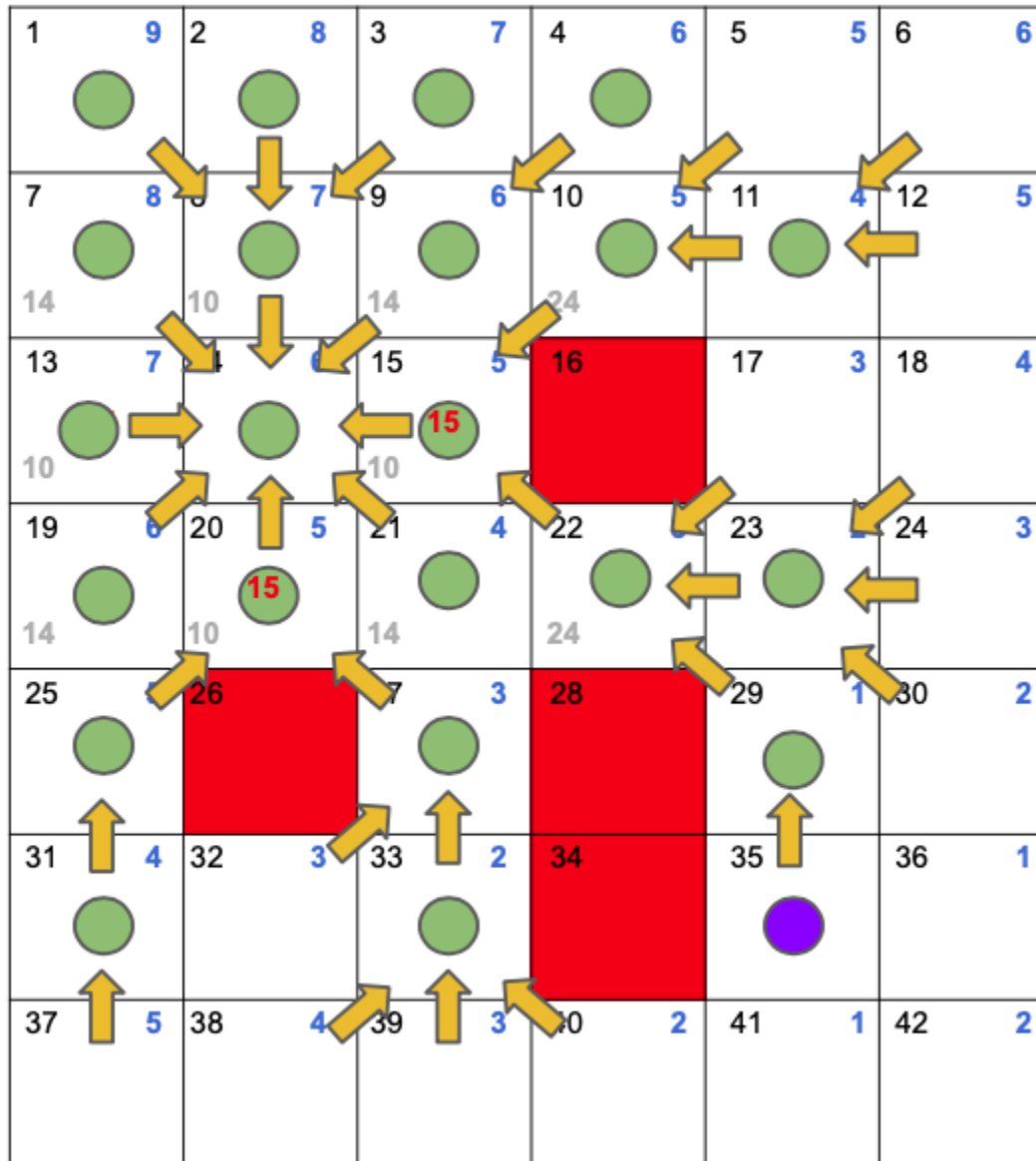
5,17,29,32,18,24,30,38,39,
40,6,12,37

Closed List

14,15,20,8,13,21,9,19,7,27,
2,10,25,22,3,1,4,23,33,31,2
9

Stop! We are at only one
position from the goal

Pathfinding (A*)



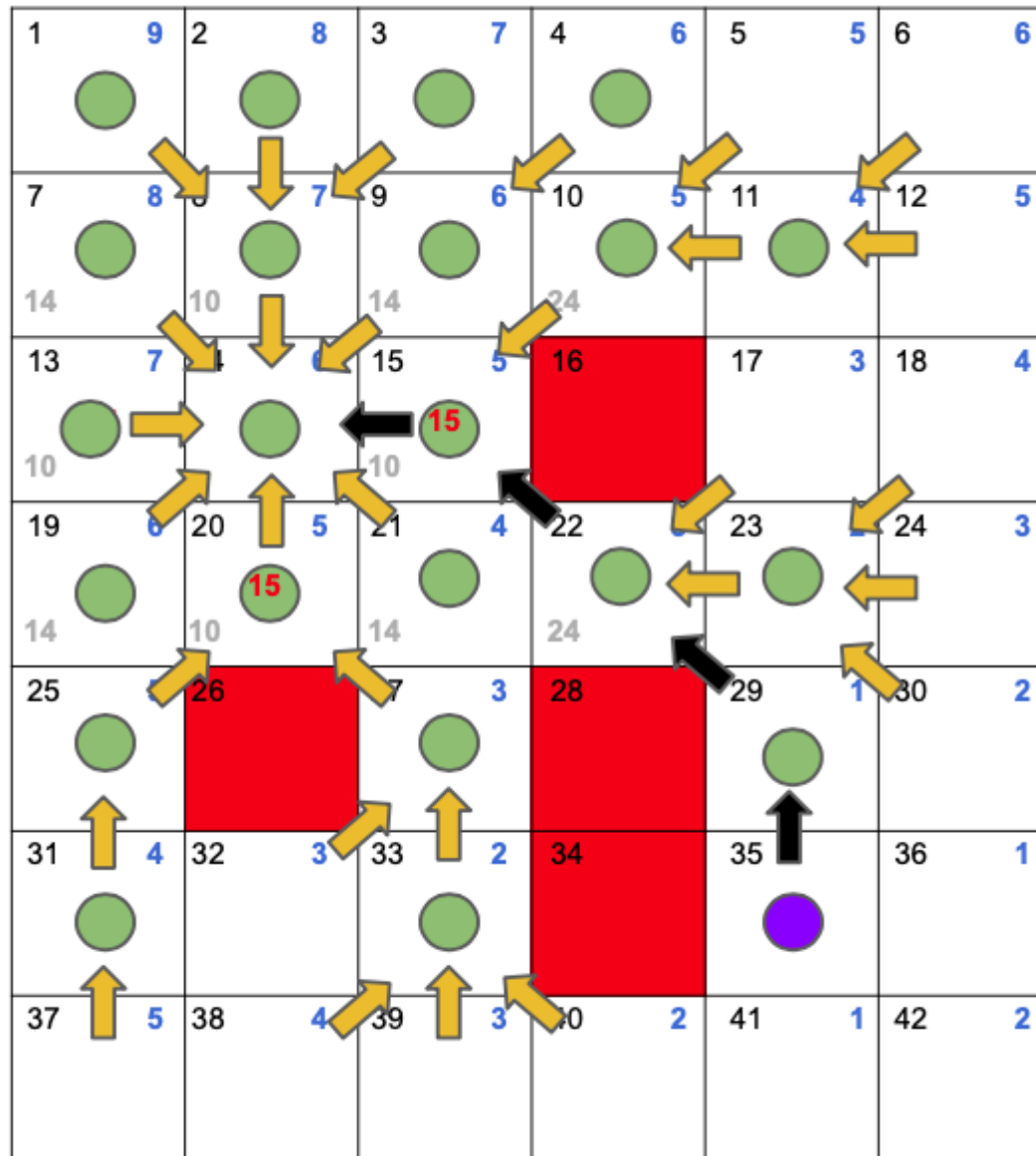
Open List

5,17,29,32,18,24,30,38,39,
40,6,12,37

Closed List

14,15,20,8,13,21,9,19,7,27,
2,10,25,22,3,1,4,23,33,31,2
9

Pathfinding (A*)



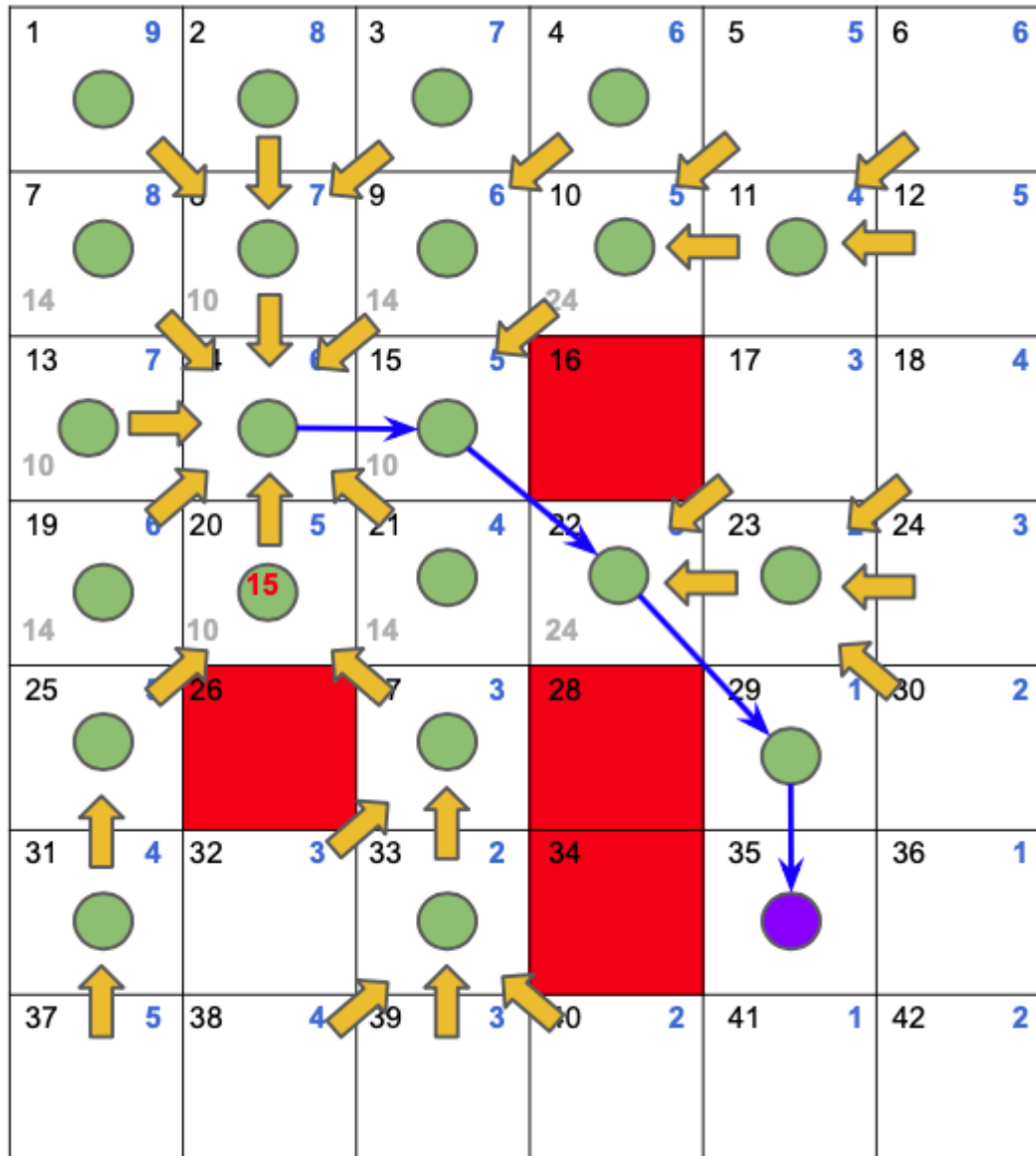
Open List

5,17,29,32,18,24,30,38,39,
40,6,12,37

Closed List

14,15,20,8,13,21,9,19,7,27,
2,10,25,22,3,1,4,23,33,31,2
9

Pathfinding (A*)





Open List

5,17,29,32,18,24,30,38,39,
40,6,12,37

Closed List

14,15,20,8,13,21,9,19,7,27,
2,10,25,22,3,1,4,23,33,31,2
9

Pathfinding (A*)

1	2	3 	4	5	6
7	8	9	10	11	12
13	14	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23 	24
25	26	27	28	29	30
31	32	33	34	35	36
37	38	39	40	41	42

Pathfinding (A*)



Pathfinding (A*)

→ There are variations of A* that make it faster or more adapted to certain circumstances:

- ◆ **LPA***. Similar to A* but can more quickly recalculate the best path when a small change to the graph is made
- ◆ **D* Lite**. Based on LPA*, it does the same thing, but assumes the "start point" is a unit moving towards the finish while graph changes are being made
- ◆ **HPA* (Hierarchical)**. Uses several layers at different abstraction levels to speed up the search. For instance, an higher level layer may simply connect rooms, while a lower level layer takes care of avoiding obstacles.
- ◆ **IDA* (Iterative Deepening)**. Reduces memory usage in comparison with regular A* by using iterative deepening.
- ◆ **SMA* (Simplified Memory-Bounded)**. Only makes use of available memory to carry out the search.
- ◆ **Jump Point Search**. Speeds up pathfinding on uniform-cost grid maps.

Search Algorithms

CE2103 - Algorithms and Data Structures II



Let's practice!
