

## Informed search

- □ Guided search
- □ Search with knowledge
- Quick Solution
- □ Less Complex
- □ Best First Search, Greedy Best search, A\*, etc
- □ A cleverer strategy that searches toward the goal, based on the information from the current state so far



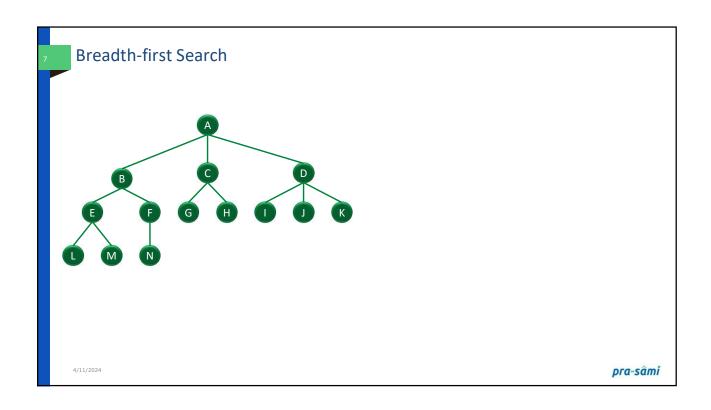
# Uninformed Search Strategies

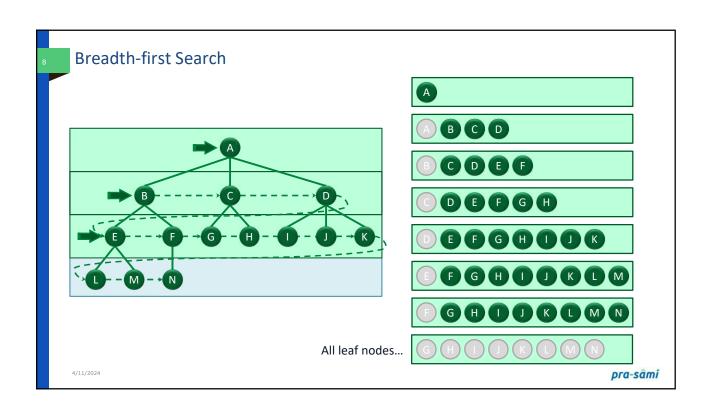
- Breadth-first search
  - Uniform cost search
- Depth-first search
  - Depth-limited search
  - Iterative deepening search
- □ Bidirectional search

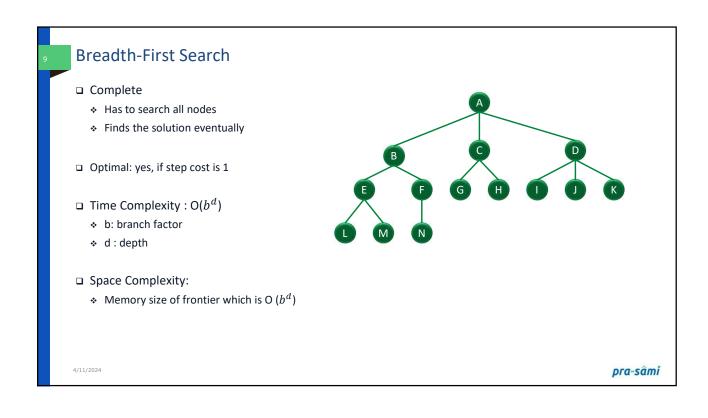
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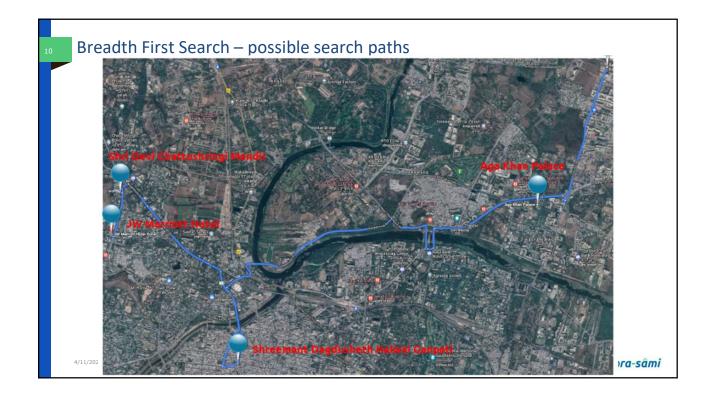
## **Breadth-first Search**

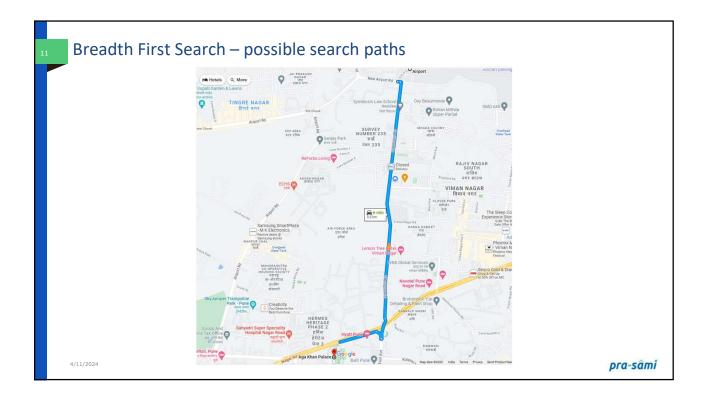
- ☐ Breadth-first search is the most common search strategy for traversing a tree or graph
  - Searches breadthwise in a tree or graph
- □ It's a FIFO technique
  - \* Implements a queue
  - \* The root node is expanded first; Thereafter children of root node; Then their successors and so on...
- □ Level search technique
  - Moves level by level
- New nodes are getting added to the queue
- □ Goal test is applied to each node when it is generated rather than when it is selected for expansion
- ☐ For graph search, discards any new path to a state already in the frontier or explored set
  - \* Breadth-first search always has the shallowest path to every node on the frontier











# Performance Heavy

- $\ \square$  An exponential complexity bound such as O (  $b^d$  ) is scary
- □ Table with branching factor b = 10,
  - ❖ 1 million nodes can be generated per second
  - \* A node requires 1000 bytes of storage
- Two major issues
  - The memory requirements are a bigger problem for breadth-first search than is the execution time
  - 13 days for a problem with search depth 12 may still be ok; but One Petabyte of memory
  - \* Time is still a major factor
  - If a problem has a solution at depth 16, then it will take about 350 years
  - Use current uninformed methods for any small instances

Depth	Nodes	Time	Memory	
2	110	0.11 mili sec	107 KB	
4	11110	11 mili sec	10.6 MB	
6	$10^{6}$	1.1 sec	1 GB	
8	$10^{8}$	2 min	103 GB	
10	$10^{10}$	3 hour	10 TB	
12	$10^{12}$	13 days	1 Peta B	
14	$10^{14}$	3.5 years	99 Peta B	
16	$10^{16}$	350 years	10 Exa B	

Estimated values on modern laptops



# Advantage - Disadvantages Advantages □ BFS will provide a solution if any solution exists.

## ☐ If there are more than one solutions for a given problem, then BFS will provide the minimal solution which requires the least number of steps.

## Disadvantage

- □ It requires lots of memory since each level of the tree must be saved into memory to expand the next level.
- □ BFS needs lots of time if the solution is far away from the root node.

## Breadth-first Search – Pseudo Code

- □ Create two empty queues
- □ Start from the initial node and add it to the ordered open queue
- ☐ Following steps are repeated until the final node or endpoint is reached
  - If the open queue is empty exit the loop and return a False statement which says that the final node cannot be reached
  - Select the top node in the open queue and move it to the closed queue while keeping track of the parent node
  - If the node removed is the endpoint node return a True statement meaning a path has been found and moving the node to the closed queue
  - However if it is not the endpoint node then list down all the neighboring nodes of it and add them to the open queue

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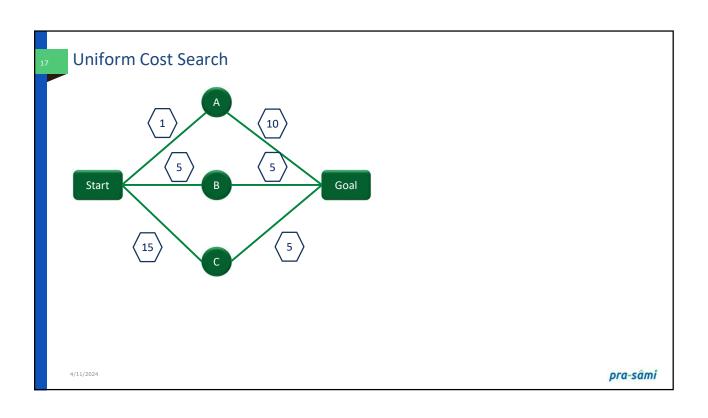
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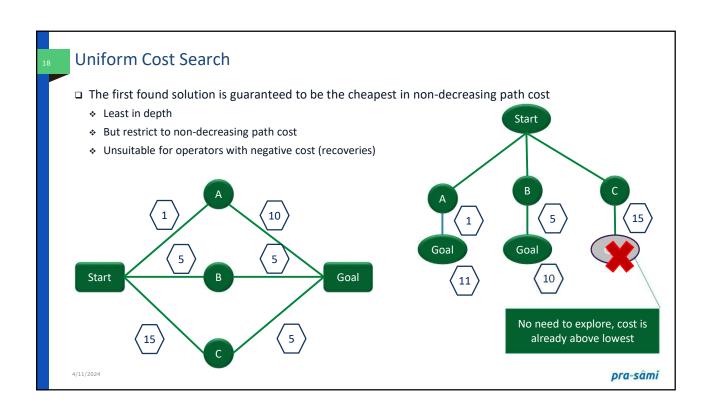
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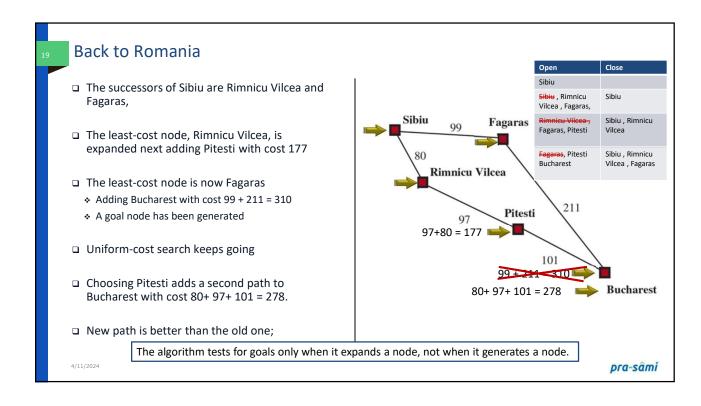
## **Uniform Cost Search**

- ☐ Breadth-first finds the shallowest goal state
  - But not necessarily be the least-cost solution
  - Work only if all step costs are equal
- Uniform cost search
  - Modifies breadth-first strategy
    - > By always expanding the lowest-cost node
  - ❖ The lowest-cost node is measured by the path cost g(n) i.e. cost to reach the **node**
- ☐ The goal test is applied to a node when it is selected for expansion
- ☐ A test is added in case a better path is found to a node currently on the frontier

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# Uniform Cost Search □ Expand least-cost unexpanded node → Uniform-cost search expands nodes in order of their optimal path cost → Search does not care about the number of steps a path has, but only about their cost to reach the node. □ Implementation: → fringe = queue ordered by path cost □ Equivalent to breadth-first if step costs all equal □ Complete? Yes □ Time? # of nodes with g ≤ cost of optimal solution, O( b(1+ceiling(C\*/E))) → Where C\* be the cost of the optimal solution, and ε is positive constant (every action cost) □ Space? # of nodes with g ≤ cost of optimal solution, O( b(1+ceiling(C\*/E))) □ Optimal? Yes – nodes expanded in increasing order of g(n)

## **Uniform Cost Search**

- □ When all step costs are the same,
  - \* Uniform-cost search is similar to breadth-first search,

## □ Except

- That the breadth-first search stops as soon as it visits a goal
- \* Whereas uniform-cost search examines all the nodes at the goal's depth to see if one has a lower cost
- Uniform-cost search does strictly more work by expanding nodes at depth d unnecessarily

## ■ Advantages:

Uniform cost search is optimal because at every state the path with the least cost is chosen.

## ■ Disadvantages:

- It does not care about the number of steps involve in searching and only concerned about path cost. Due to which this algorithm may be stuck in an infinite loop
  - > E.g, a sequence of NoOp actions

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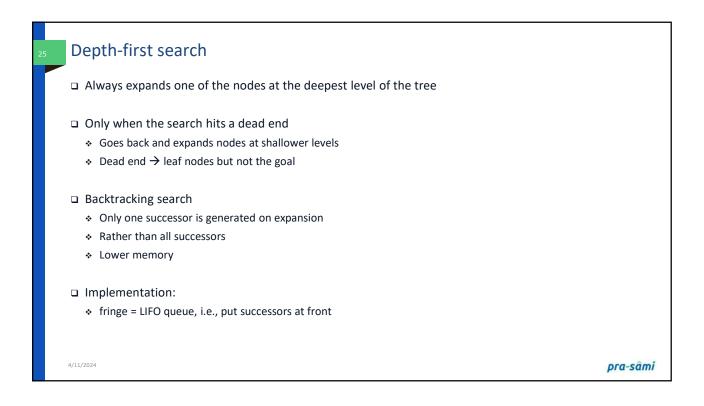
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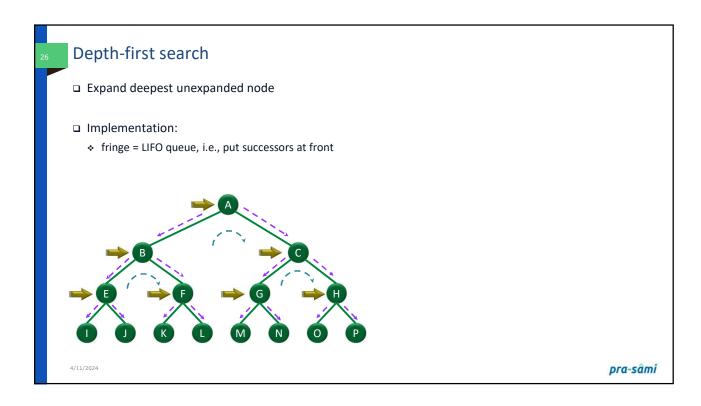
## Use of Breadth First Search

- Web Crawlers
- □ Social networking websites for finding the people in the specified distance (depth)
- □ Torrenting/peer-to-peer network to look for neighboring computers
- ☐ GPS navigation systems can use it to find nearby locations

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# Depth-first search

- Not complete
  - Because a path may be infinite or looping
  - Fails in infinite-depth spaces, spaces with loops
  - Needs modification to avoid repeated states along path
    - > Complete in finite spaces
- Not optimal
  - It doesn't guarantee the best solution
- □ It overcomes
  - Time and space complexities
- - \* Terrible if m is much larger than d
  - But if solutions are dense, may be much faster than breadth-first
- □ Space? O( b x m ), i.e., linear space!

## Depth-first search - Pseudo Code

- □ Create two empty **Stacks** 
  - Open and closed
- □ Start from the initial node and add it to the ordered open stack
- ☐ Following steps are repeated until the final node or endpoint is reached
  - If the open stack is empty exit the loop and return a False statement which says that the final node cannot be reached
  - \* Select the top node in the open stack and move it to the closed stack while keeping track of the parent node
  - If the node removed is the endpoint node return a True statement meaning a path has been found and moving the node to the closed list
  - However if it is not the endpoint node then list down all the neighboring nodes of it and add them to the open stack

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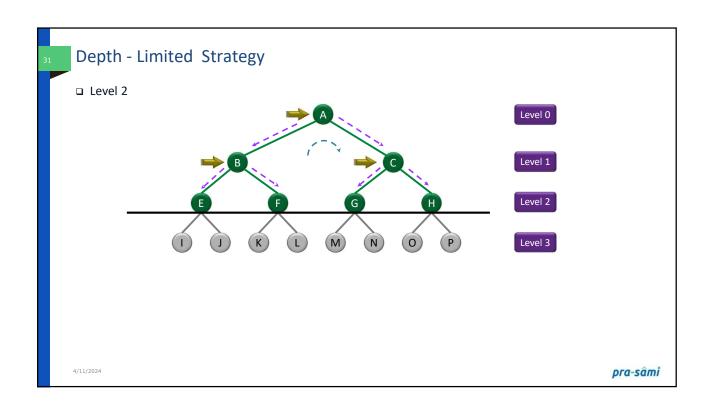
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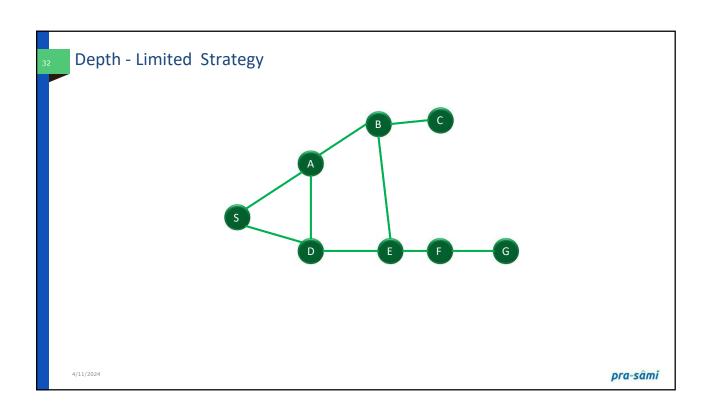
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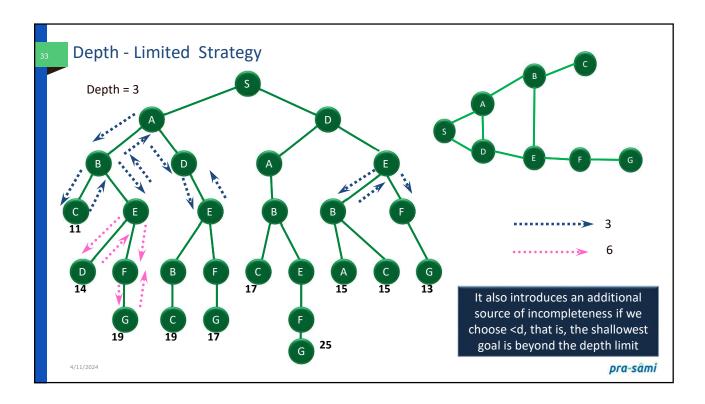
# Depth - Limited Strategy

- ☐ It is depth-first search
  - With a predefined maximum depth
  - ❖ However, it is usually not easy to define the suitable maximum depth
  - $\diamond$  Too small  $\rightarrow$  no solution can be found
  - ❖ Too large → the same problems as Depth First
- Anyway the search is
  - complete
  - but still not optimal
- □ Depth-first with depth cutoff k
  - \* maximal depth below which nodes are not expanded
  - Treat them as leaf node
- ☐ Three possible outcomes:
  - Solution
  - Failure (no solution)
  - Cutoff (no solution within cutoff)

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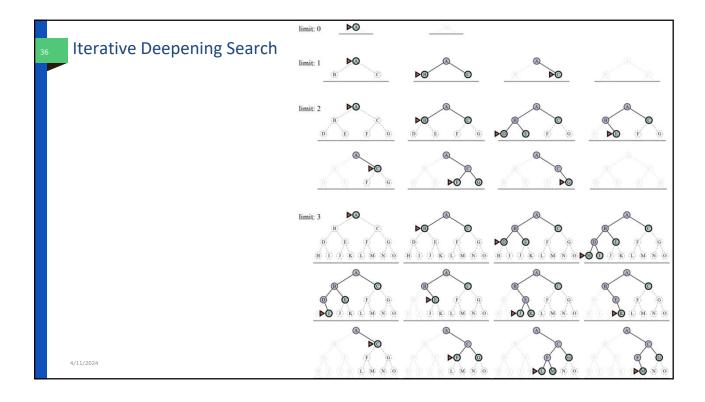


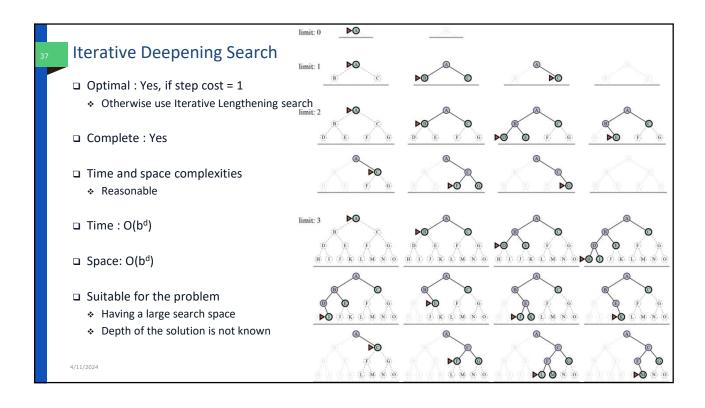
# Depth - Limited Strategy ■ Advantages:

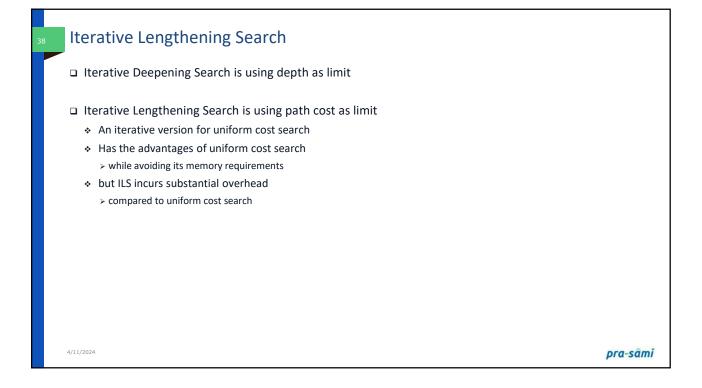
- - Depth-limited search is Memory efficient.
- Disadvantages:
  - Depth-limited search also has a disadvantage of incompleteness.
  - It may not be optimal if the problem has more than one solution.
- □ Completeness:
  - DLS search algorithm is complete if the solution is above the depth-limit.
- □ Time Complexity:
  - Time complexity of DLS algorithm is O( $b^{\ell}$ ).
- □ Space Complexity: Space complexity of DLS algorithm is  $O(b \times \ell)$ .
- □ Optimal: Depth-limited search can be viewed as a special case of DFS, and it is also not optimal even if \$\end{c} > d.

# Iterative Deepening Search

- $\hfill \square$  No more choosing of the best depth limit
- □ It tries all possible depth limits:
  - First 0, then 1, 2, and so on
  - Combines the benefits of depth-first and breadth-first search







Use of Depth First Search

□ Scheduling jobs from the given dependencies among jobs

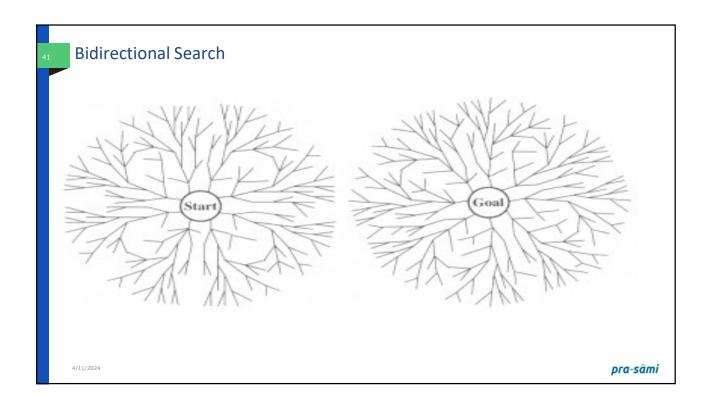
☐ Find a path between two given points

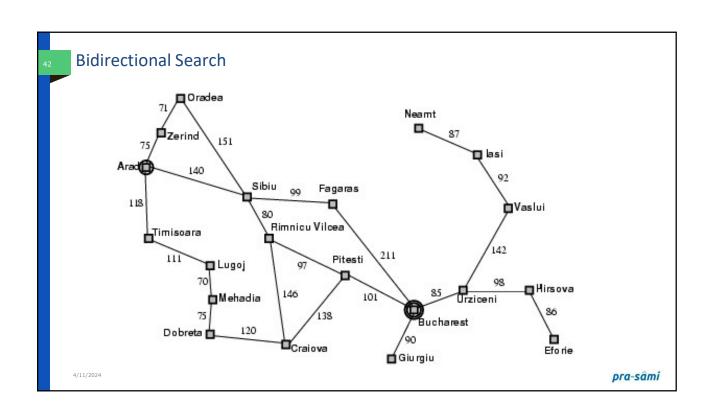
□ Solving puzzles fast when only one solution is needed

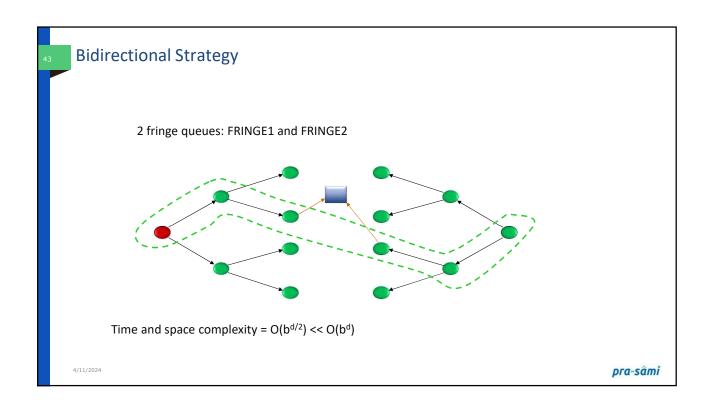
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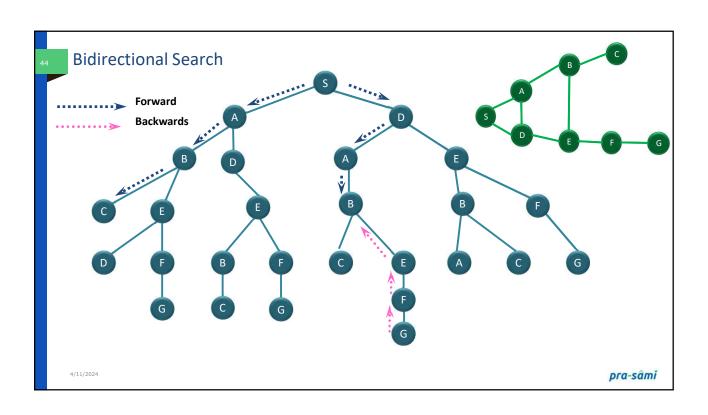
Bidirectional Search

- □ Run two simultaneous searches
  - One forward from the initial state another backward from the goal
  - Stop when the two searches meet
- □ However, computing backward is difficult
  - A huge amount of goal states
  - \* At the goal state, which actions are used to compute it?
  - Can the actions be reversible to computer its predecessors?









## Bidirectional Search is Challenging

- ☐ The reduction in time complexity makes bidirectional search attractive,
  - But how do we search backward? This is not as easy as it sounds.
- ☐ Let the predecessors of a state x be all those states that have x as a successor
  - \* Bidirectional search requires a method for computing predecessors
  - When all the actions in the state space are reversible, the predecessors of x are just its successors.
- □ What we mean by "the goal" in searching "backward from the goal."
  - For the 8-puzzle and for finding a route in Romania, there is just one goal state, so the backward search is very much like the forward search
- ☐ If there are several explicitly listed goal states
  - for example, the two dirt-free goal states in vacuum world then we can construct a new dummy goal state
    whose immediate predecessors are all the actual goal states
  - But if the goal is an abstract description, such as the goal that "no queen attacks another queen" in the nqueens problem, then bidirectional search is difficult to use

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# Comparing search strategies

Criterion	Breadth- First	Uniform- Cost	Depth- First	Depth- Limited	Iterative Deepening	Bidirectional (if applicable)
Complete?	Yes <sup>a</sup>	$Yes^{a,b}$	No	No	$Yes^a$	$Yes^{a,d}$
Time	$O(b^{d+1})$	$O(b^{\lceil C^*/\epsilon \rceil})$	$O(b^m)$	$O(b^{\ell})$	$O(b^d)$	$O(b^{d/2})$
Space	$O(b^{d+1})$	$O(b^{\lceil C^*/\epsilon \rceil})$	O(bm)	$O(b\ell)$	O(bd)	$O(b^{d/2})$
Optimal?	Yesc	Yes	No	No	Yesc	$Yes^{c,d}$

**Figure 3.17** Evaluation of search strategies. b is the branching factor; d is the depth of the shallowest solution; m is the maximum depth of the search tree; l is the depth limit. Superscript caveats are as follows: a complete if b is finite; b complete if step costs b for positive b coptimal if step costs are all identical; d if both directions use breadth-first search.

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# Avoiding repeated states □ For all search strategies ❖ There is possibility of expanding states that have already been encountered and expanded before, on some other path ❖ May cause the path to be infinite → loop forever

# Avoiding repeated states

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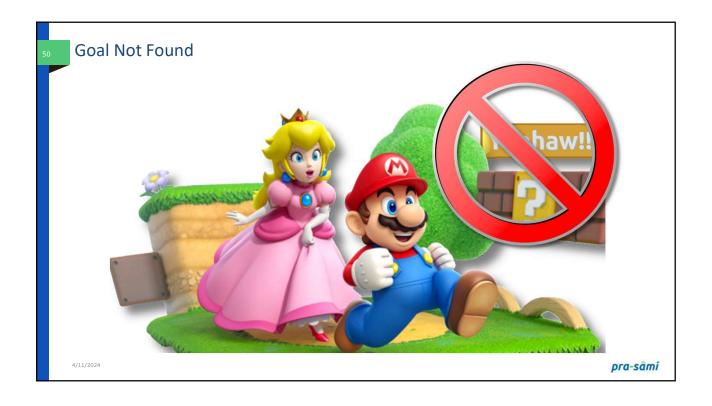
- □ Try to remember all previously generated states
  - Space requirement goes up exponentially
  - Do not go back to parent in bidirectional graphs
  - May be do not go to ancestor
- Do not return to the state it just came from
  - \* Refuse generation of any successor same as its parent state
- Do not create paths with cycles
  - \* Refuse generation of any successor same as its ancestor states
- □ Do not generate any generated state
  - \* Not only its ancestor states, but also all other expanded states have to be checked against

# Avoiding repeated states

- □ We then define a data structure
  - closed list:
  - a set storing every expanded node so far
  - \* If the current node matches a node on the closed list, discard it.

function GRAPH-SEARCH(problem, fringe) returns a solution, or failure

```
 closed \leftarrow \text{an empty set} \\ fringe \leftarrow \text{INSERT}(\text{MAKE-NODE}(\text{INITIAL-STATE}[problem]), fringe) \\ \textbf{loop do} \\ \textbf{if EMPTY}?(fringe) \textbf{ then return failure} \\ node \leftarrow \text{REMOVE-FIRST}(fringe) \\ \textbf{if GOAL-TEST}[problem](\text{STATE}[node]) \textbf{ then return SOLUTION}(node) \\ \textbf{if STATE}[node] \textbf{ is not in } closed \textbf{ then} \\ add \text{STATE}[node] \textbf{ to } closed \\ fringe \leftarrow \text{INSERT-ALL}(\text{EXPAND}(node, problem), fringe) \\ \end{aligned}
```



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# Reflect... Abstraction is the process to take out the irrelevant information leave the most essential parts to the description of the states (Remove detail from representation) Conclusion: Only the most important parts that are contributing to searching are used In Search tree: describe Initial State, Expanding, Leaf Node, Fringe Node Components of a Node are: State, Parent Node, Action, Path Cost, Depth Two different nodes can contain the same world state if that state is generated via two different search paths Heuristic search is also known as informed search

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