

2. Problem Solving

Artificial Intelligence and Neural Network (AINN)

Part II

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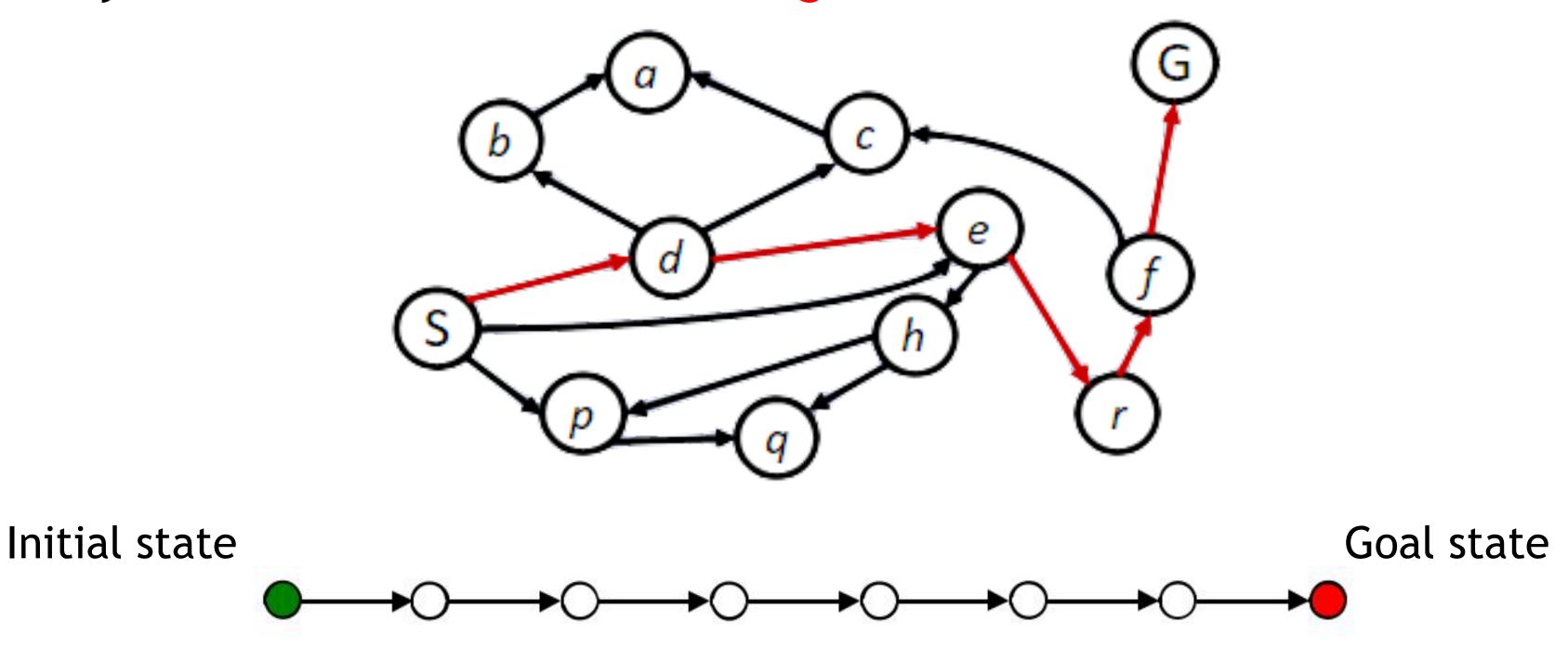
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Overview

- Solving Problems by Searching
- Example Problems
- Searching for Solutions
- Uninformed Search Strategies
- Informed Search Strategies

Solving Problem by Searching

- A wide range of problems can be formulated as searches
 - as the process of searching for a sequence of actions that take you from an initial state to a goal state



Solving Problem by Searching

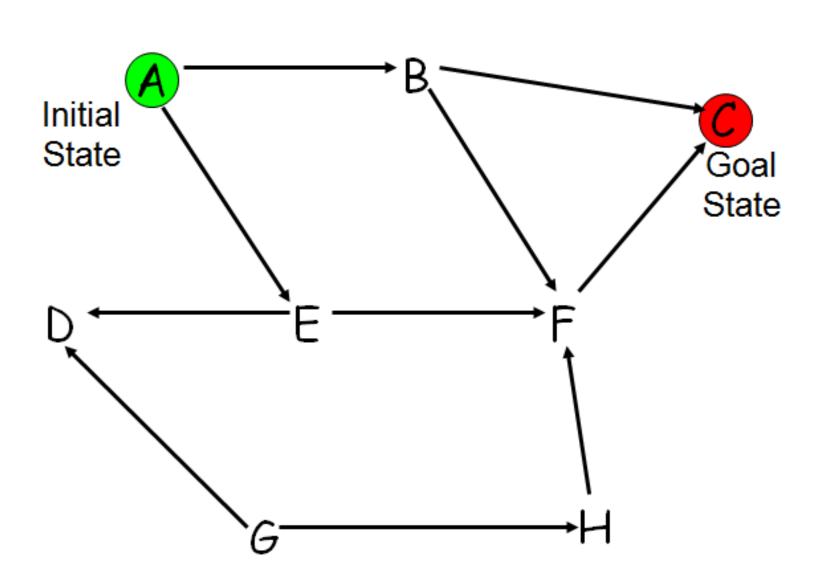
- State-Space Search
 - The *states* might be
 - legal board configurations in a game,
 - towns and cities in some sort of route map,
 - collections of mathematical propositions, etc.
 - The state-space is
 - the configuration of the possible states and how they connect to each other e.g. the legal moves between states.
 - Need to search the state-space to
 - find an optimal path from a start state to a goal state.
 - Example
 - Chess

Solving Problem by Searching

State-Space Search

```
link(g,h).
link(g,d).
link(e,d).
link(h,f).
link(e,f).
link(a,e).
link(a,b).
link(b,f).
link(b,c).
link(f,c).
```

State-Space



Check in prolog

```
go(X,X,[X]).
go(X,Y,[X|T]):-
link(X,Z),
go(Z,Y,T).
```

Simple search algorithm

```
| ?- go(a,c,X).

X = [a,e,f,c] ?;

X = [a,b,f,c] ?;

X = [a,b,c] ?;

no
```

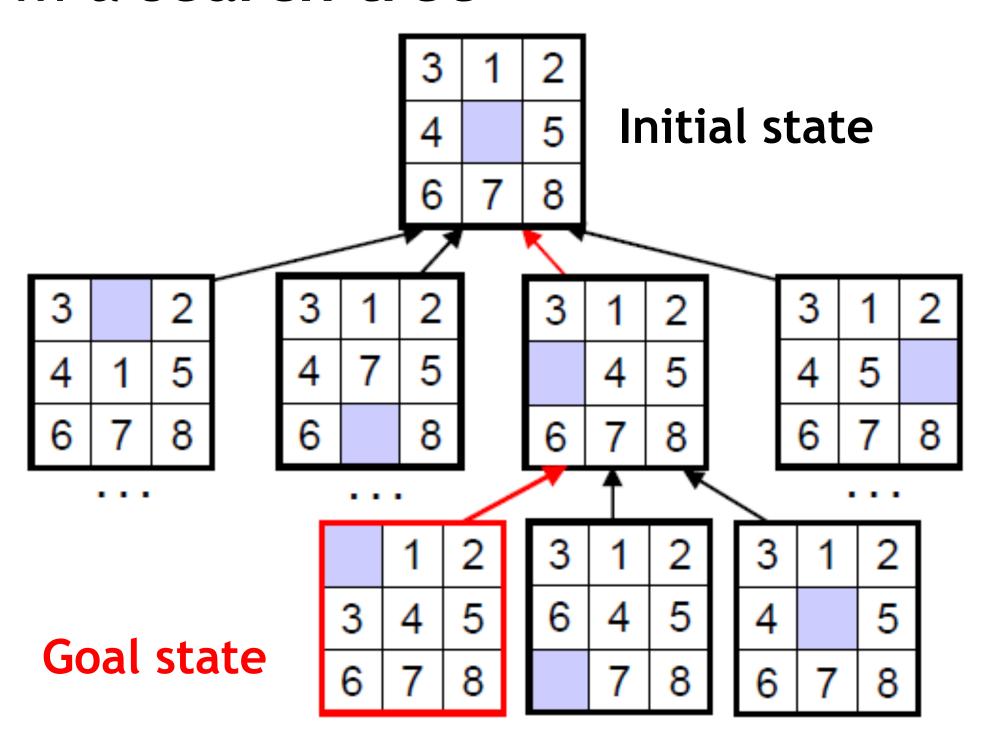
Consultation

- A Search Problem is defined by
 - a state space
 - (i.e., an initial state or set of initial states and a set of operators)
 - a set of goal states

- A solution
 - is a path in the state space from an initial state to a goal state

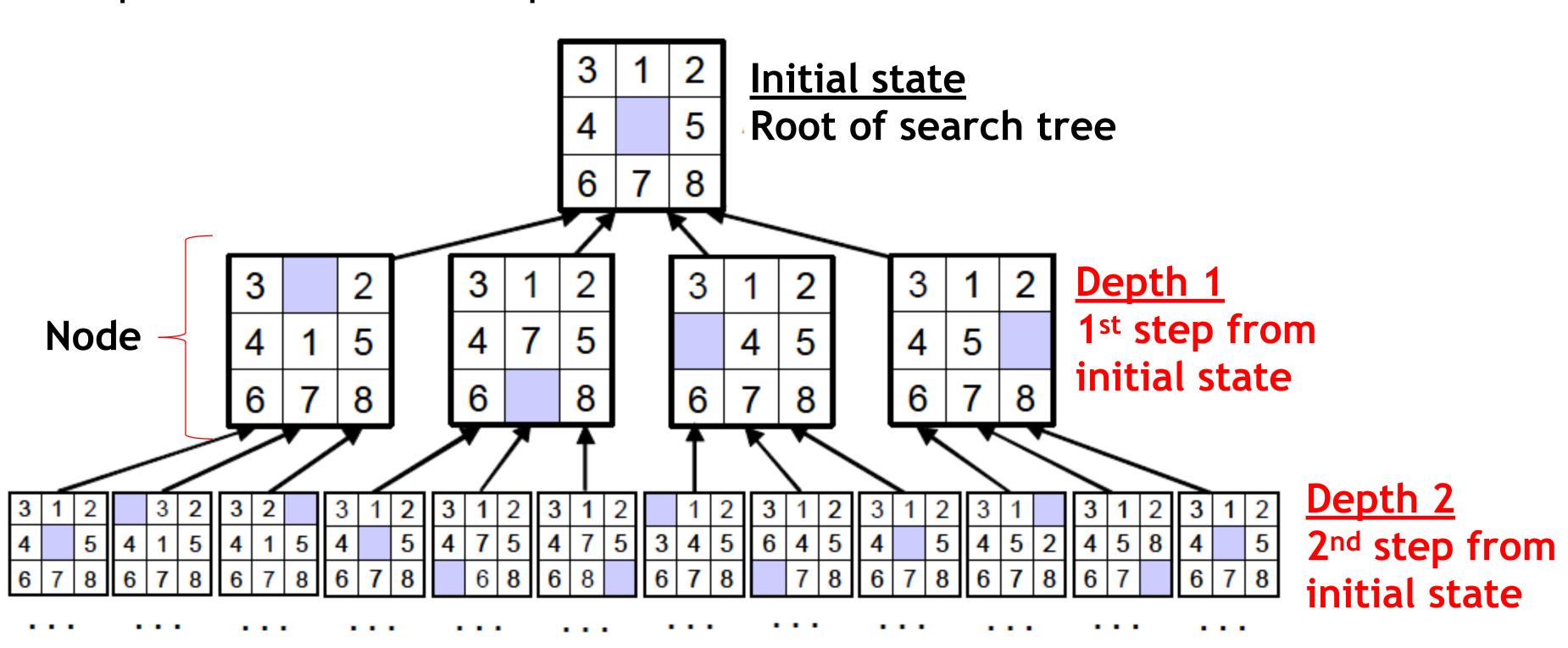
- Exploring the state space
 Search is the process of exploring the state space to find a solution
 - exploration starts from the initial state
 - the search procedure applies operators to the initial state to generate one or more new states which are hopefully nearer to a solution
 - the search procedure is then applied recursively to the newly generated states
 - the procedure terminates when either a solution is found, or no operators can be applied to any of the current states

- Search Tree
 - The possible action sequences starting at the initial state form a search tree



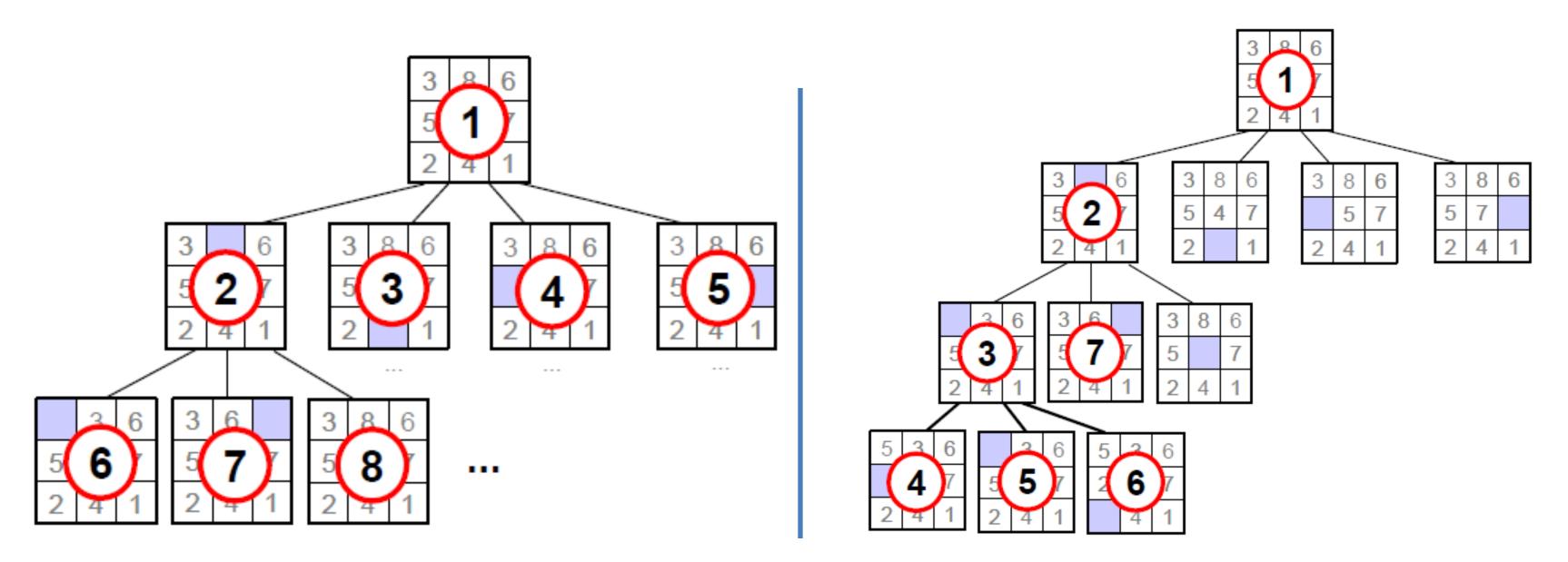
Search Tree

 the part of the state space that has been explored by a search procedure can be represented as a search tree



- the process of generating the children of a node by applying operators is called *expanding* the node
- the branching factor of a search tree is the average number of children of each non-leaf node
- if the branching factor is b, the number of nodes at depth d is b^d

- Search strategies
 - They vary primarily according to how they choose which state (node) to expand next in the search tree
 - Examples:



- Search strategies
 - are evaluated along the following dimensions:
 - completeness: does it always find a solution if one exists?
 - time complexity: number of nodes generated
 - space complexity: maximum number of nodes in memory
 - optimality: does it always find a least-cost solution?
 - Time and space complexity are measured in terms of
 - b: maximum branching factor of the search tree
 - d: depth of the least-cost solution
 - *m*: maximum depth of the state space (may be ∞)

Uninformed Search Strategies

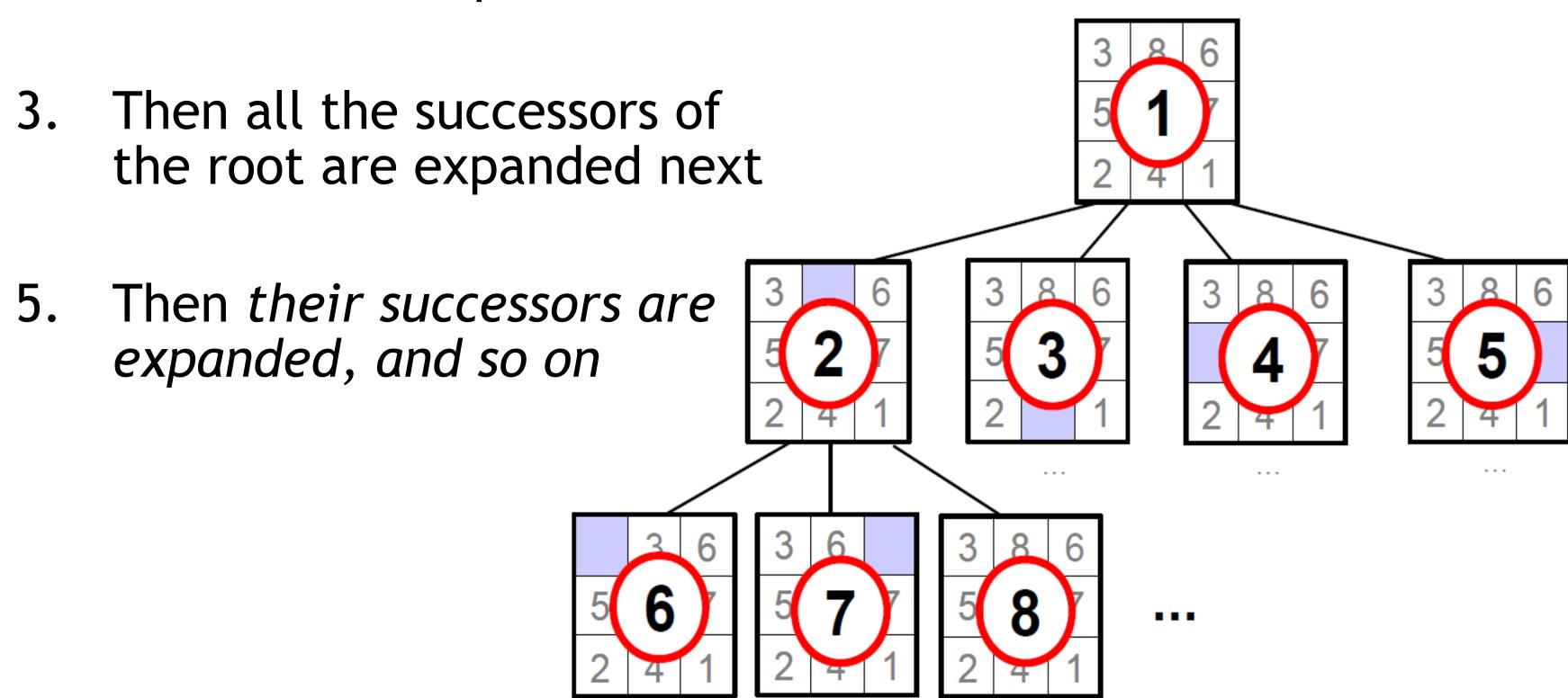
Uninformed search strategies

- use only the information available in the problem definition
- Also known as blind search

Some uninformed strategies

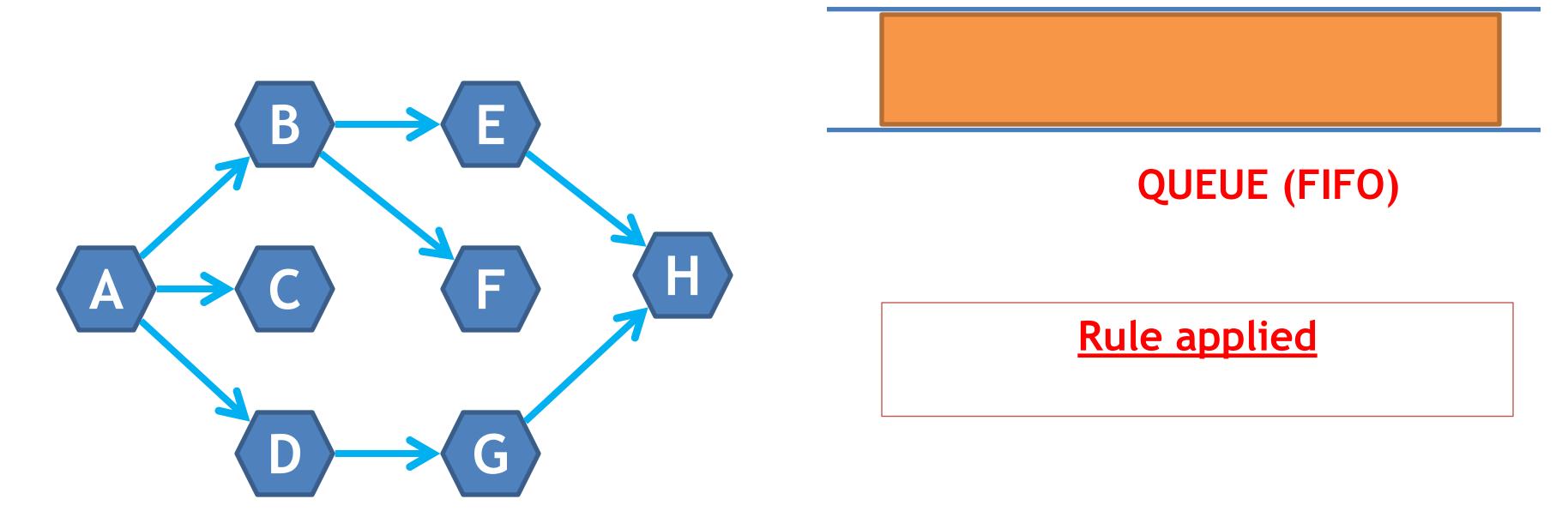
- Breadth-first search
- Uniform-cost search
- Depth-first search
- Depth-limited search
- Iterative deepening search

1. Root node is expanded first



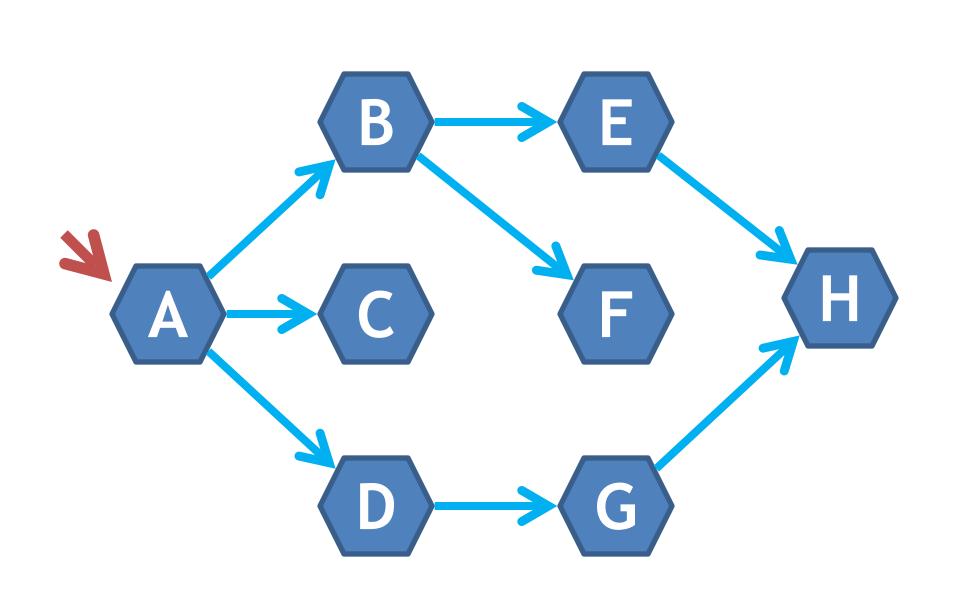
- In BFS, the shallowest unexpanded node is chosen for next expansion next
- This is achieved very simply by using a FIFO queue, i.e., new successors go at end
- BFS uses a Queue to remember to get the next node to start a search when a dead end occurs in any iteration

- 1. Visit all the adjacent unvisited nodes. Mark it as VISITED. Display it. Insert it in a queue.
- 2. If no adjacent node is found, de-queue the queue.
- 3. Repeat 1 and 2 until the queue is empty



Visited Nodes:

- 1. Visit all the adjacent unvisited nodes. Mark it as VISITED. Insert it in a queue.
- 2. If no adjacent node is found, de-queue the queue.
- 3. Repeat 1 and 2 until the queue is empty

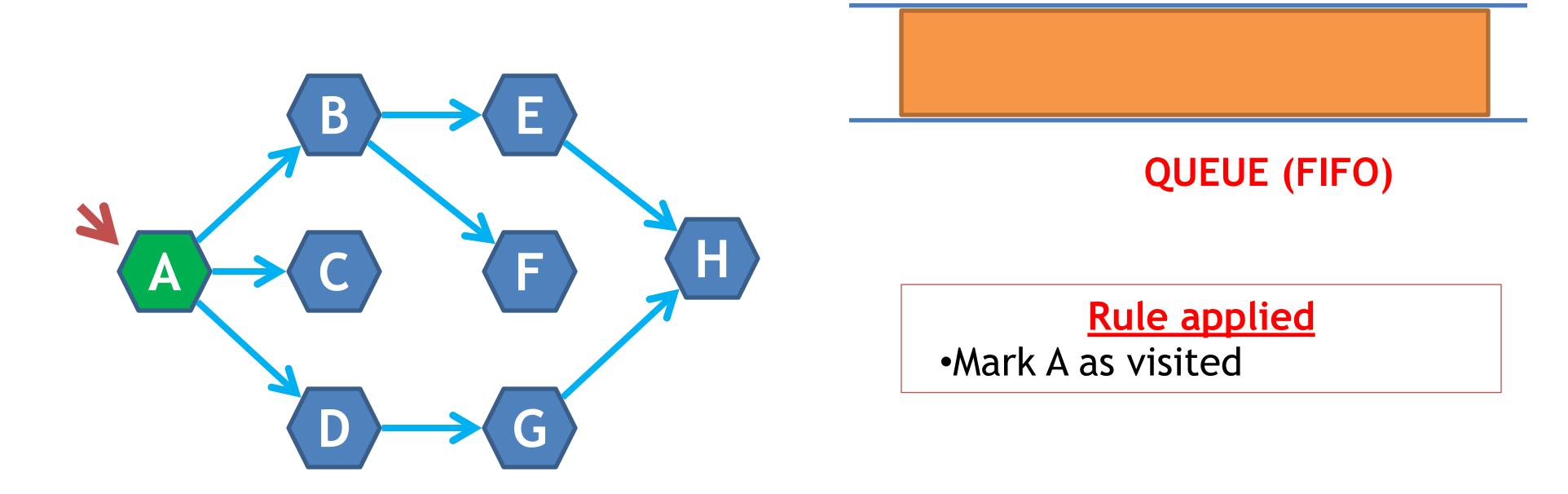


QUEUE (FIFO)

Rule applied
Start with Node A
•Visit node A

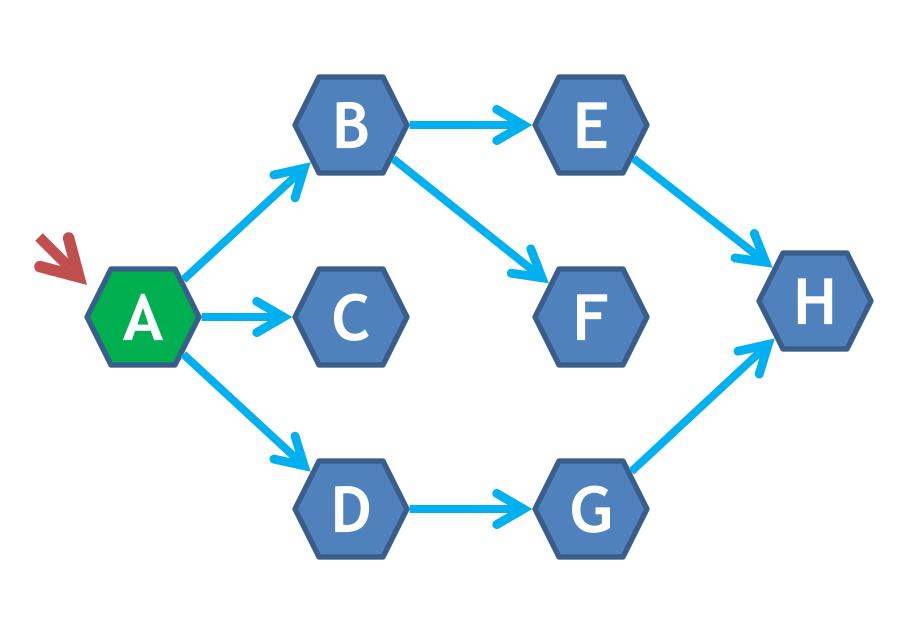
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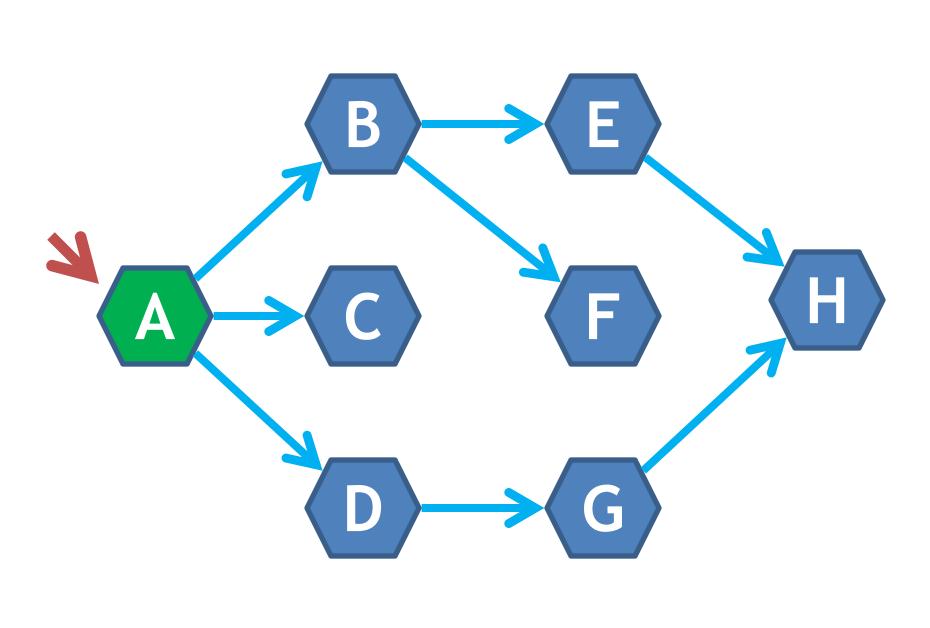
QUEUE (FIFO)

Rule applied

•Insert A into QUEUE



- 1. Visit all the adjacent unvisited nodes. Mark it as VISITED. Insert it in a queue.
- 2. If no adjacent node is found, de-queue the queue.
- 3. Repeat 1 and 2 until the queue is empty





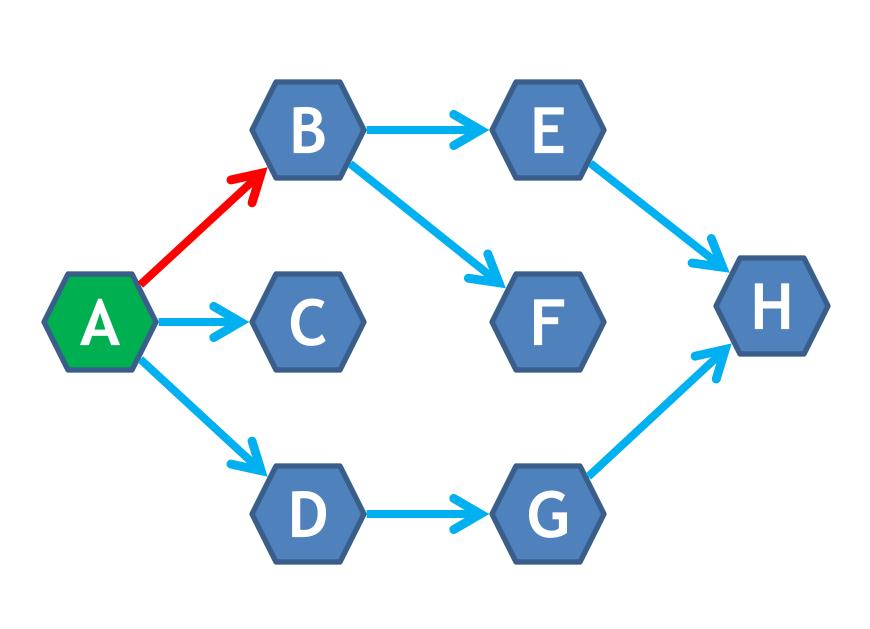
QUEUE (FIFO)

Rule applied

Now, visit the adjacent unvisited nodes of A one by one



- 1. Visit all the adjacent unvisited nodes. Mark it as VISITED. Insert it in a queue.
- 2. If no adjacent node is found, de-queue the queue.
- 3. Repeat 1 and 2 until the queue is empty





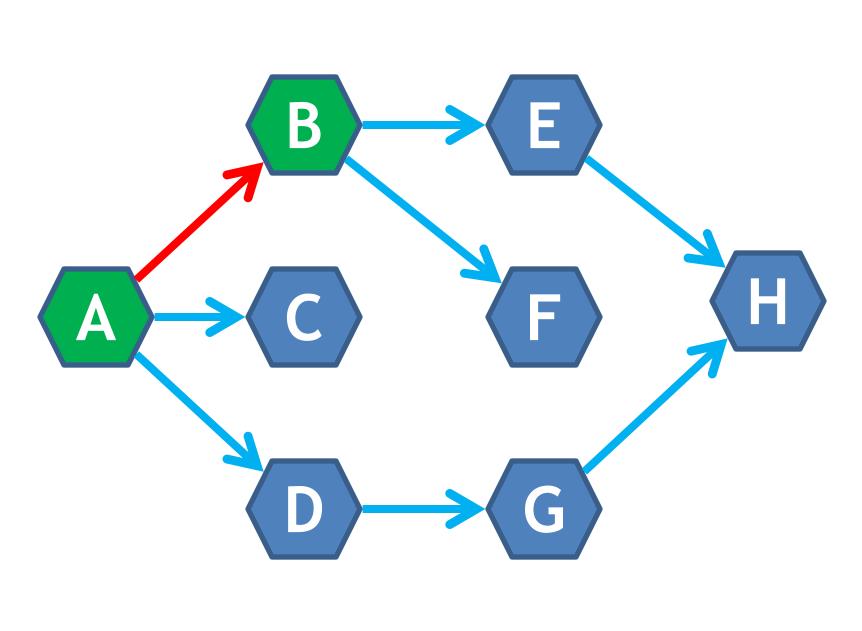
QUEUE (FIFO)

Rule applied

- Alphabetically choose B
 - Visit node B



- 1. Visit all the adjacent unvisited nodes. Mark it as VISITED. Insert it in a queue.
- 2. If no adjacent node is found, de-queue the queue.
- 3. Repeat 1 and 2 until the queue is empty



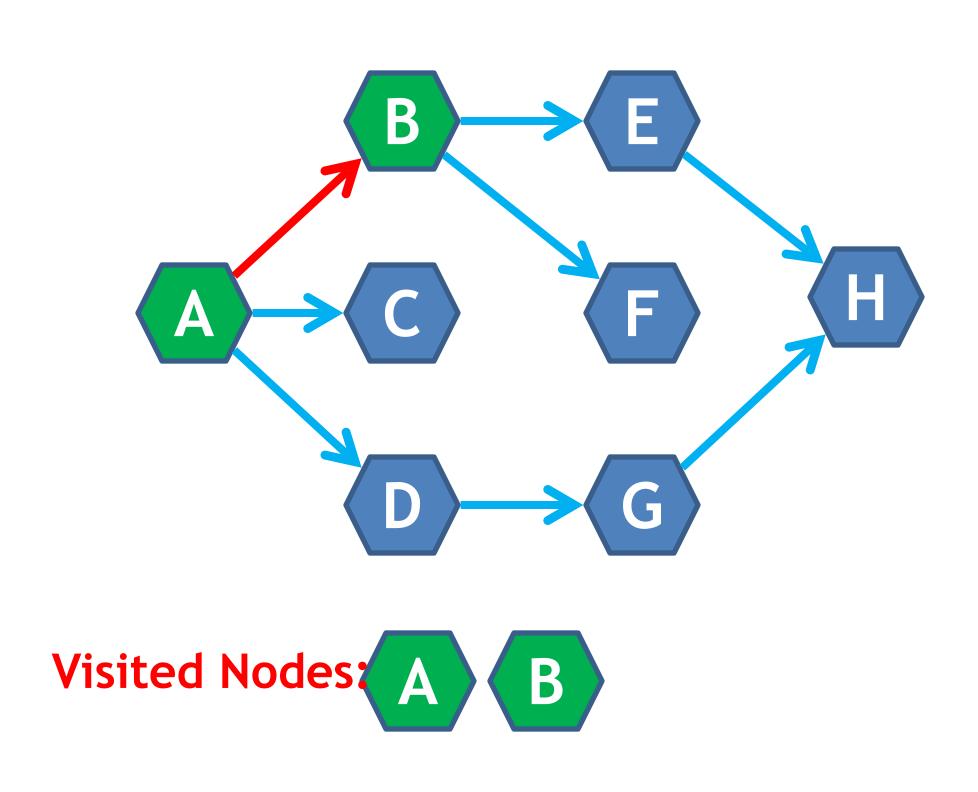


QUEUE (FIFO)

Rule applied

Mark node B as visited

- 1. Visit all the adjacent unvisited nodes. Mark it as VISITED. Insert it in a queue.
- 2. If no adjacent node is found, de-queue the queue.
- 3. Repeat 1 and 2 until the queue is empty



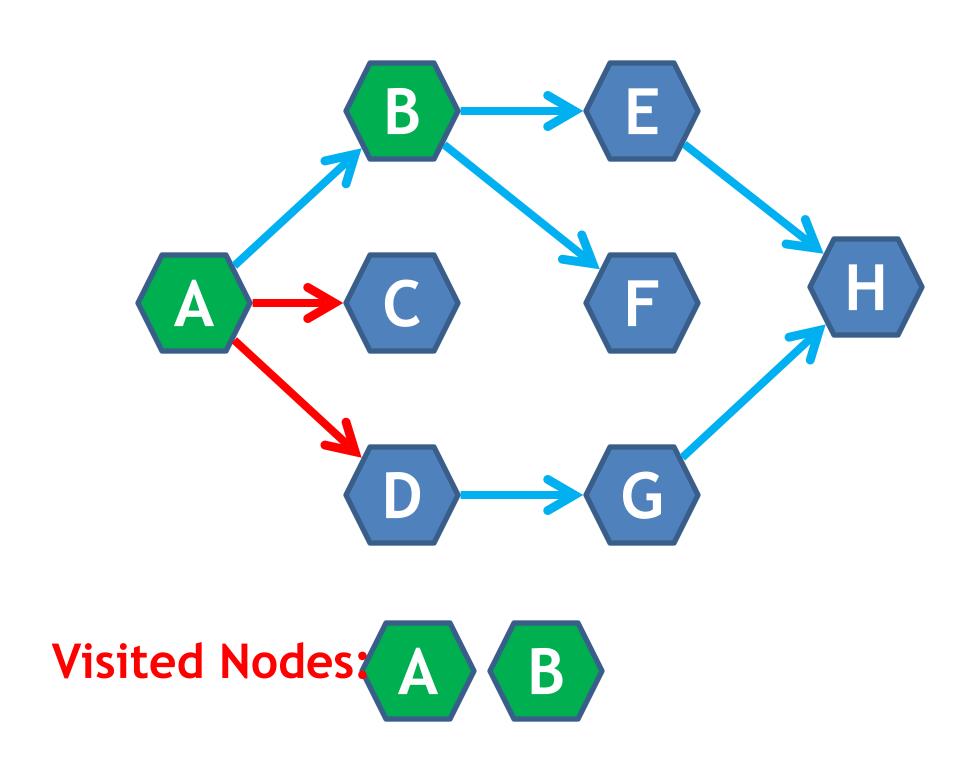


QUEUE (FIFO)

Rule applied

Insert B into QUEUE

- 1. Visit all the adjacent unvisited nodes. Mark it as VISITED. Insert it in a queue.
- 2. If no adjacent node is found, de-queue the queue.
- 3. Repeat 1 and 2 until the queue is empty



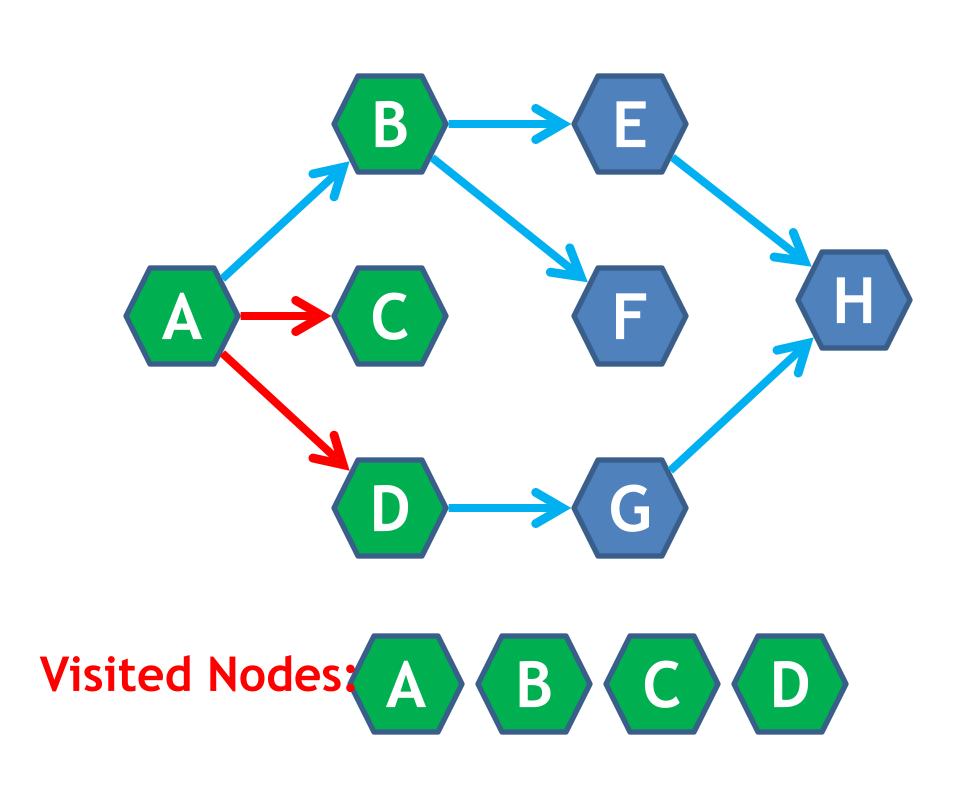


QUEUE (FIFO)

Rule applied

 Similarly visit all the adjacent nodes of A, i.e. C and D

- 1. Visit all the adjacent unvisited nodes. Mark it as VISITED. Insert it in a queue.
- 2. If no adjacent node is found, de-queue the queue.
- 3. Repeat 1 and 2 until the queue is empty



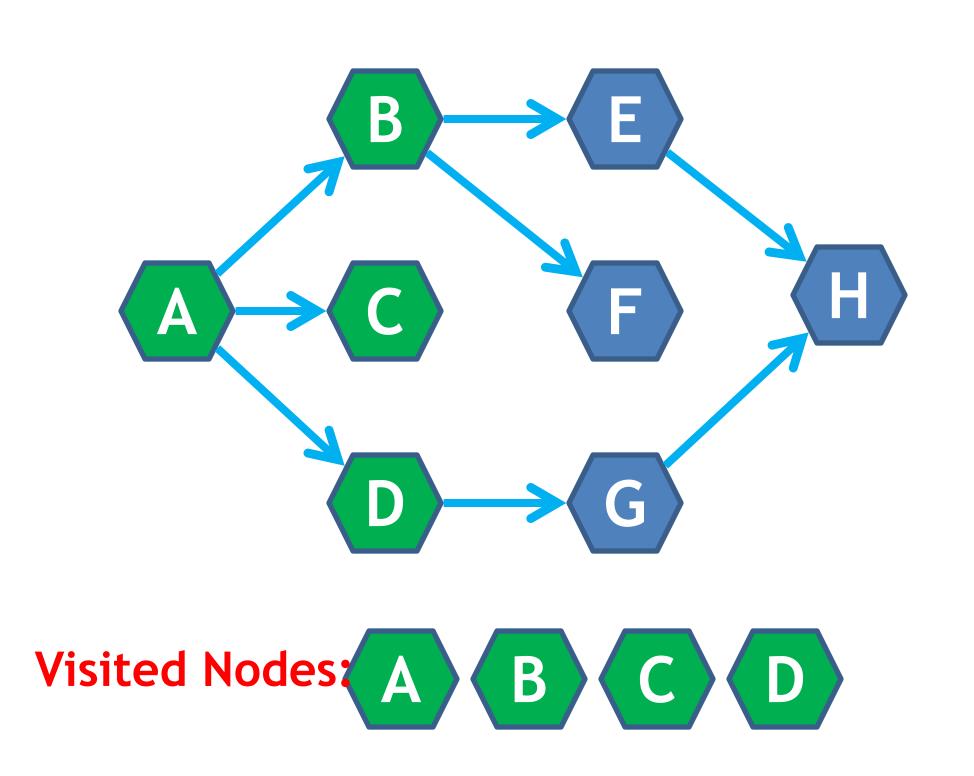


QUEUE (FIFO)

Rule applied

- Mark C and D visited
- Insert them into QUEUE

- 1. Visit all the adjacent unvisited nodes. Mark it as VISITED. Insert it in a queue.
- 2. If no adjacent node is found, de-queue the queue.
- 3. Repeat 1 and 2 until the queue is empty



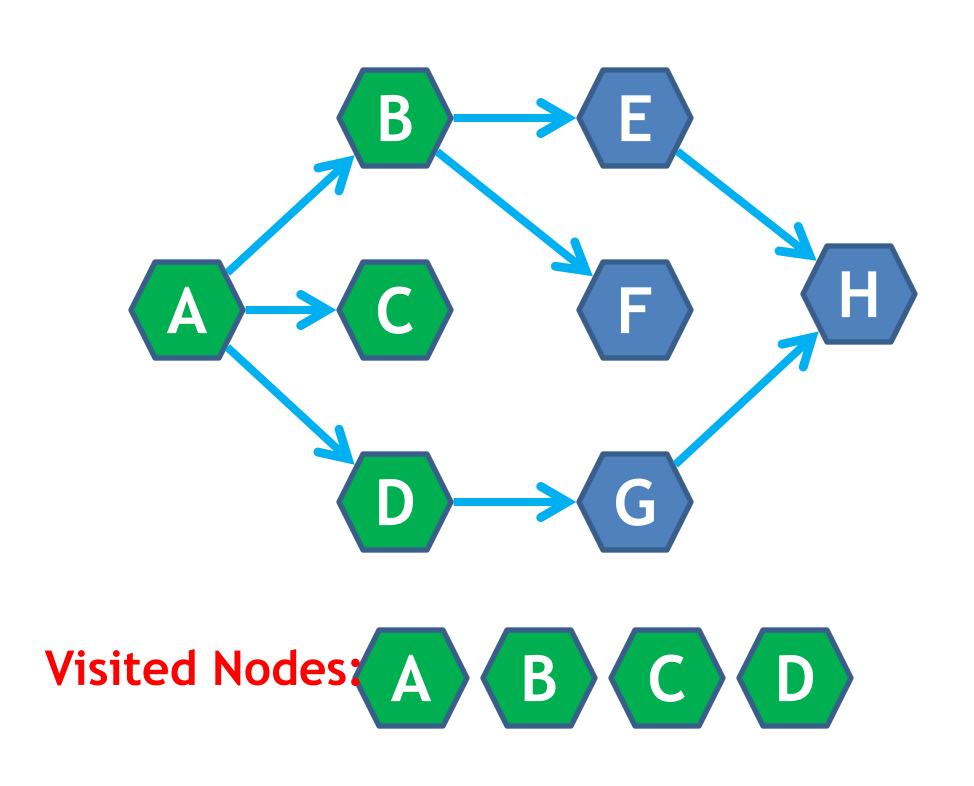


QUEUE (FIFO)

Rule applied

 Now, there are no adjacent unvisited nodes of A

- 1. Visit all the adjacent unvisited nodes. Mark it as VISITED. Insert it in a queue.
- 2. If no adjacent node is found, de-queue the queue.
- 3. Repeat 1 and 2 until the queue is empty



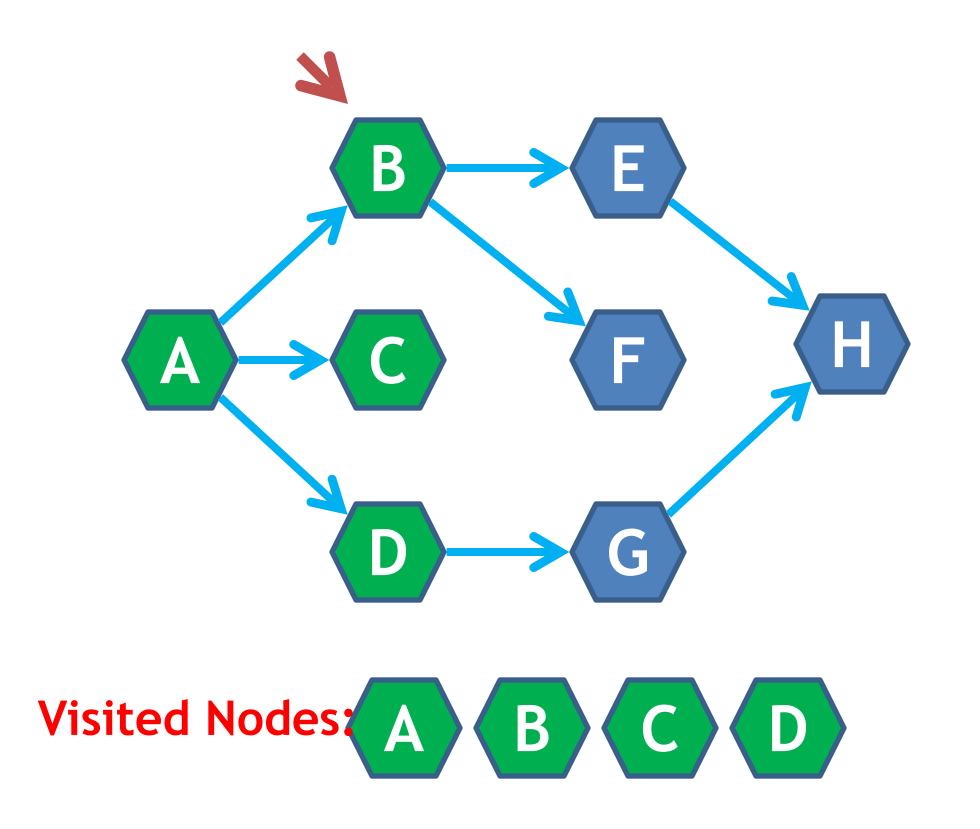


QUEUE (FIFO)

Rule applied

- Now, there are no adjacent unvisited nodes of A
 - So de-queue node A

- 1. Visit all the adjacent unvisited nodes. Mark it as VISITED. Insert it in a queue.
- 2. If no adjacent node is found, de-queue the queue.
- 3. Repeat 1 and 2 until the queue is empty



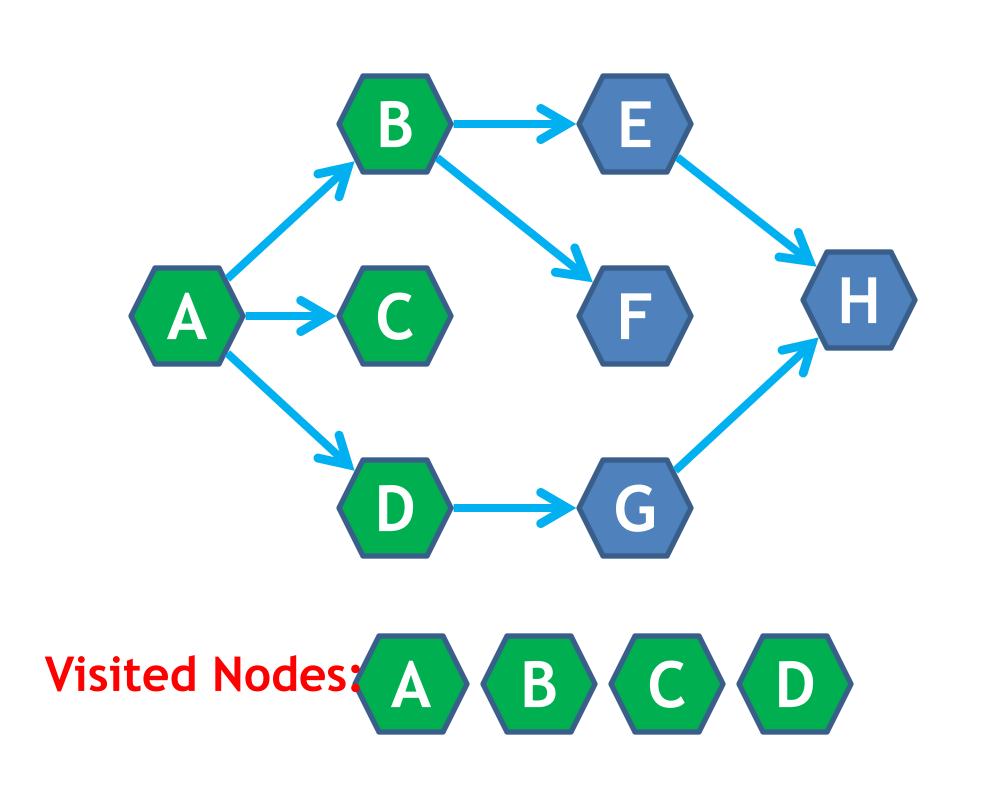


QUEUE (FIFO)

Rule applied

Now the first node in the queue is B

- 1. Visit all the adjacent unvisited nodes. Mark it as VISITED. Insert it in a queue.
- 2. If no adjacent node is found, de-queue the queue.
- 3. Repeat 1 and 2 until the queue is empty



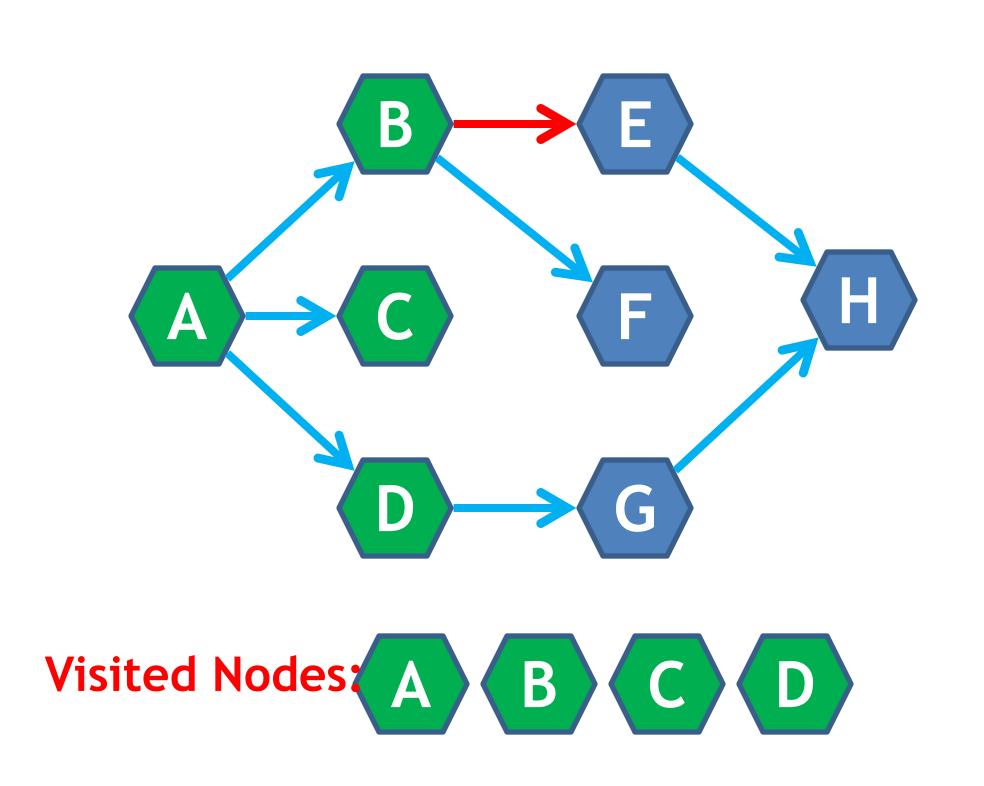


QUEUE (FIFO)

Rule applied

Visit all the adjacent unvisited nodes of B

- 1. Visit all the adjacent unvisited nodes. Mark it as VISITED. Insert it in a queue.
- 2. If no adjacent node is found, de-queue the queue.
- 3. Repeat 1 and 2 until the queue is empty



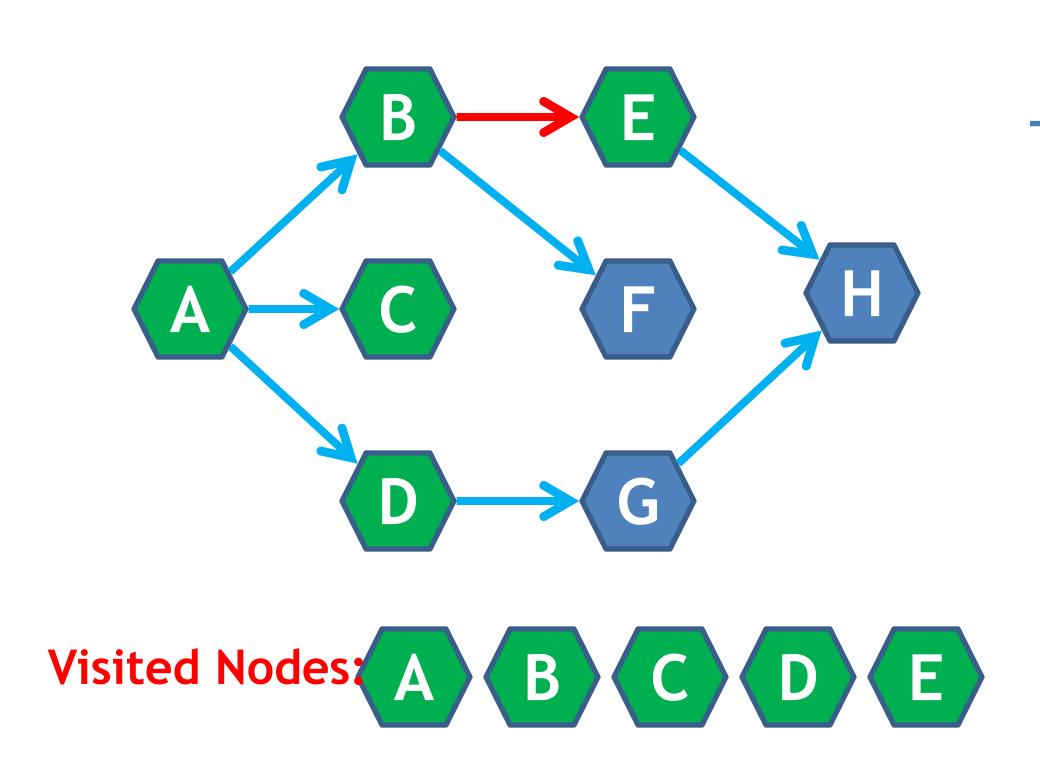


QUEUE (FIFO)

Rule applied

Visit node E

- 1. Visit all the adjacent unvisited nodes. Mark it as VISITED. Insert it in a queue.
- 2. If no adjacent node is found, de-queue the queue.
- 3. Repeat 1 and 2 until the queue is empty



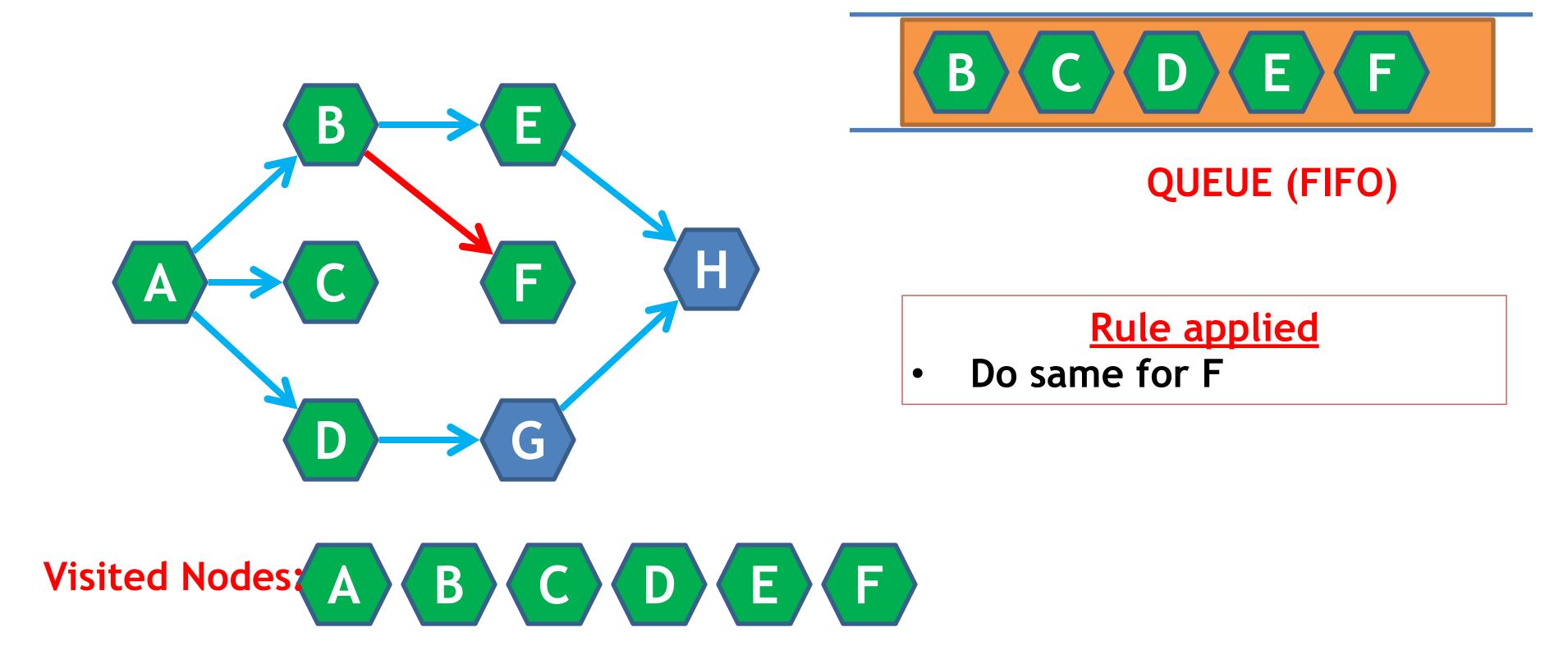


QUEUE (FIFO)

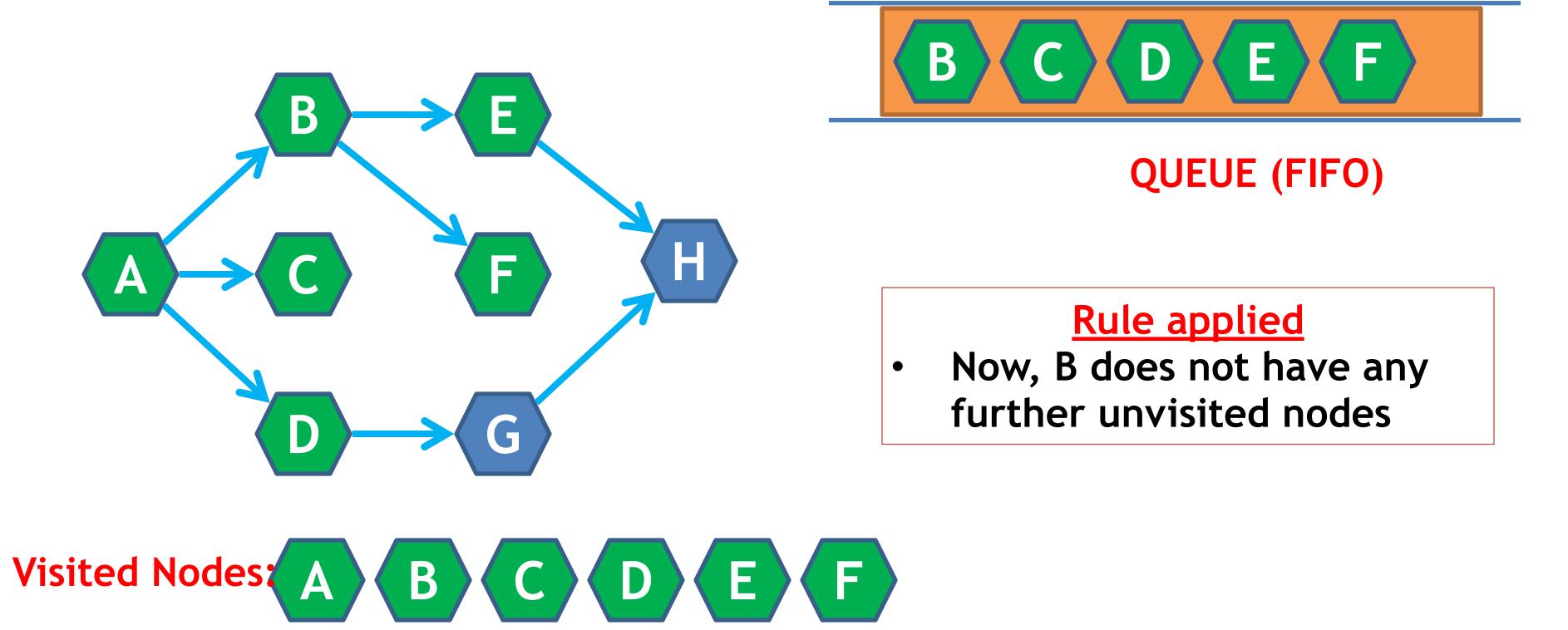
Rule applied

- Mark node E visited
- Insert it into QUEUE

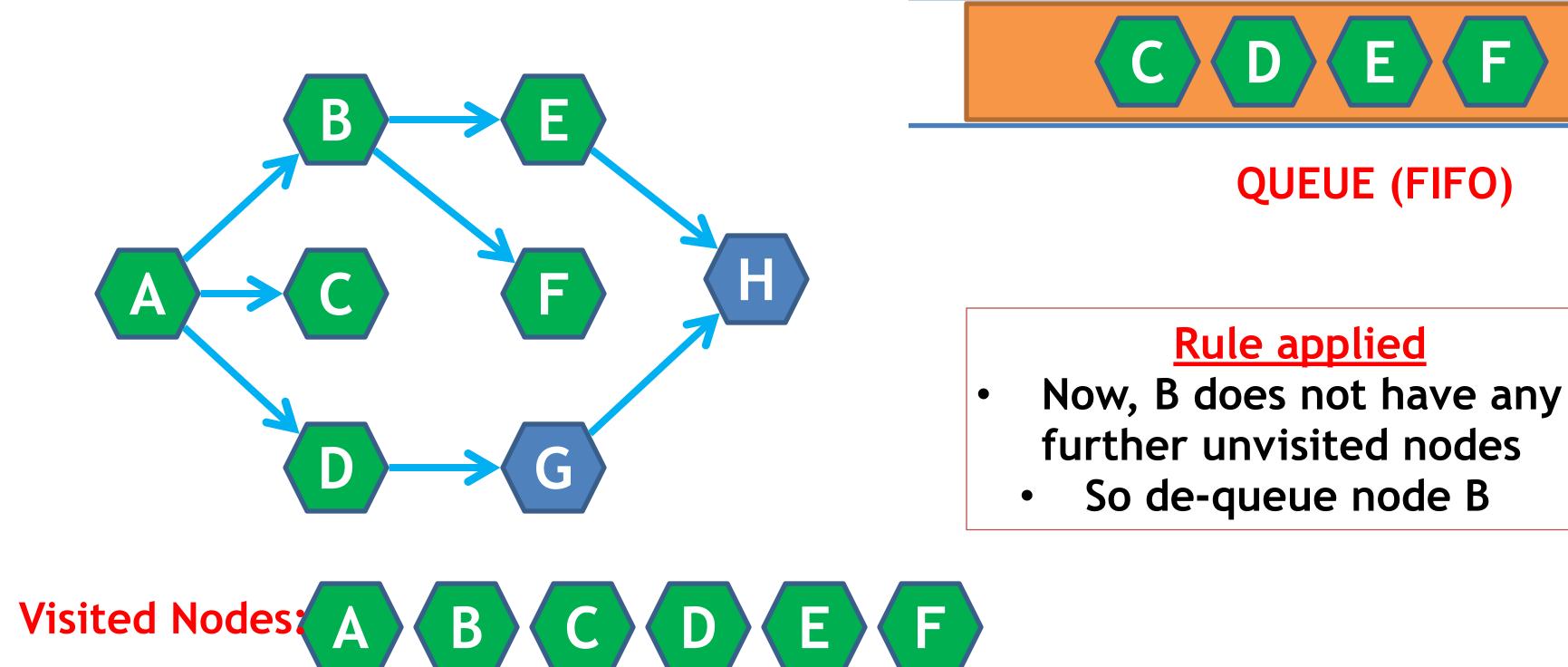
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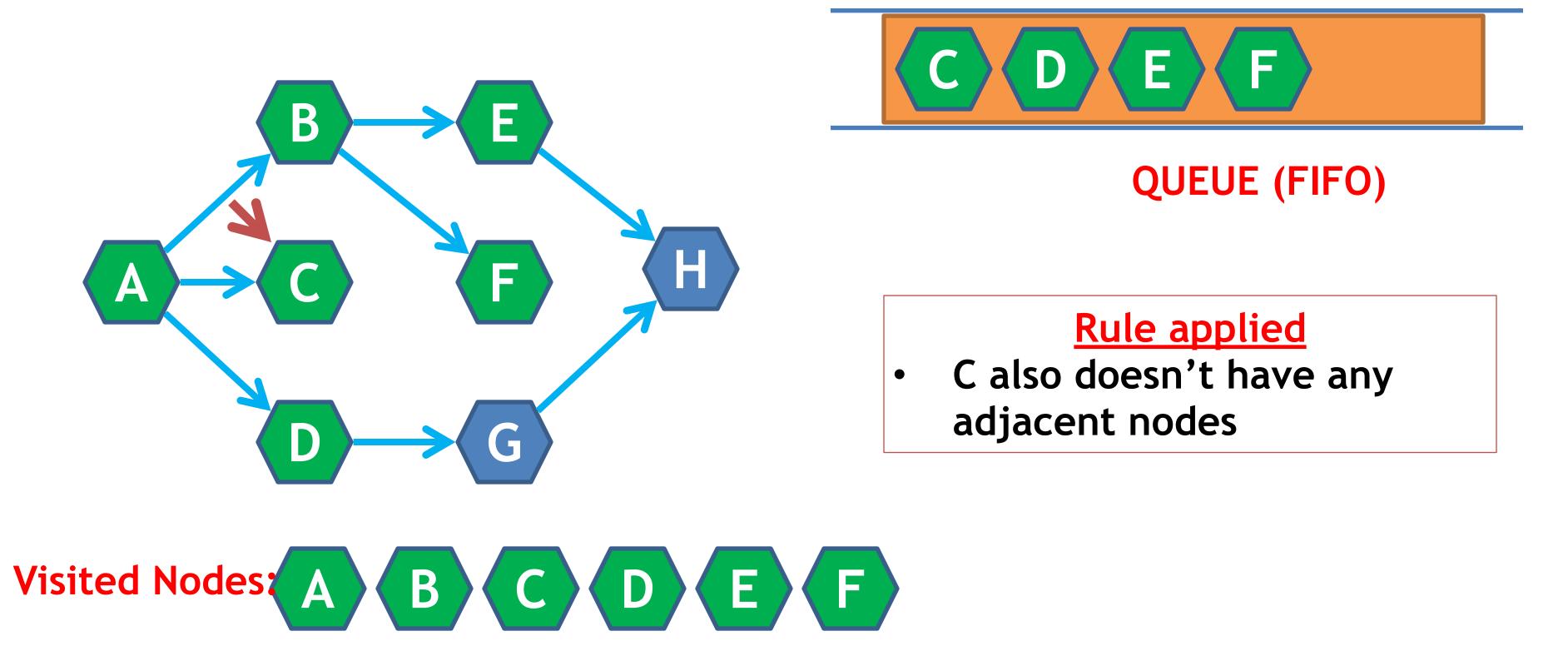
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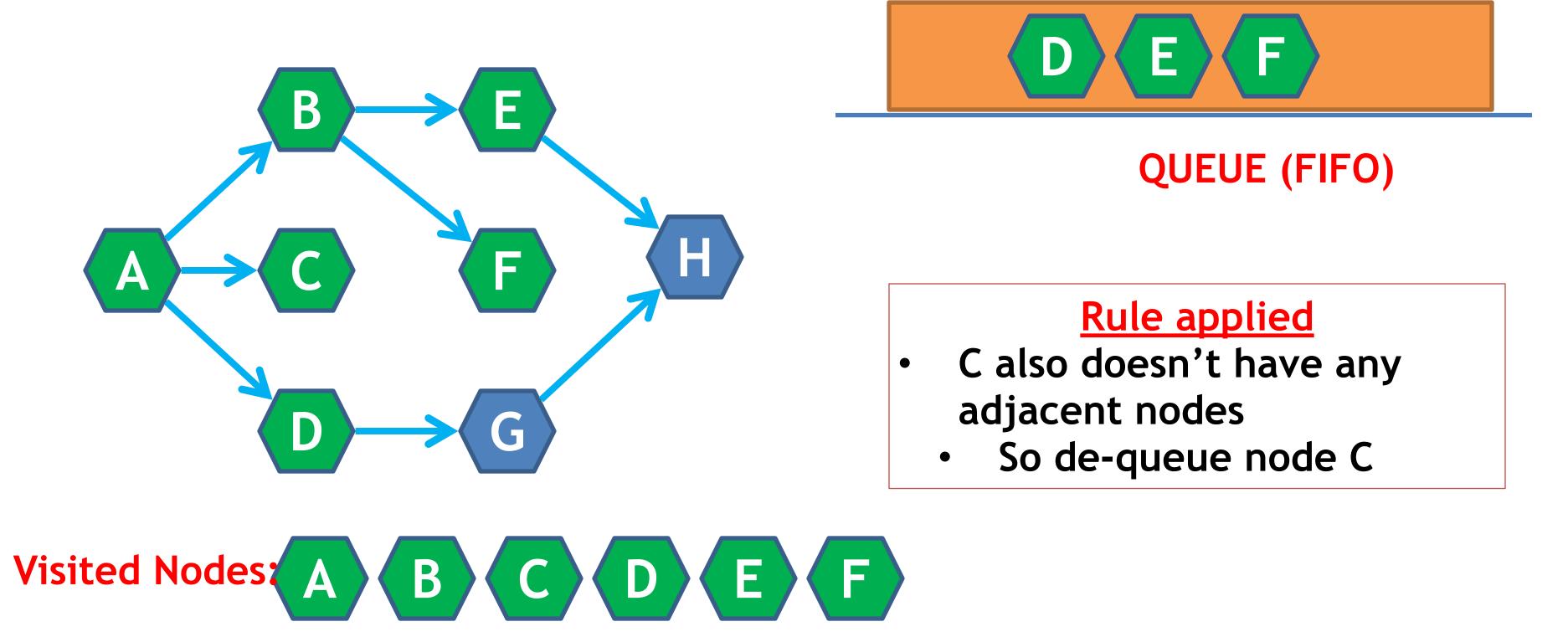
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- 3. Repeat 1 and 2 until the queue is empty



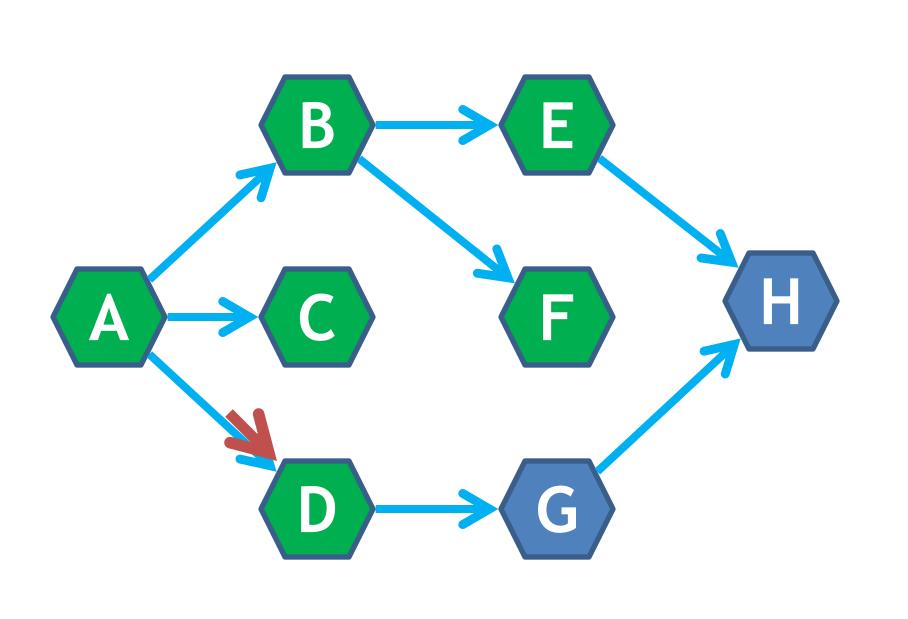
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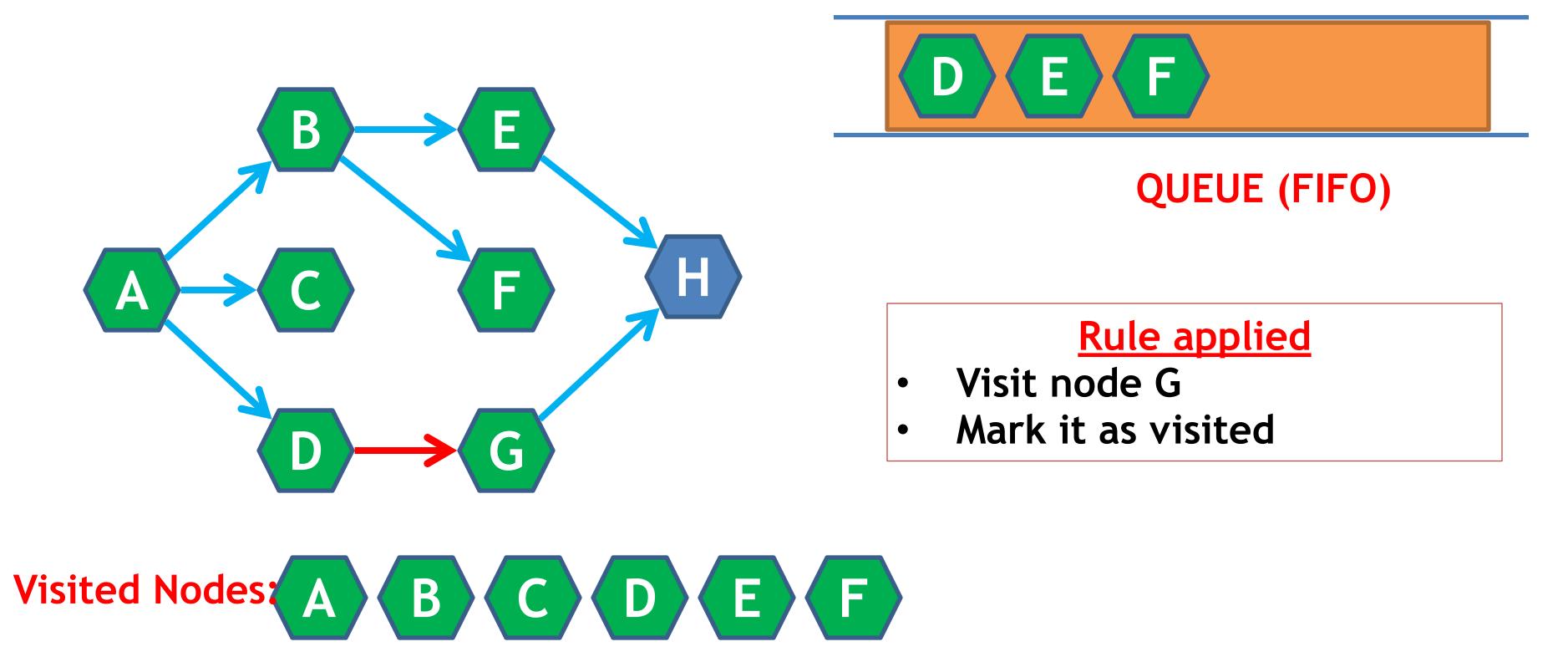


QUEUE (FIFO)

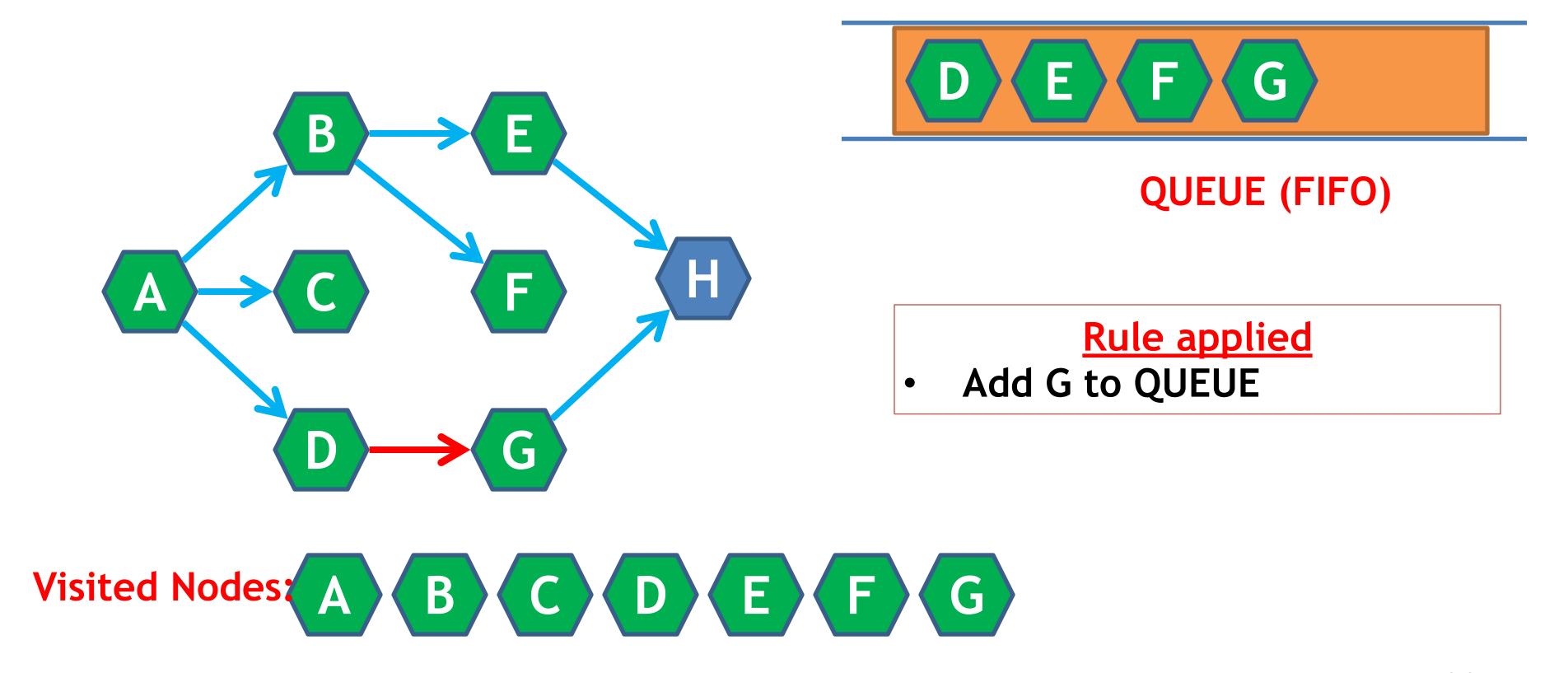
Rule applied

- Now, visit adjacent unvisited nodes of D
 - Its node G

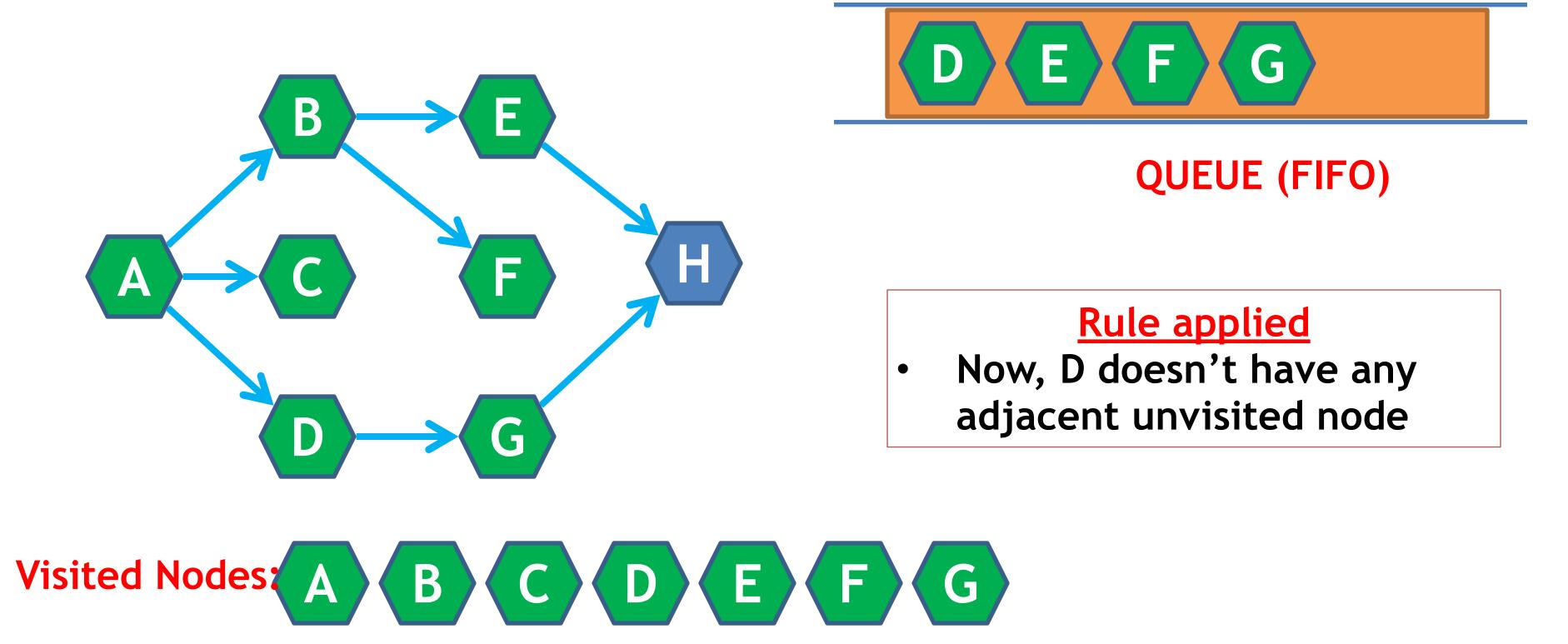
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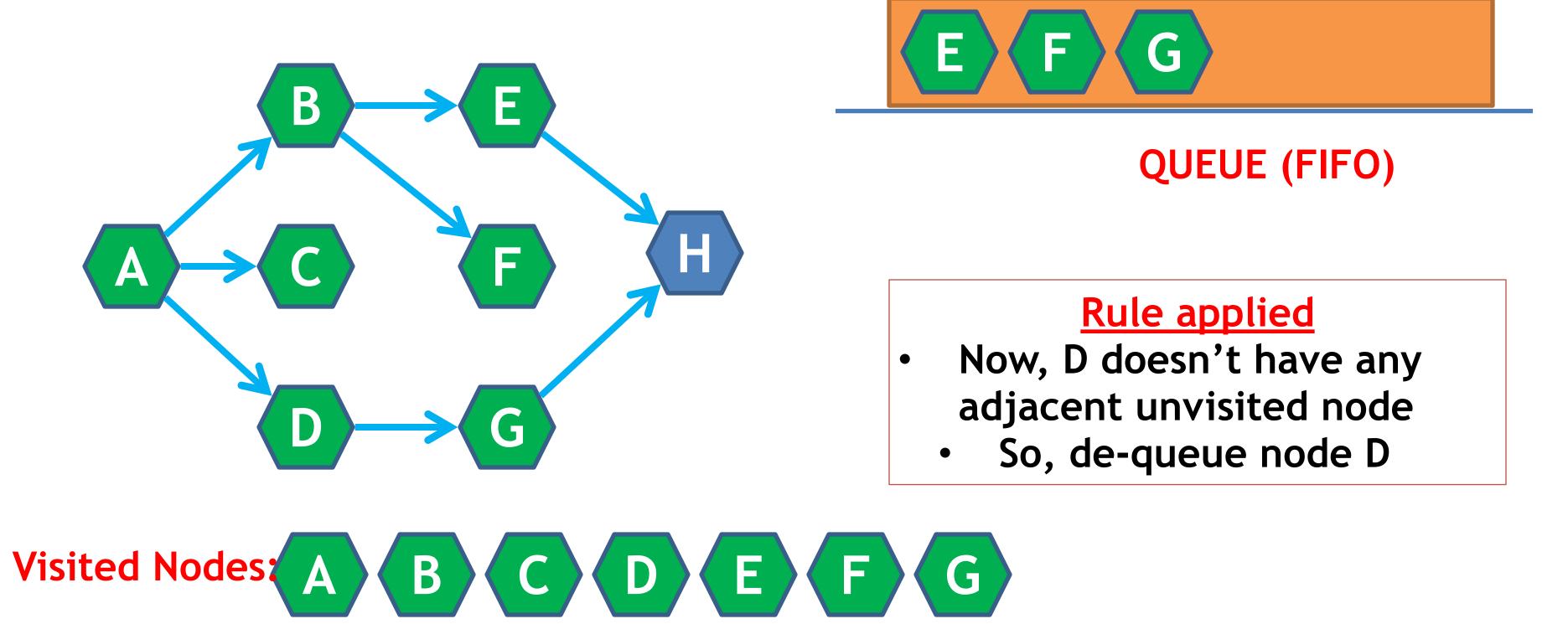
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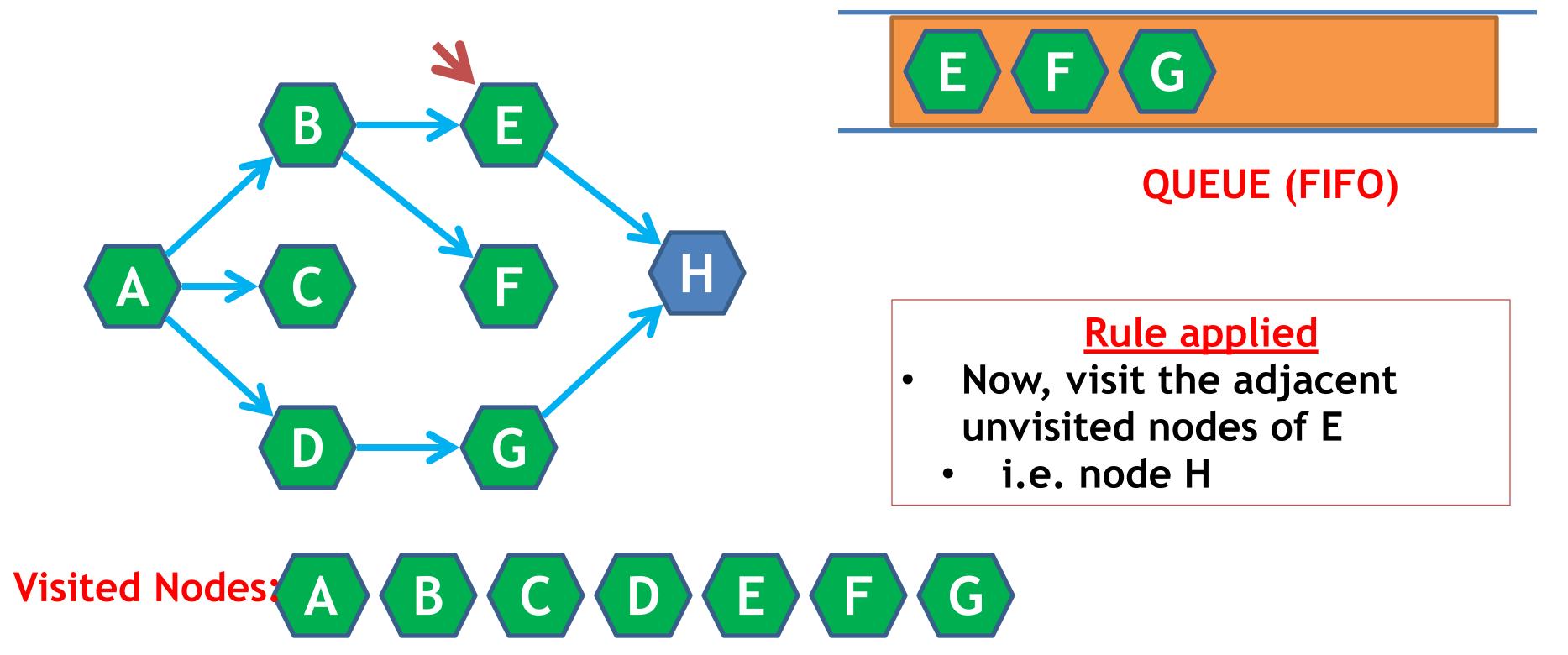
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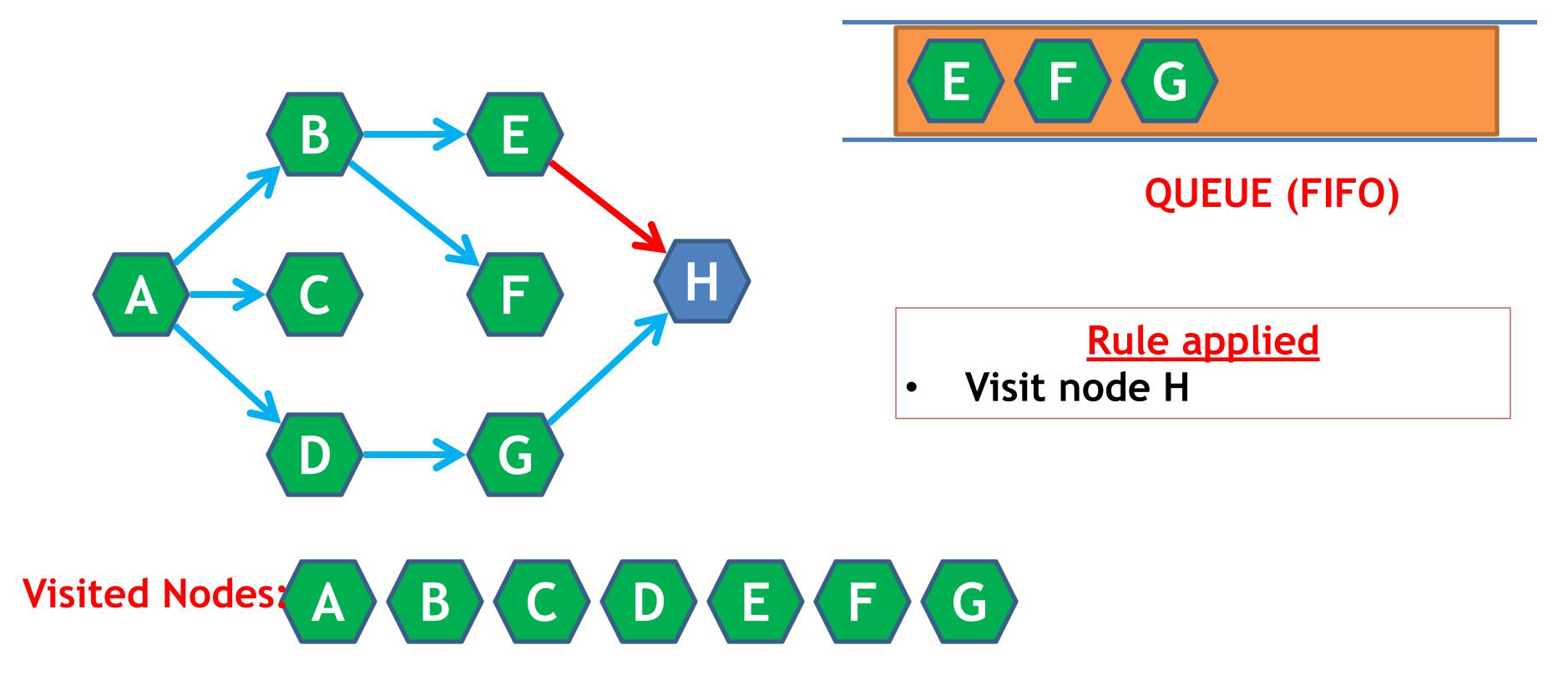
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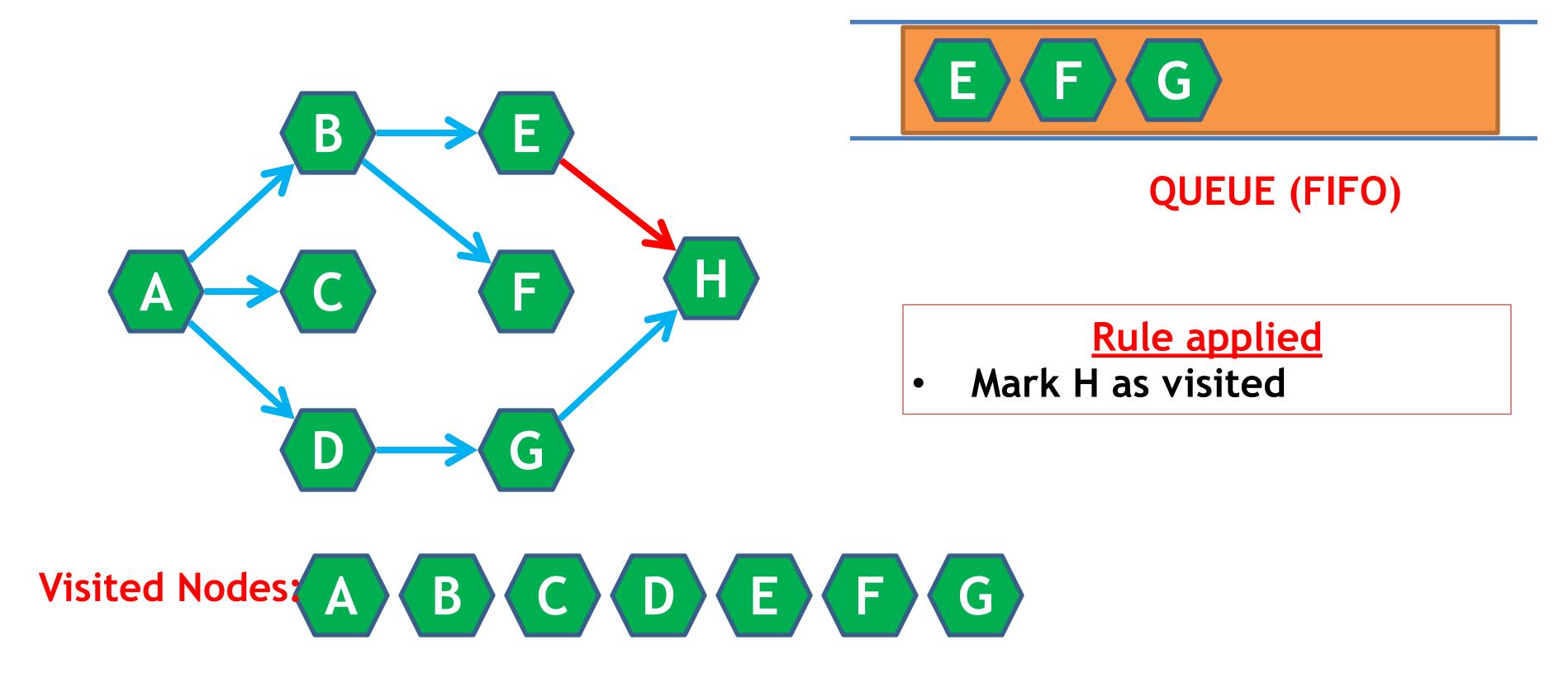
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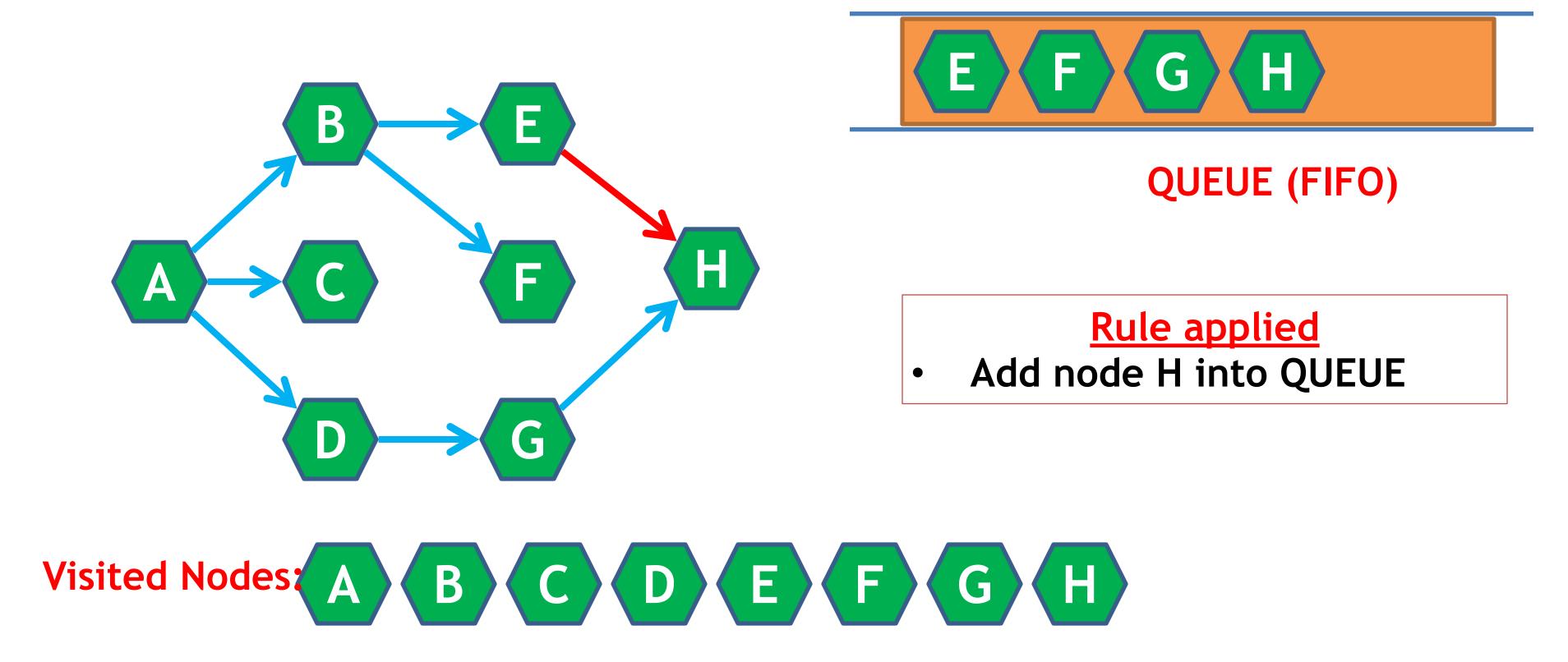
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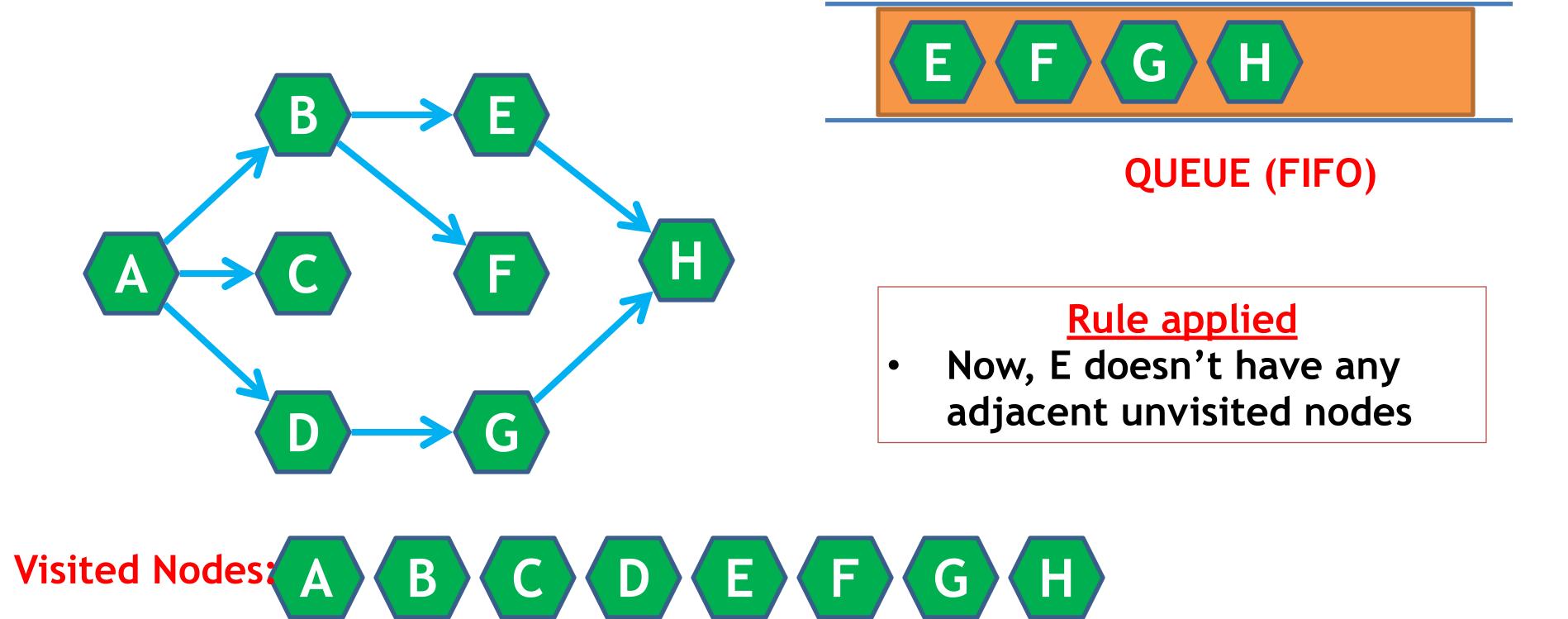
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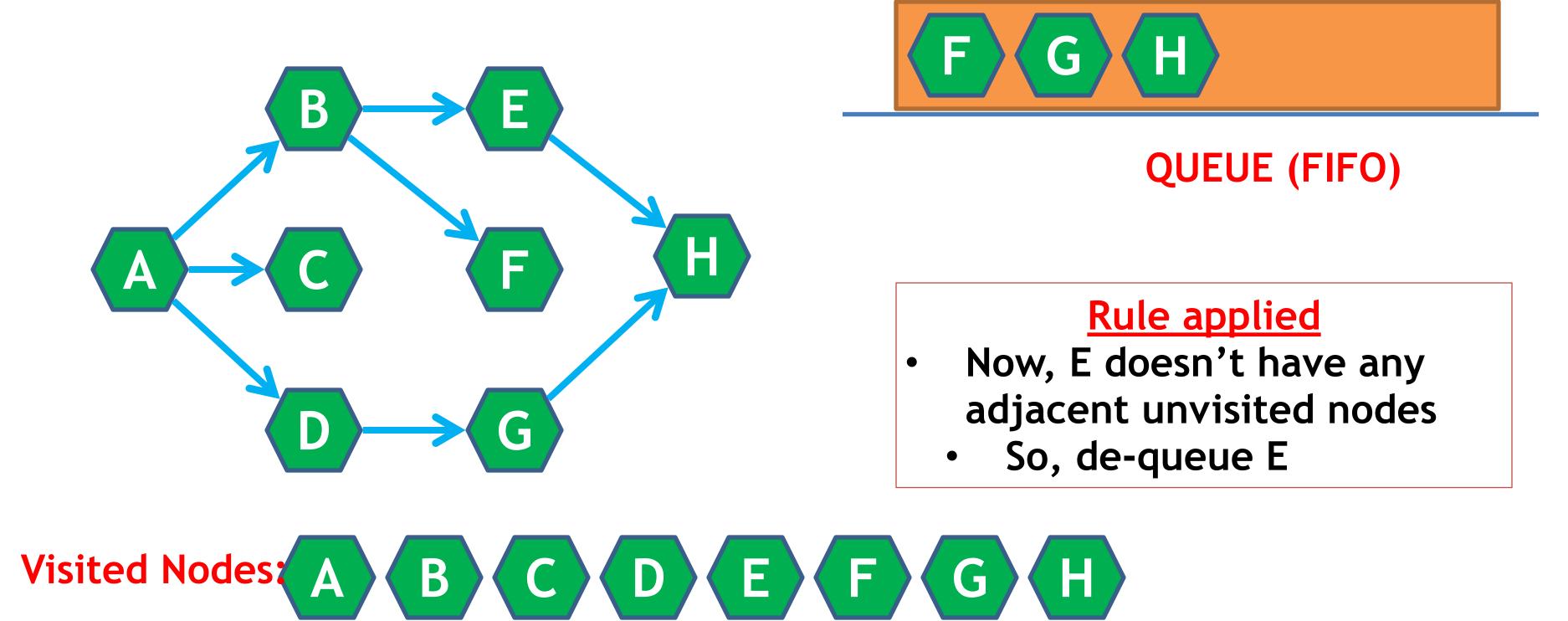
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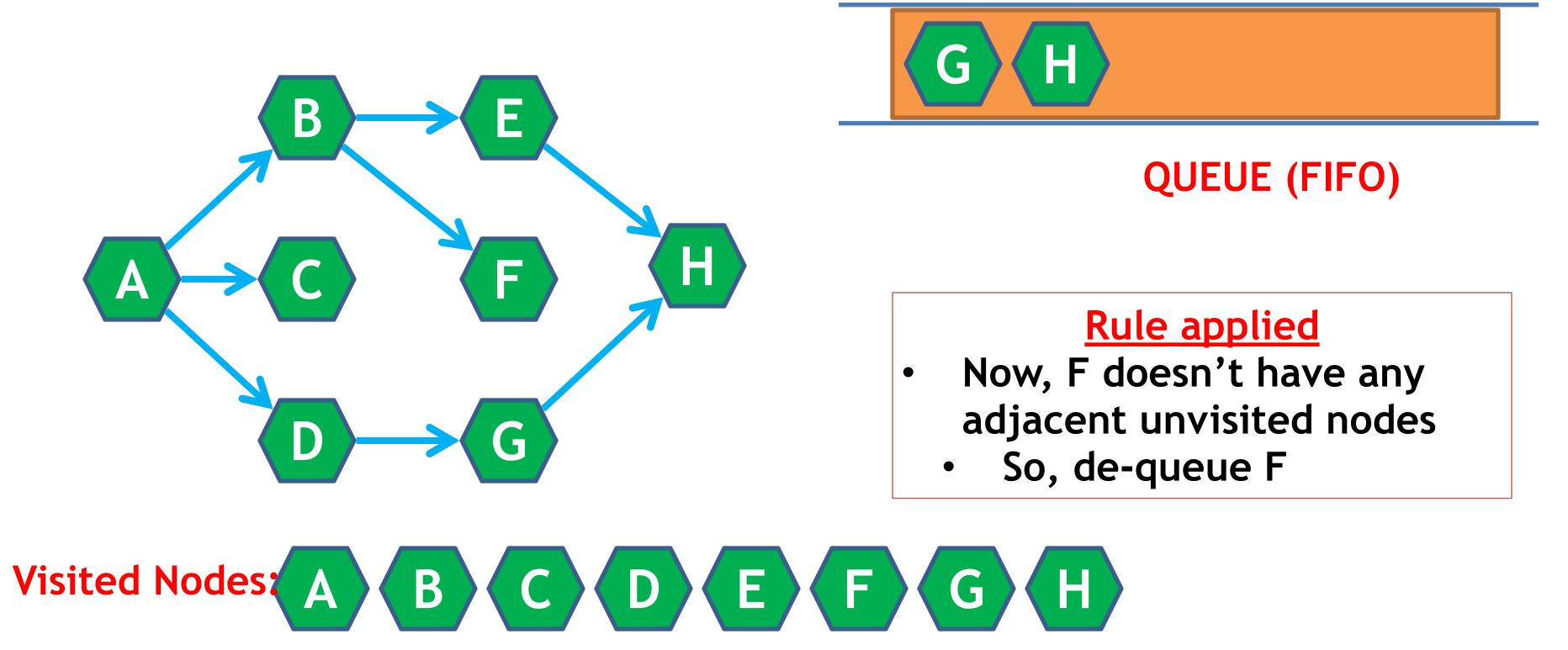
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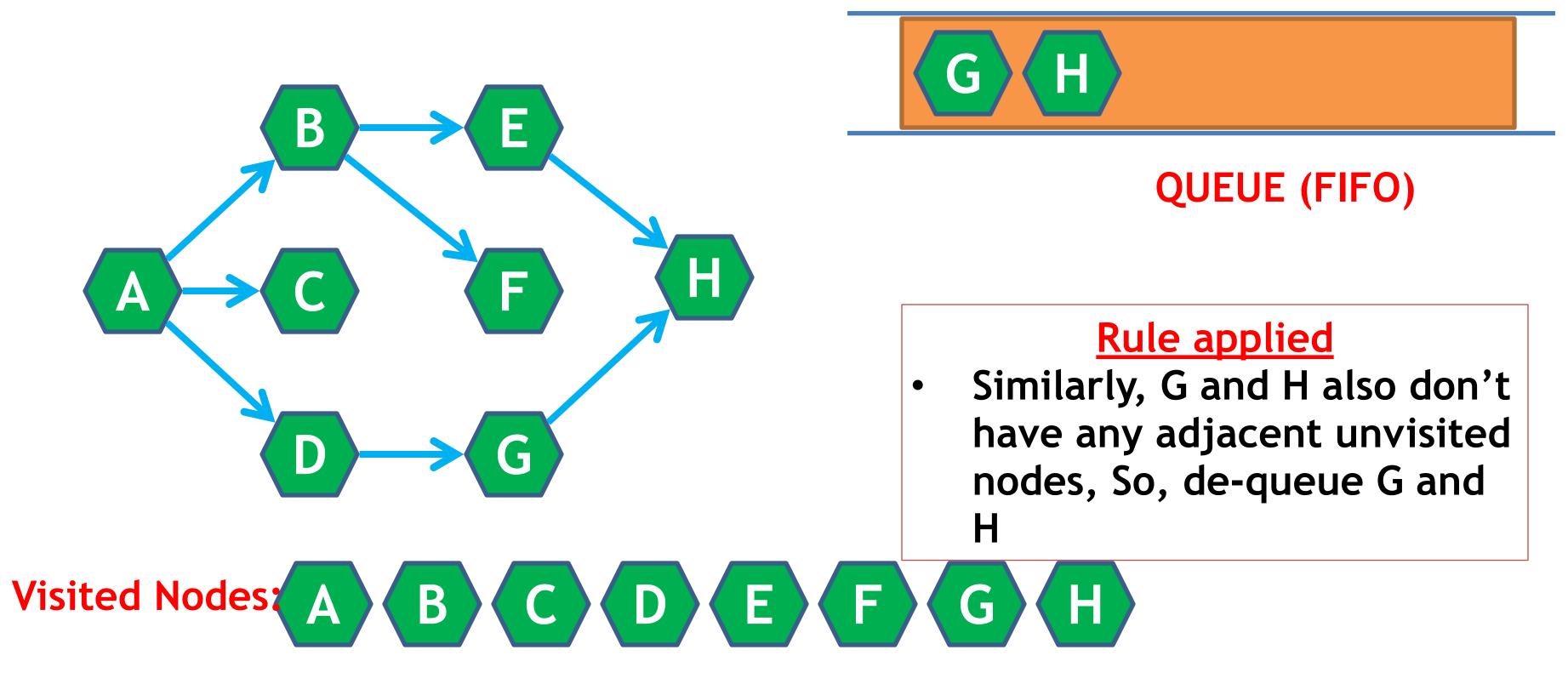
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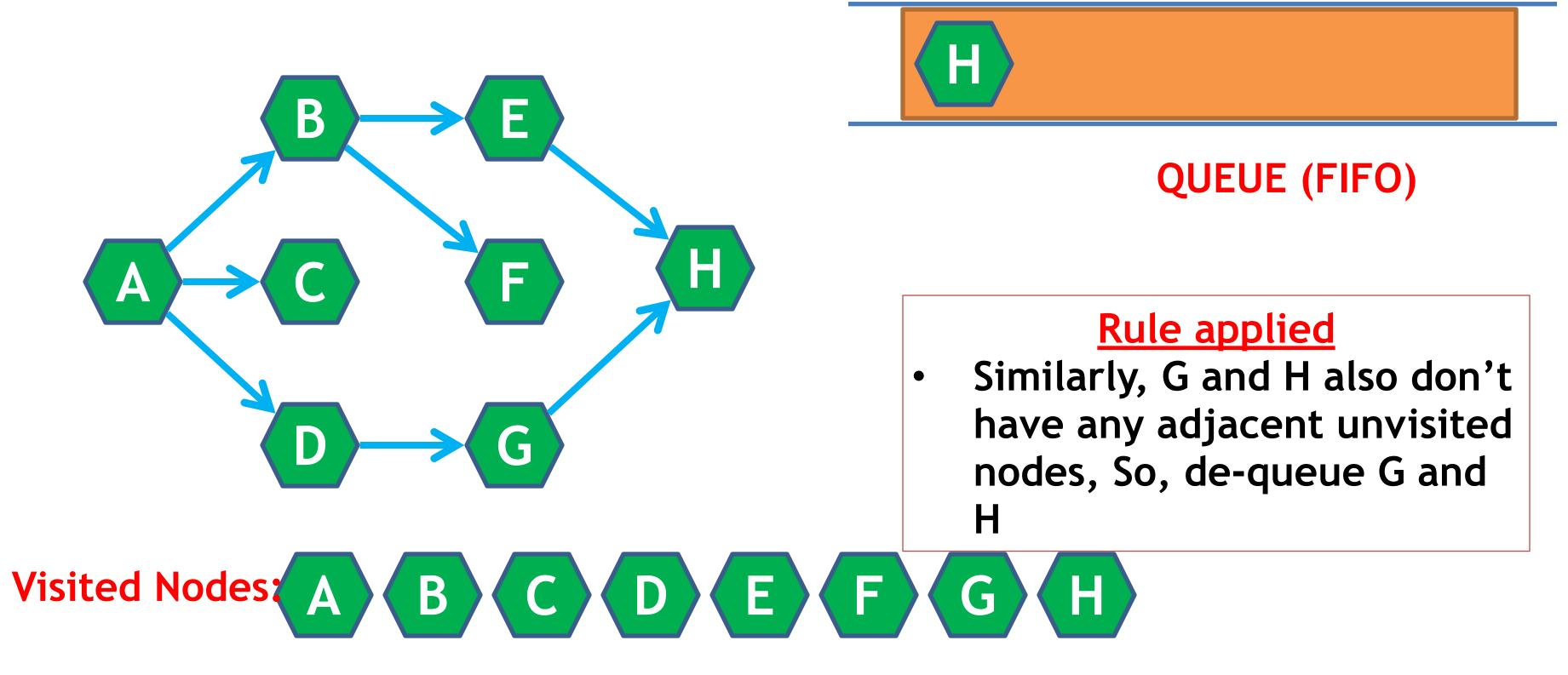
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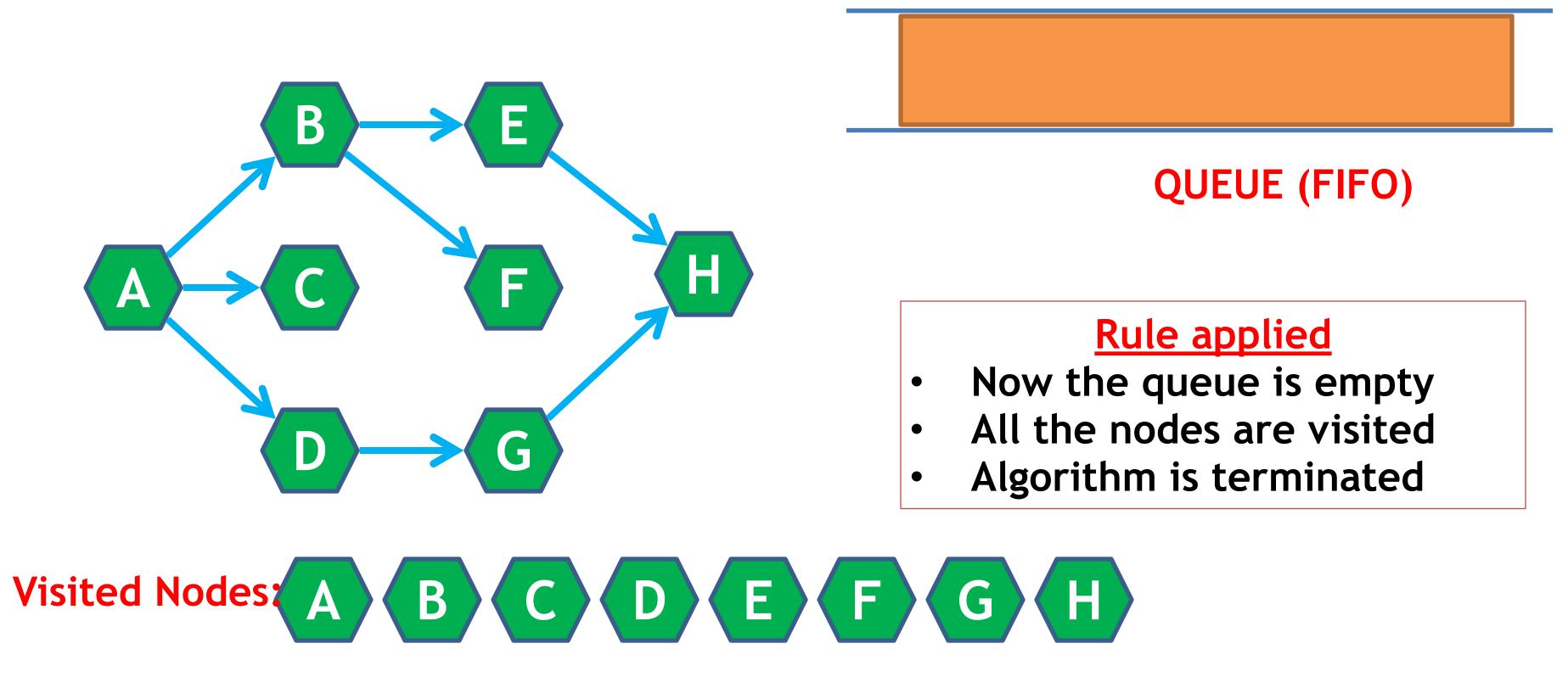
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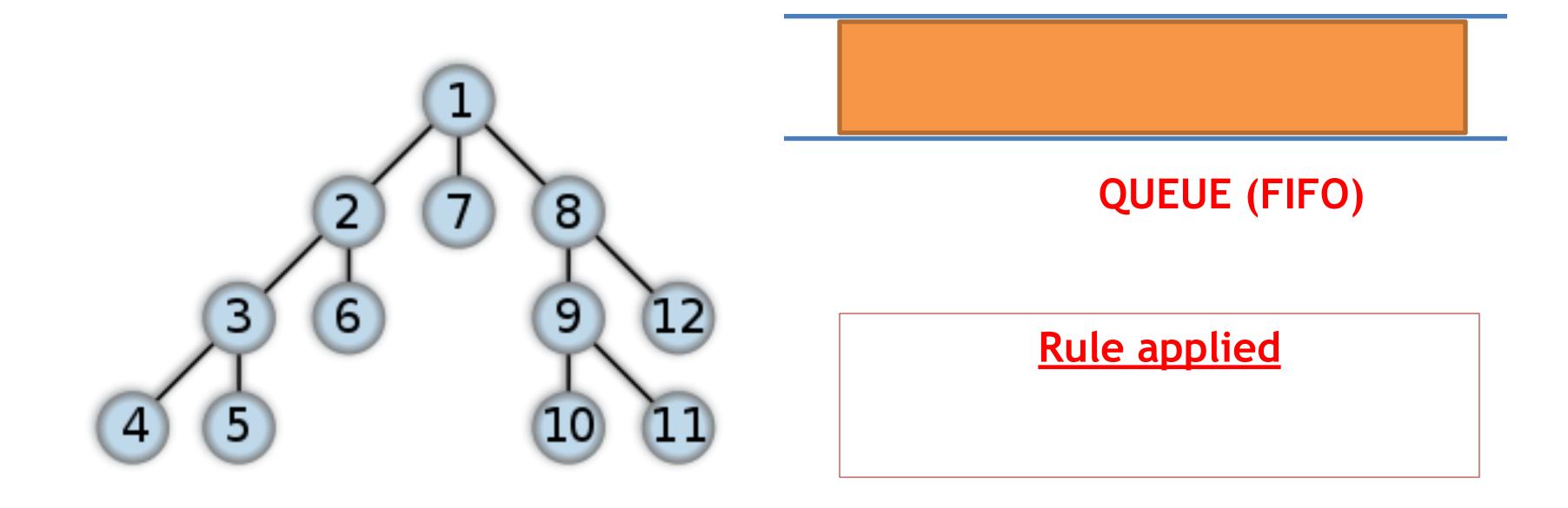
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- 1. Visit all the adjacent unvisited nodes. Mark it as VISITED. Insert it in a queue.
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1. Practice: Perform BFS on the given tree with all detail steps



Visited Nodes:

Properties of Breadth First Search

- It is complete:
 - if b (max branching factor) is finite
 - if there is a solution, BFS will find it.
- Time
 - $-1+b+b^2+...+b^d+b(b^d-1)=O(b^{d+1})$
 - exponential in d
- Space
 - $O(b^{d+1})$
 - Keeps every node in memory
- Optimal
 - Yes (if cost is 1 per step); not optimal in general

Lessons from Breadth First Search

- The memory requirements are bigger problems for breadth-first search than its execution time
- Exponential-complexity search problems cannot be solved by uninformed methods for any but the smallest instances

Depth	Nodes	Time	Memory
2	110	.11 milliseconds	107 kilobytes
4	11,110	11 milliseconds	10.6 megabytes
6	10^{6}	1.1 seconds	1 gigabyte
8	10^{8}	2 minutes	103 gigabytes
10	10^{10}	3 hours	10 terabytes
12	10^{12}	13 days	1 petabyte
14	10^{14}	3.5 years	99 petabytes
16	10^{16}	350 years	10 exabytes

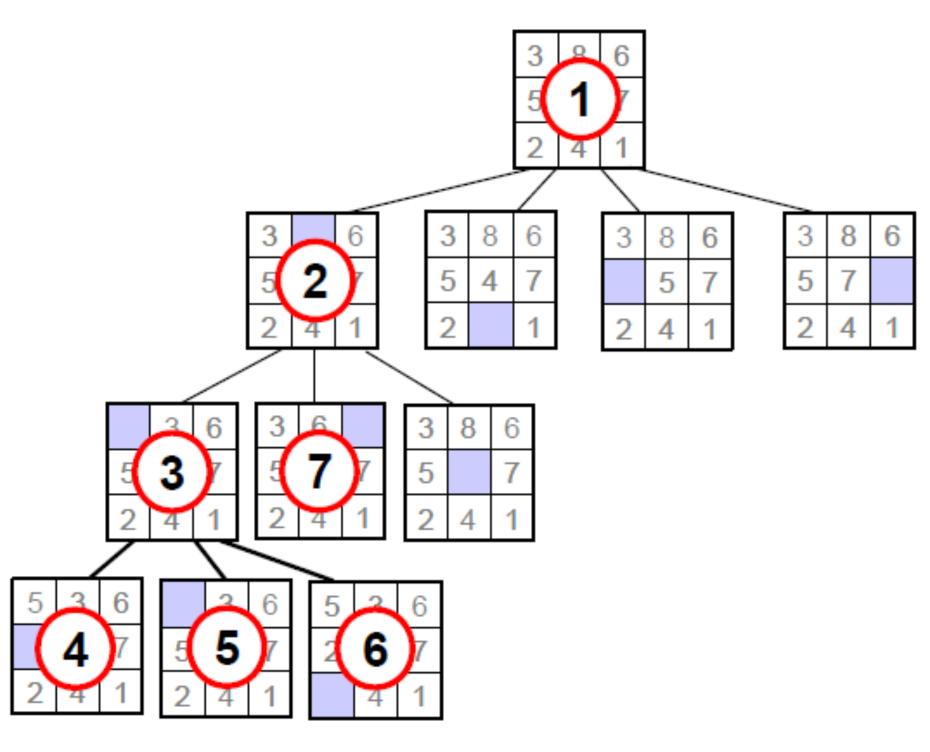
Time and memory requirements for breadth-first search. The numbers shown assume branching factor b = 10; 1 million nodes/second; 1000 bytes/node.

An exponential complexity O(bd) is scary

- Expand the <u>deepest</u> unexpanded node
- Implementation- Using stack

Unexplored successors are placed on a stack until fully

explored



Algorithm:

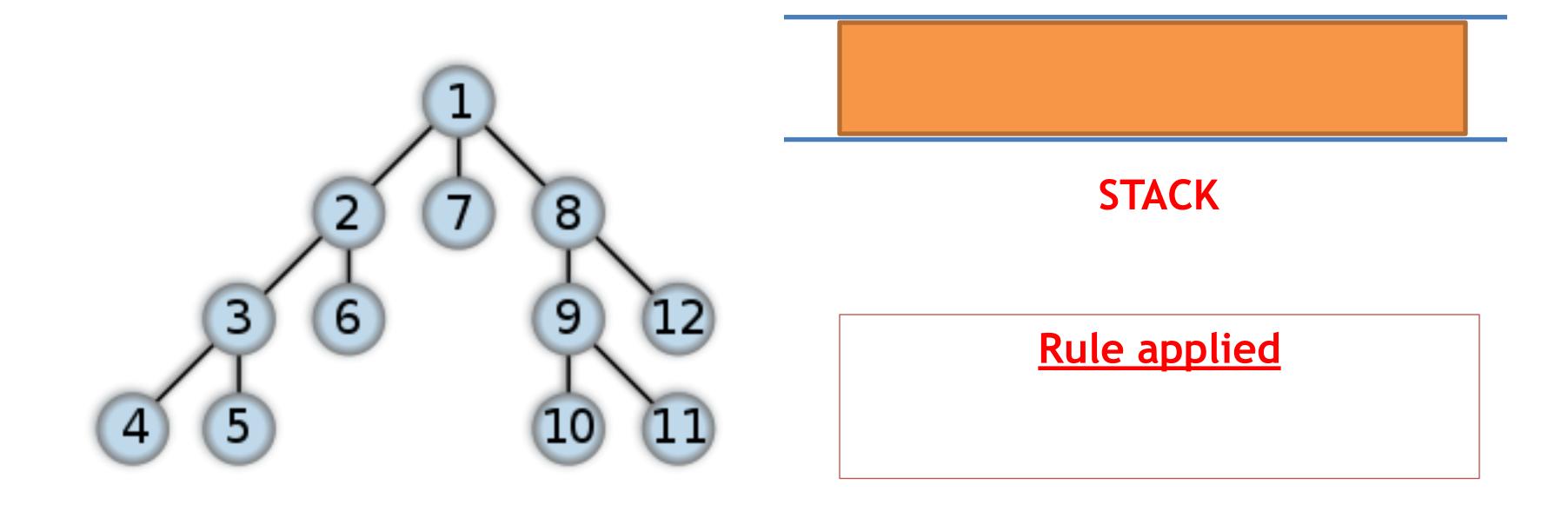
- 1. Visit the adjacent unvisited nodes. Mark it as visited. Push into stack.
- 2. If no adjacent node is found, pop up a node from the stack.
- 3. Repeat steps 1 and 2 until the stack is empty.

Link: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=oL5J5il9pFg&t=528s

Depth-First Search

- **Depth-first search** (**DFS**) is an algorithm for traversing or searching a finite graph data structures.
- Search starts from the root(choose any random vertex) and explores as far as possible along each branch before backtracking.
- DFS uses a stack to remember to get the next vertex to start a search, when a dead end occurs in any iteration.

1. Practice: Perform DFS on the given tree with all detail steps



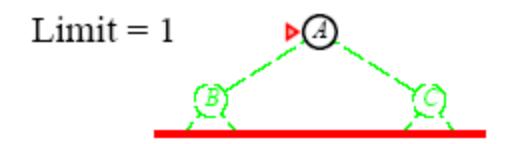
Visited Nodes:

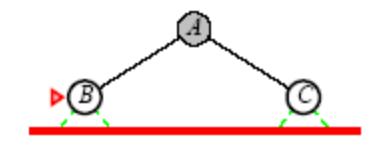
- Complete
 - No: fails in infinite-depth spaces, spaces with loops
 - Modify to avoid repeated spaces along path
 - Yes: in finite spaces
- Time
 - $O(b^m)$
 - Not great if m is much larger than d
 - But if the solutions are dense, this may be faster than breadth-first search
- Space
 - O(bm)...linear space
- Optimal
 - No

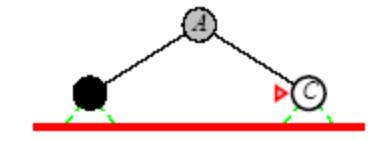
- Iterative deepening search
 - Uses depth-first search
 - Finds the best depth limit by
 - Gradually increases the depth limit; 0, 1, 2, ... until a goal is found
 - It provides breadth-first search property



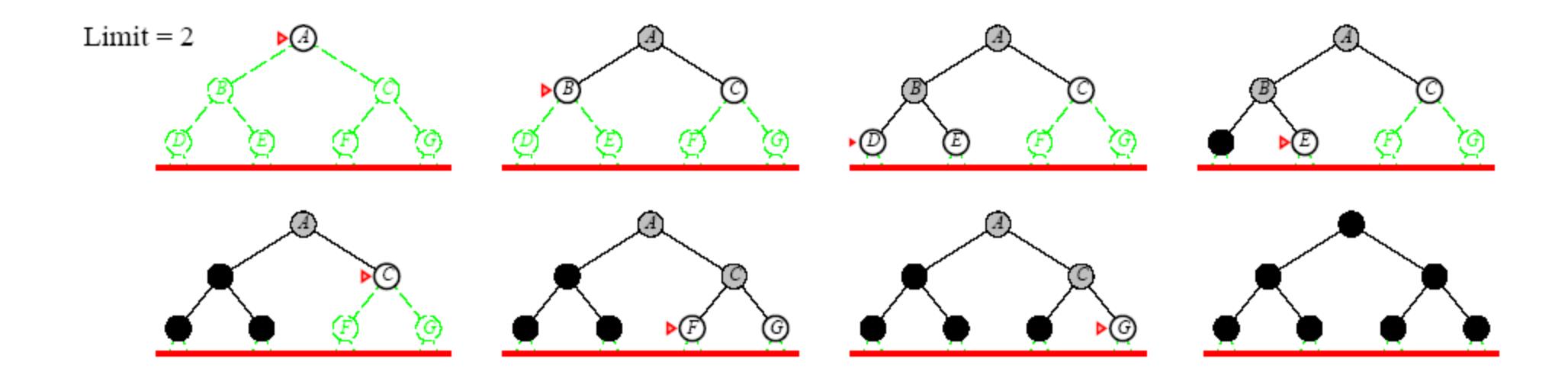


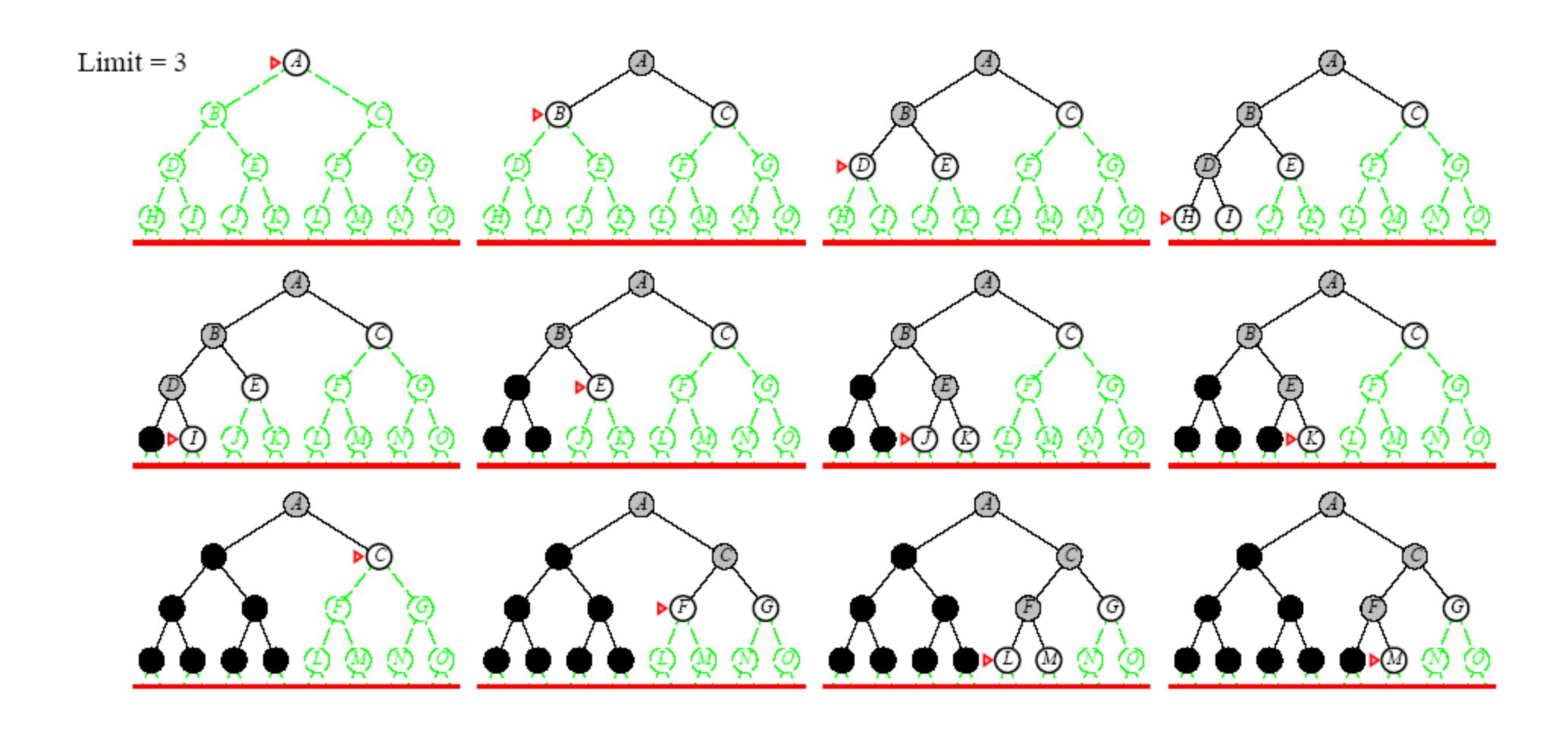




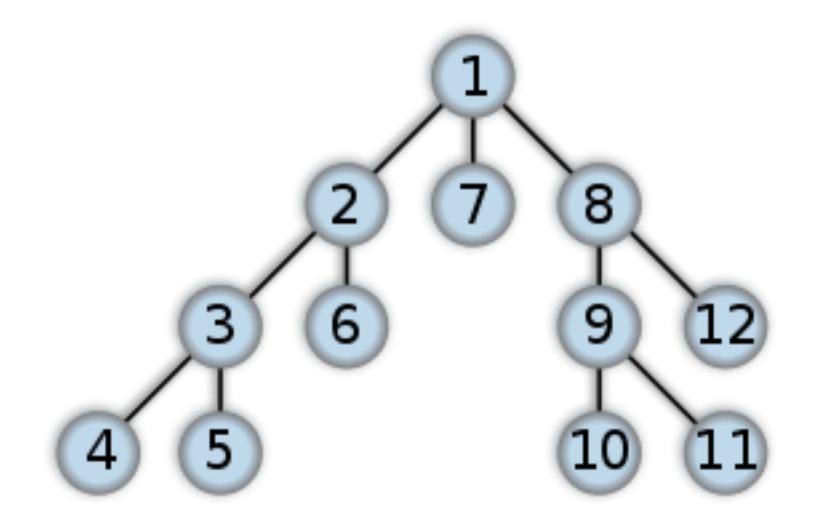








1. Practice: Perform Iterative Deepening Search on the given tree with all possible depth limit.



Visited Nodes:

- Combines the benefits of depth-first and breadth-first search
 - Like depth-first search, its memory requirements are modest: O(bd)
 - Like breadth-first search, it is
 - complete when the branching factor is finite and
 - optimal when the path cost is a non-decreasing function of the depth of the node.
 - time complexity: O(b^d)

- In general, iterative deepening is preferred
 - When the search space is large and
 - When the depth of the solution is not known.

Comparing Uninformed Search Strategies

Criterion	Breadth-	Depth-	Iterative
	First	First	Deepening
Complete? Time Space Optimal?	Yes $O(b^d)$ $O(b^d)$ Yes	No $O(b^m)$ $O(bm)$ No	Yes $O(b^d)$ $O(bd)$ Yes

Where,

- b: maximum branching factor (average number of child nodes for a given node)
- d: depth of the least-cost solution
- m: maximum depth of the state space (tree) (may be ∞)

Can we do better?

- Yes!
- BFS, DFS, and IDS are all examples of uninformed search algorithms -
 - they always consider the states in a certain order, without regard to how close a given state is to the goal.
- There exist other informed search algorithms that
 - consider (estimates of) how close a state is from the goal when deciding which state to consider next.

Informed Search Strategies

- uses problem-specific knowledge
 - beyond the definition of the problem itself
- can find solutions
 - more efficiently than uninformed strategy
- Some informed search strategies
 - Greedy Best first search
 - A* search

Informed Search Strategies

- a node is selected for expansion based on an evaluation function, f(n)
- The evaluation function is construed as a cost estimate
 - A node with the lowest evaluation is expanded first.

Informed Search Strategies

- The choice of evaluation function f(n) determines the search strategy.
 - Each f(n) has a heuristic function h(n)
 - The heuristic function is a way to inform the search about the direction to a goal.
 It provides an informed way to guess which neighbor of a node will lead to a goal with a lowest cost.
 - h(n) = estimated cost of the cheapest path from the state at node n to a goal state
 - if n is a goal node, then h(n)=0.

Informed Search Strategies

Evaluation function:

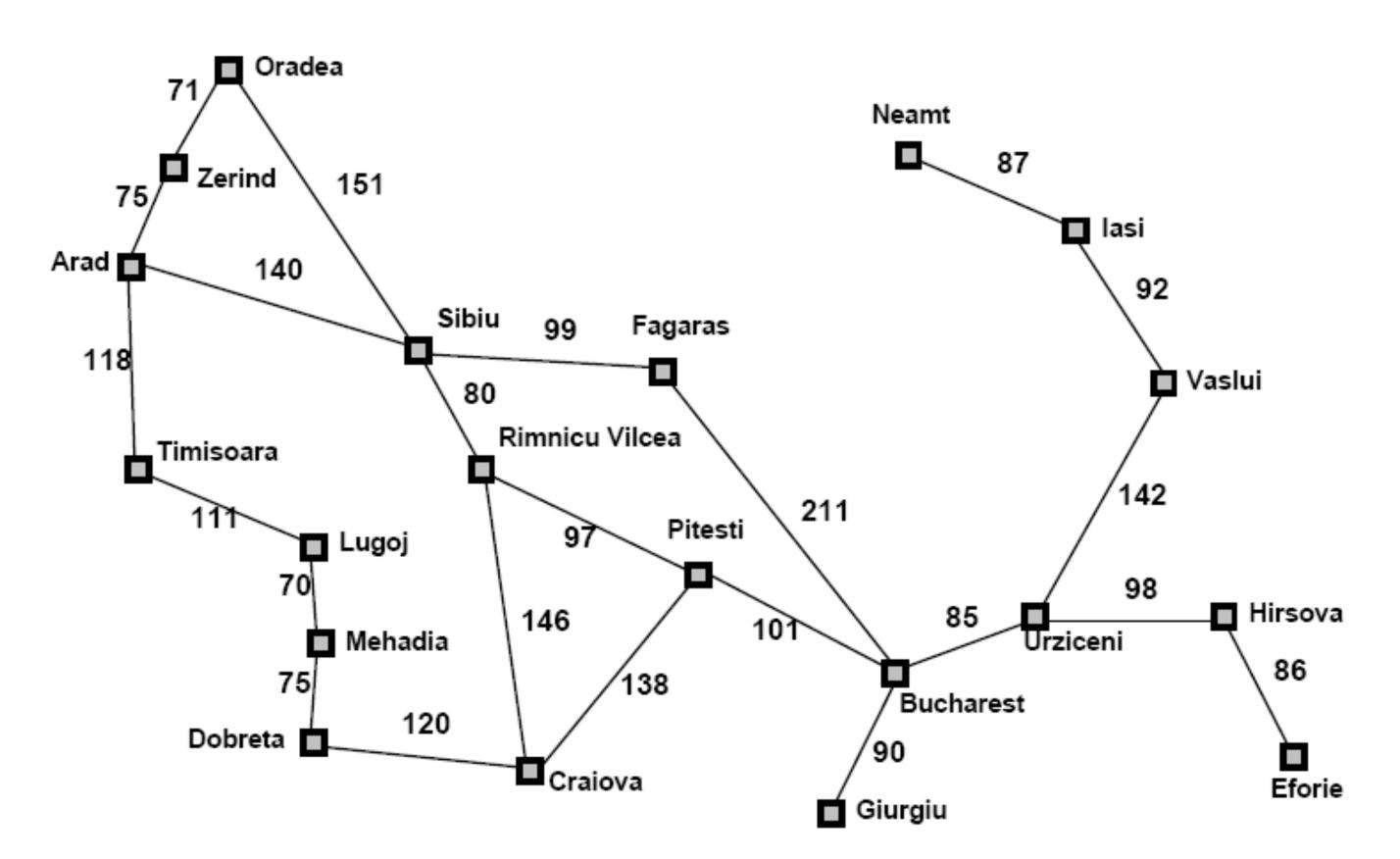
$$f(n) = g(n) + h(n)$$

- g(n) = cost from the initial state to the current state n
- h(n) = estimated cost of the cheapest path from node n to a goal node
 - If f(n) = g(n) + h(n). —> A* search
 - If f(n) = h(n) —> best first search

- tries to expand the node
 - that is closest to the goal
 - assuming it will lead to a solution quickly
- evaluates nodes by using just the heuristic function

$$f(n) = h(n)$$
 where, $h(n) = h_{SLD}$ = the straight-line distance heuristic

Suppose you are at Arad and you want to go to Bucharest.



Straight-line distance	
to Bucharest	

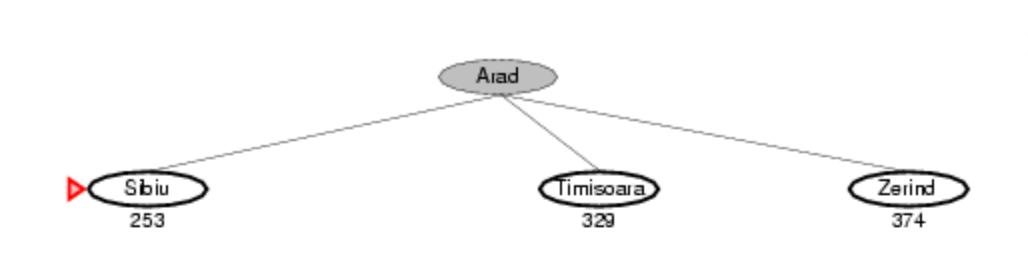
Arad	366
Bucharest	0
Craiova	160
Dobreta	242
Eforie	161
Fagaras	178
Giurgiu	77
Hirsova	151
Iasi	226
Lugoj	244
Mehadia	241
Neamt	234
Oradea	380
Pitesti	98
Rimnicu Vilcea	193
Sibiu	253
Timisoara	329
Urziceni	80
Vaslui	199
Zerind	374

Map of Romania



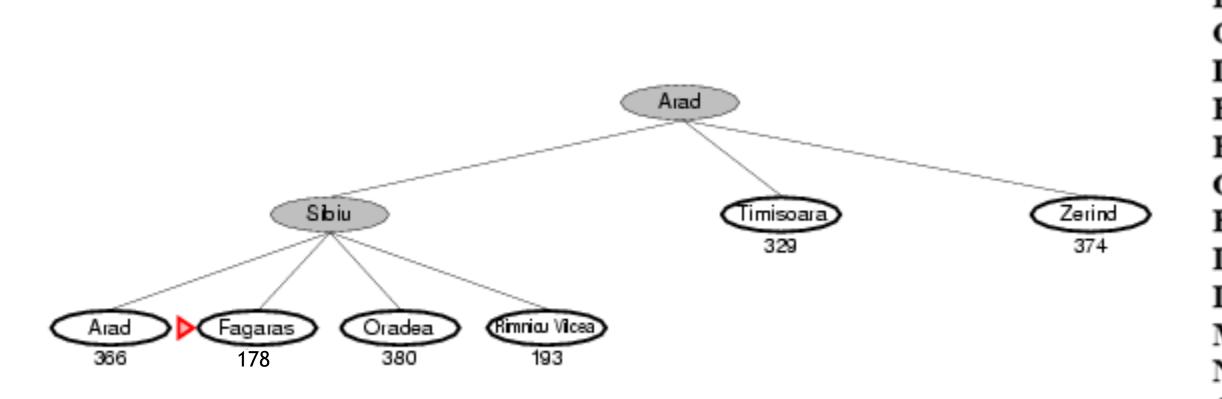
Heuristic, h(n)

Straight-line distance to Bucharest Arad 366 Bucharest 0 Craiova 160 Dobreta 242 Eforie 161 Fagaras 178 Giurgiu 77 Hirsova 151 Iasi 226 Lugoj 244 Mehadia 241 Neamt 234 Oradea 380 Pitesti 98 Rimnicu Vilcea 193 Sibiu 253 Timisoara 329 Urziceni 80 Vaslui 199 Zerind

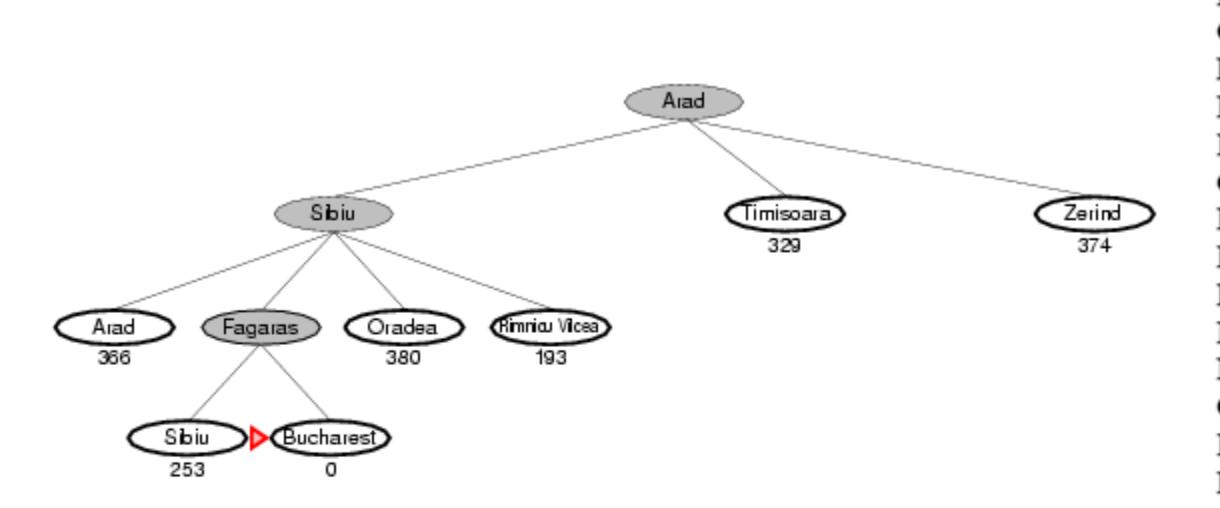


Heuristic, h(n)

Straight-line distance to Bucharest Arad 366 Bucharest Craiova 160 Dobreta 242 Eforie 161 Fagaras 178 Giurgiu 77 Hirsova 151 Iasi 226 Lugoj 244 Mehadia 241 Neamt 234 Oradea 380 Pitesti 98 Rimnicu Vilcea 193 Sibiu 253 Timisoara 329 Urziceni 80 Vaslui 199 Zerind



Straight-line distant	ce
to Bucharest	
Arad	366
Bucharest	0
Craiova	160
Dobreta	242
Eforie	161
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Straight-line distance to Bucharest	
Arad	366
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Zerind	374

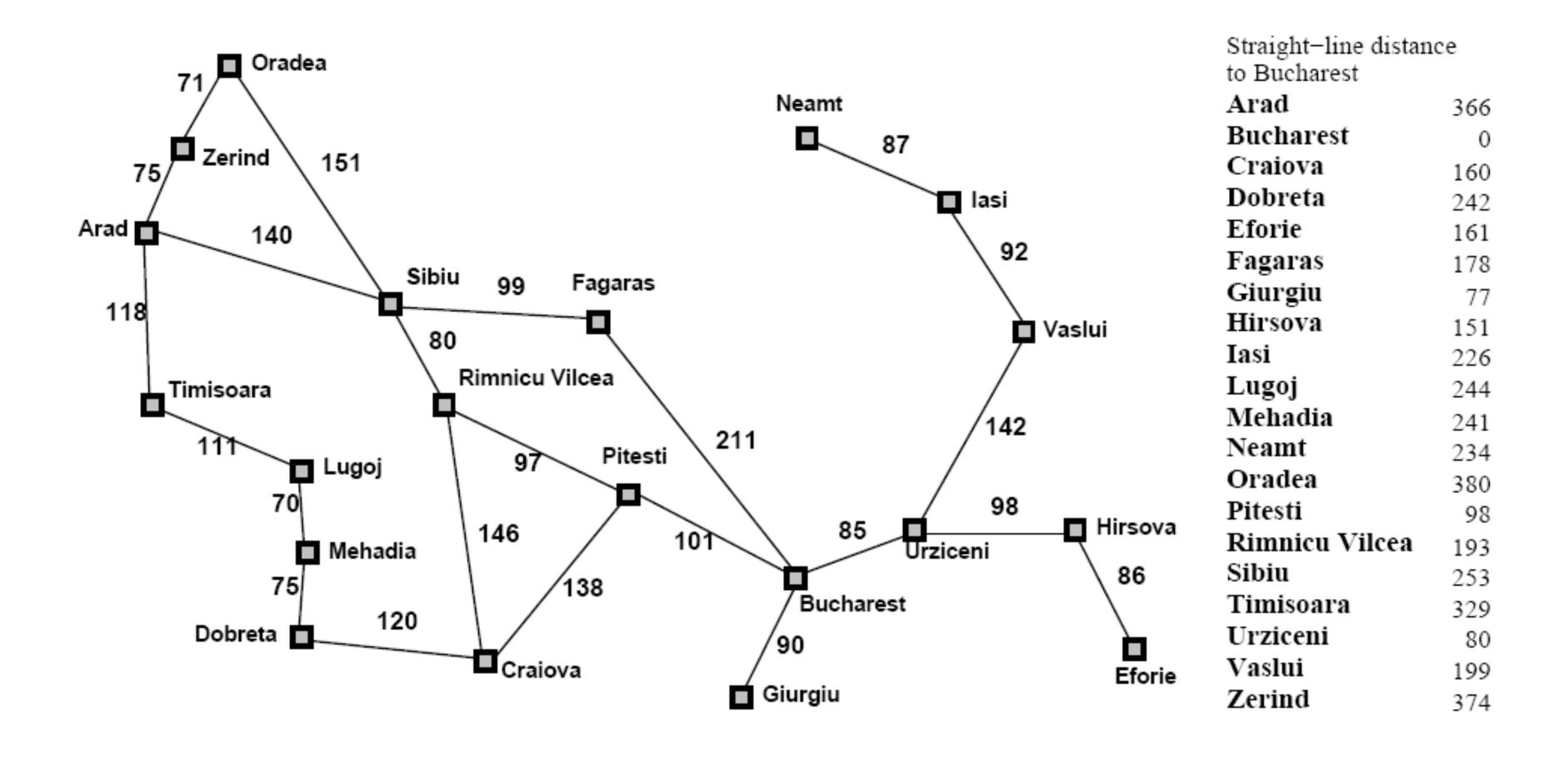
- Complete
 - No, GBFS can get stuck in loops (e.g. bouncing back and forth between cities)
 - e.g., lasi \rightarrow Neamt \rightarrow lasi \rightarrow Neamt \rightarrow
- Time
 - O(b^m) but a good heuristic can have dramatic improvement
- Space
 - O(b^m) keeps all the nodes in memory
- Optimal
 - No!

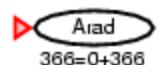
- Pronounced as "A-star search"
- Idea: avoid expanding paths that are already expensive
- Evaluation function:

$$f(n) = g(n) + h(n)$$

Where,

- g(n) = cost so far to reach n (from start node)
- h(n) = estimated cost from n to goal
- f(n) = estimated total cost of path through n to goal



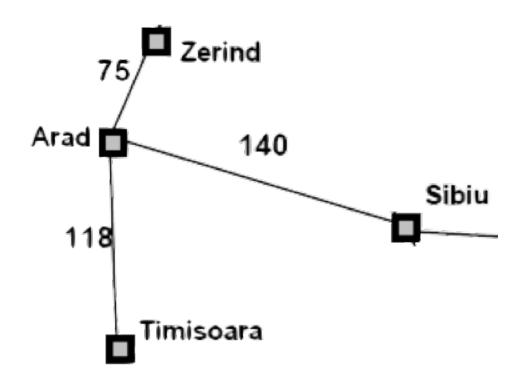


Heuristic, h(n)

Straight-line distance to Bucharest **Arad** 30

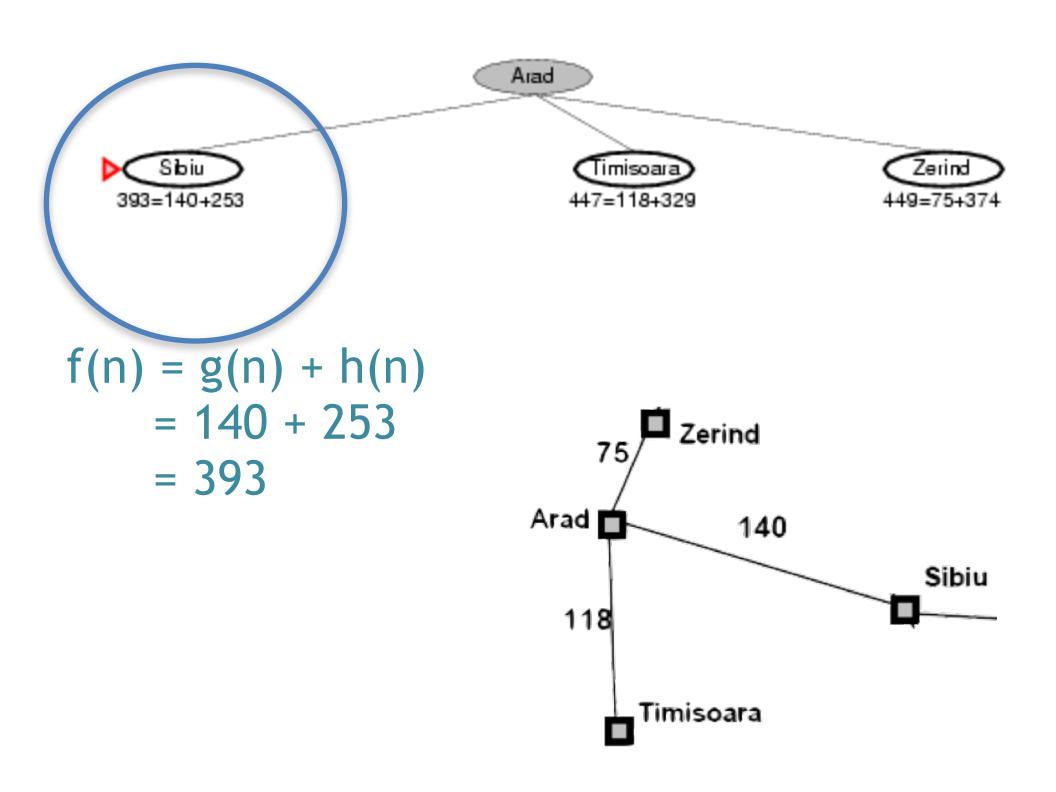
Arad	366
Bucharest	(
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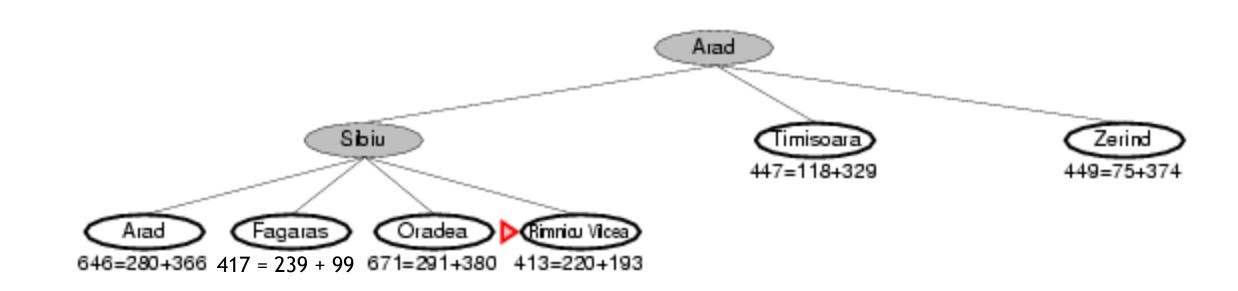


Heuristic, h(n)

Straight-line distance to Bucharest Arad 366 Bucharest 0 Craiova 160 Dobreta 242 Eforie 161 Fagaras 178 Giurgiu 77 Hirsova 151 Iasi 226 Lugoj 244 Mehadia 241 Neamt 234 Oradea 380 Pitesti 98 Rimnicu Vilcea 193 Sibiu 253 Timisoara 329 Urziceni 80 Vaslui 199 Zerind



Straight-line distan	ce
to Bucharest	
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Bucharest	0
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Rimnicu Vilcea	193
Sibiu	253
Timisoara	329
Urziceni	80
Vaslui	199
Zerind	374
	277



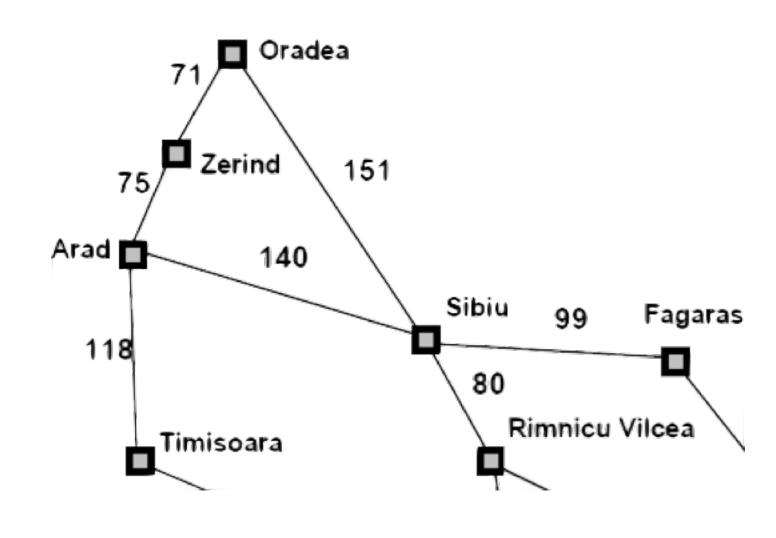
For Arad:

$$f(n) = g(n) + h(n)$$

= (140 +140) + 366
= 646

For Fagaras:

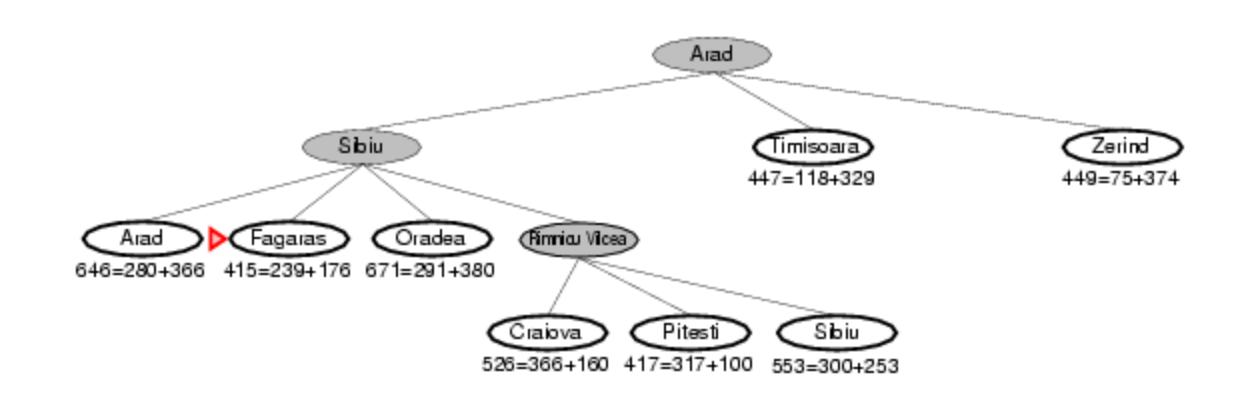
For Rimnicu Vilcea:



Heuristic, h(n)

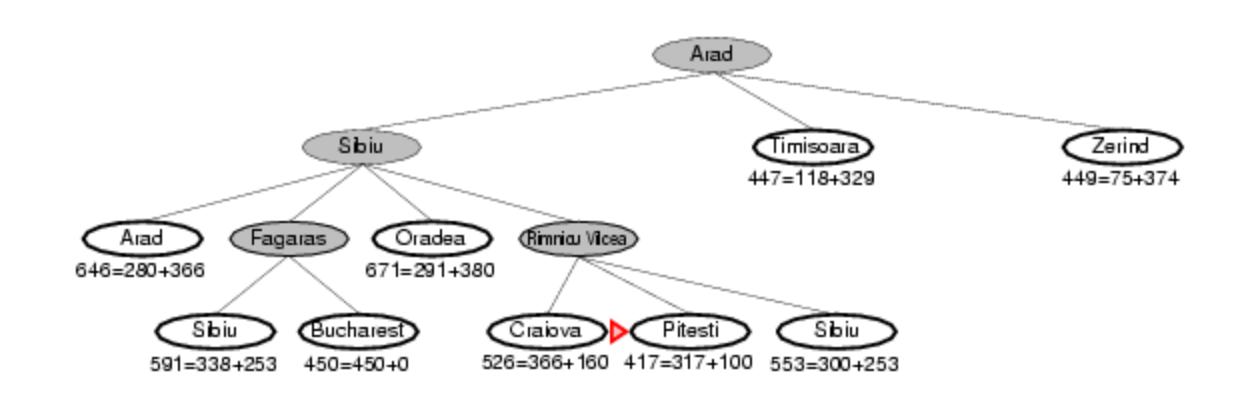
Straight-line distance to Bucharest

to Bucharest	
Arad	366
Bucharest	(
Craiova	160
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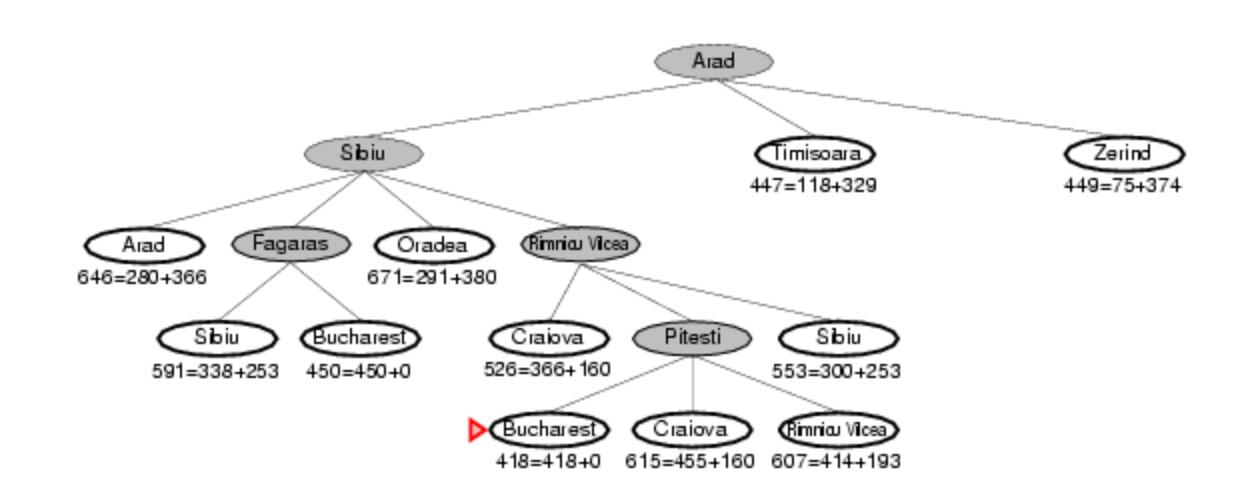
Heuristic, h(n)

Straight-line distance to Bucharest Arad 366 Bucharest 0 Craiova 160 Dobreta 242 Eforie 161 Fagaras 178 Giurgiu 77 Hirsova 151 Iasi 226 Lugoj 244 Mehadia 241 Neamt 234 Oradea 380 Pitesti 98 Rimnicu Vilcea 193 Sibiu 253 Timisoara 329 Urziceni 80 Vaslui 199 Zerind

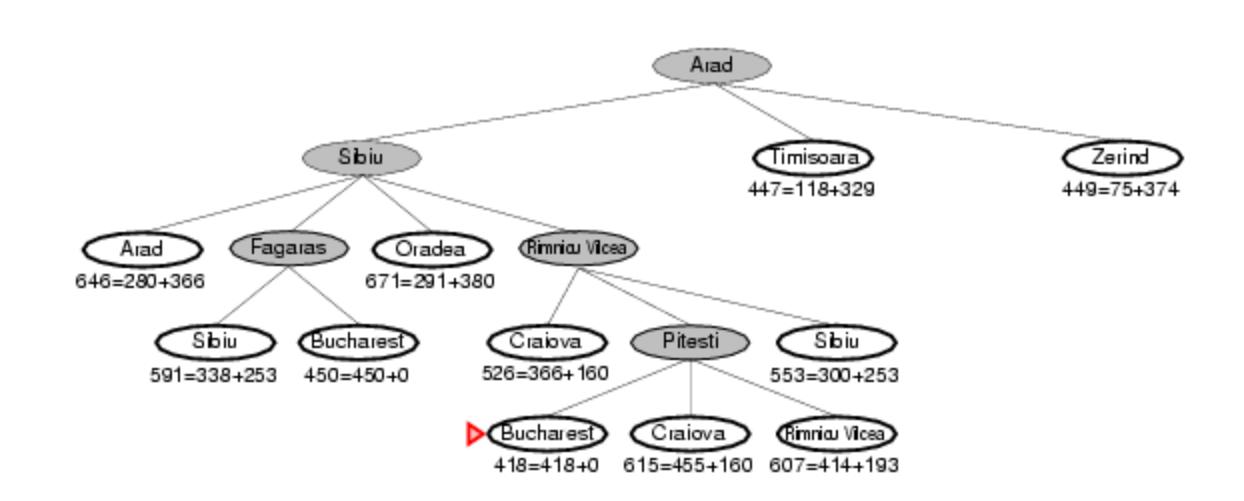


Heuristic, h(n)

Straight-line distance to Bucharest Arad 366 Bucharest 0 Craiova 160 Dobreta 242 Eforie 161 Fagaras 178 Giurgiu 77 Hirsova 151 Iasi 226 Lugoj 244 Mehadia 241 Neamt 234 Oradea 380 Pitesti 98 Rimnicu Vilcea 193 Sibiu 253 Timisoara 329 Urziceni 80 Vaslui 199 Zerind



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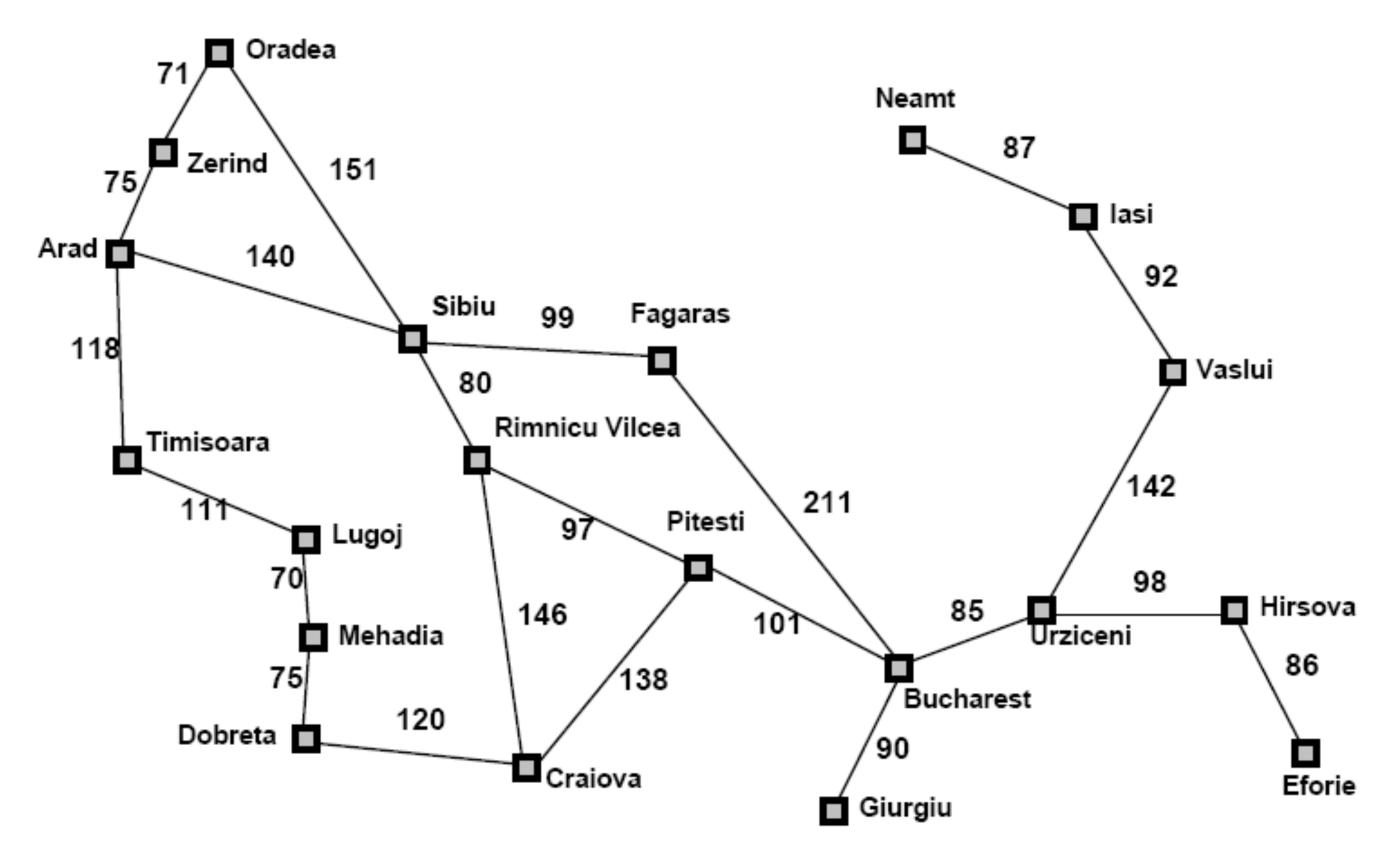


Arad -> sibiu -> Rimicu Vilcea -> Pitesti -> Bucharest

Heuristic, h(n)

Straight-line distance to Bucharest Arad 366 **Bucharest** Craiova 160 Dobreta 242 Eforie 161 Fagaras 178 Giurgiu 77 Hirsova 151 Iasi 226 Lugoj 244 Mehadia 241 Neamt 234 Oradea 380 Pitesti 98 Rimnicu Vilcea 193 Sibiu 253 Timisoara 329 Urziceni 80 Vaslui 199 Zerind

Perform A* Search to reach to Bucharest from (a) Oradea and (b) Timisoara.



•	•
Straight-line distant to Bucharest	ce
Arad	366
Bucharest	0
Craiova	160
Dobreta	242
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Fagaras	178
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Oradea	380
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Zerind	374

- Complete
 - Yes
- Time
 - The better the heuristic, the better the time
 - Best case h is perfect, O(d)
 - Worst case h = 0, O(bd) same as BFS
- Space
 - Keeps all nodes in memory and save in case of repetition
 - This is O(b^d) or worse
 - A* usually runs out of space before it runs out of time
- Optimal
 - Yes

Local Search Algorithms

- The search algorithms that we have seen so far
 - are designed to explore search spaces systematically.
 - When a goal is found, the path to that goal also constitutes a solution to the problem
- In many optimization problems, the path to the goal is irrelevant;
 - For example, in the 8-queens problem
 - what matters is the final configuration of queens, not the order in which they are added.
 - In such cases, we can use local search algorithms

Local Search Algorithms

 operate using a single current node and Try to improve it

- generally move only to neighbors of that node
- key advantages:
 - They use very little memory
 - they can often find reasonable solutions in large or infinite (continuous) state spaces

Local Search Algorithms

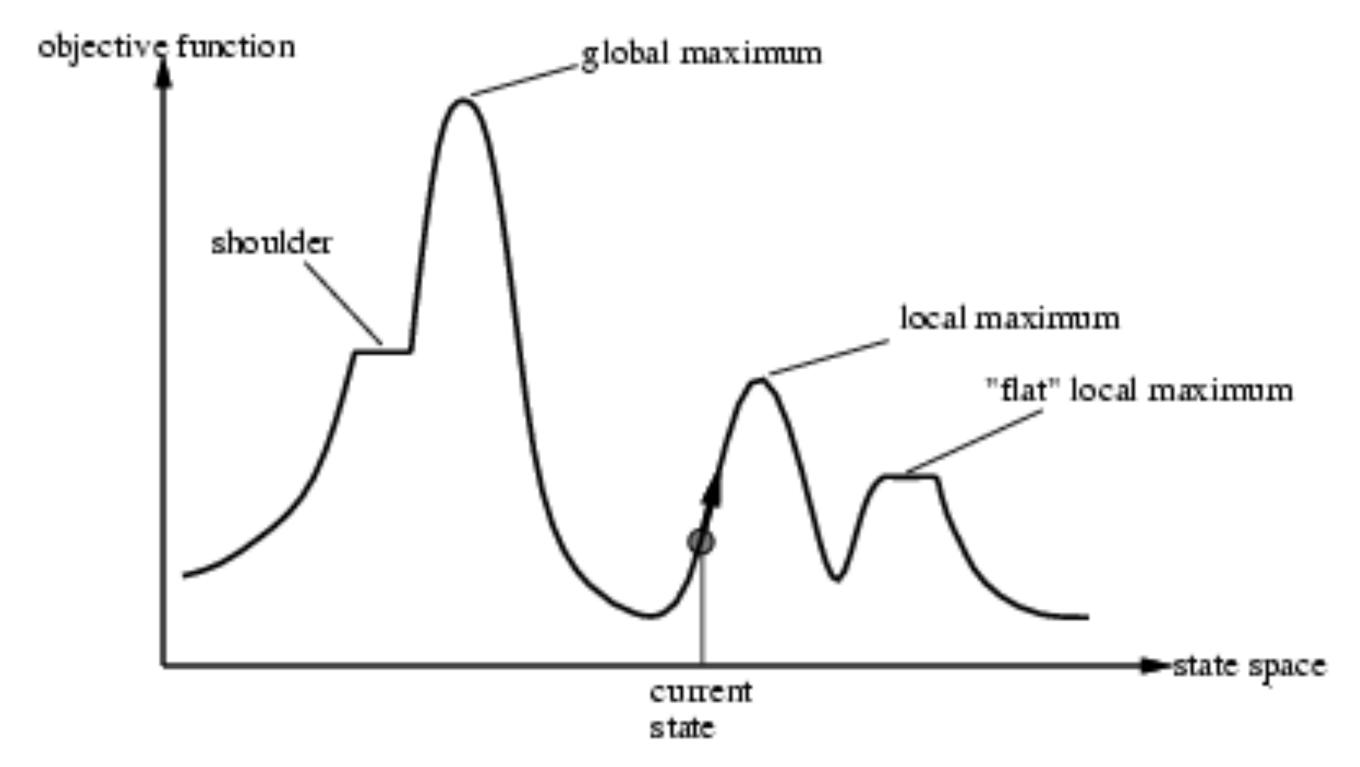
- are useful for solving pure optimization problems
 - in which the aim is to find the best state according to an objective function

Hill-climbing search

- It is simply a loop that
 - continually moves in the direction of increasing value that is, uphill
 - It terminates when it reaches a "peak" where no neighbor has a higher value
- Hill climbing
 - does not look ahead beyond the immediate neighbors of the current state (so called greedy local search)
 - Like trying to find the top of Mount Everest in a thick fog with amnesia

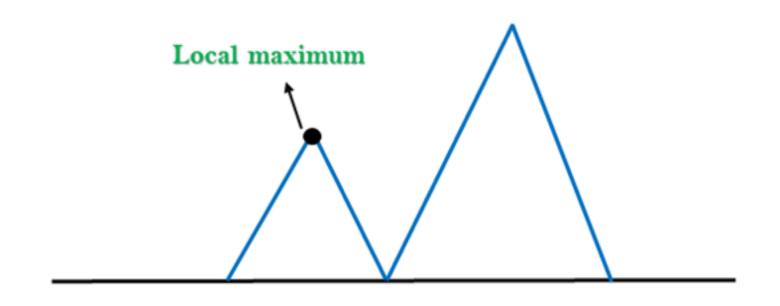
Hill-climbing search

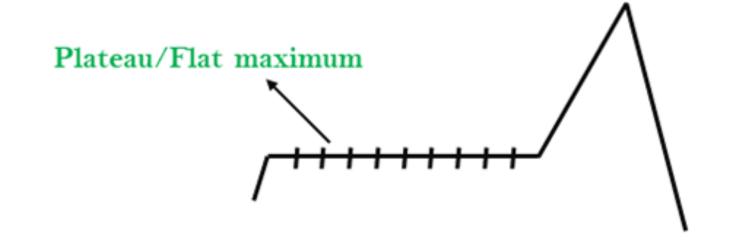
 Problem: depending on initial state, can get stuck in local maxima

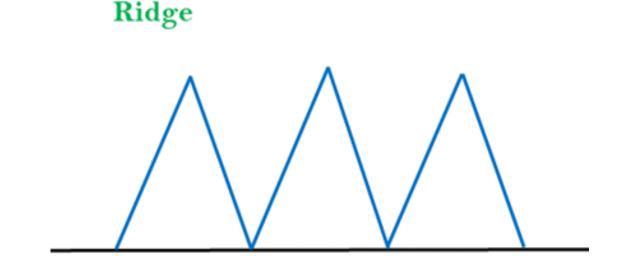


Hill-climbing search

- hill climbing often gets stuck for the following reasons:
 - Local maxima = no uphill step
 - a local maximum is a peak that is higher than each of its neighboring states but lower than the global maximum.
 - Plateau = all steps equal (flat or shoulder)
 - Must move to equal state to make progress, but no indication of the correct direction
 - Ridge
 - Ridges result in a sequence of local maxima
 - that is very difficult for greedy algorithms to navigate.







Questions

- What is the propose of searching in Al?
- What is state-space?
- What is problem solving agent?
- How do you formulate a problem?
- Formulate a water jug problem.
- Differentiate between informed and uninformed search?
- How does Breadth First Search work? Explain with an example.
- How does A* search work? Explain with example.





THANK YOU

End of Chapter