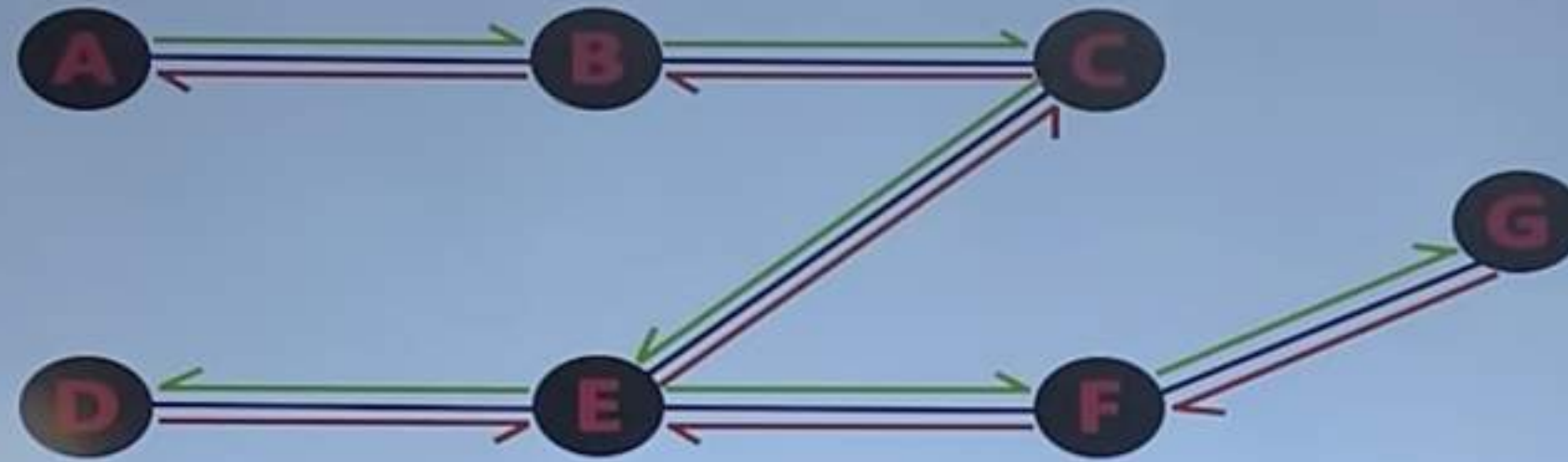


- Stack became Empty. So stop DFS Traversal.
- Final result of DFS traversal is following spanning tree.

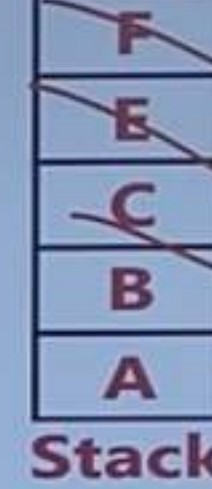
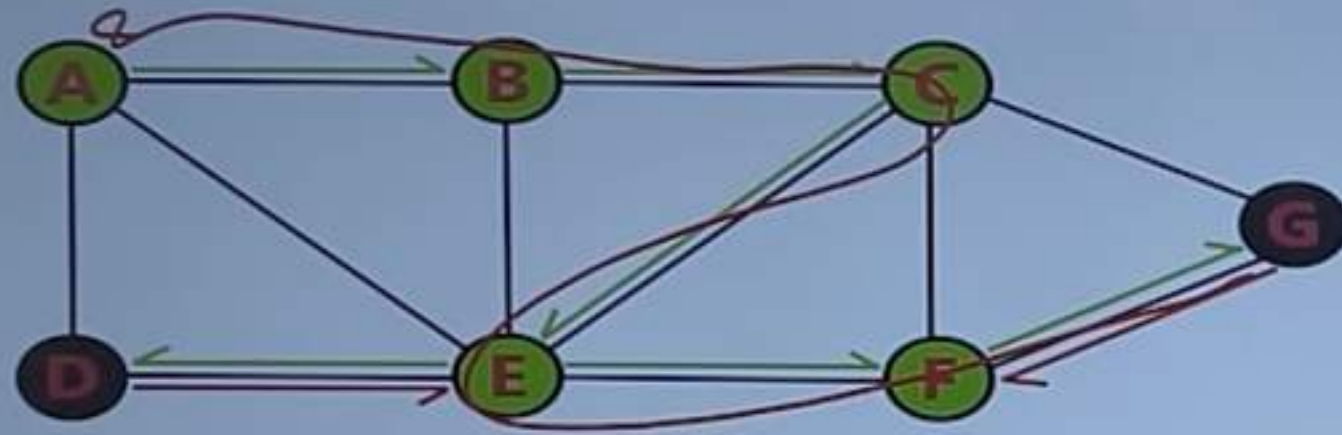


Algorithm:

1. Start with the initial state as the root node.
2. Explore a node and recursively explore its unvisited neighboring nodes.
3. Backtrack if all neighboring nodes have been visited or there are no unvisited nodes left.
4. Repeat steps 2 and 3 until a goal state is found or all nodes have been visited.

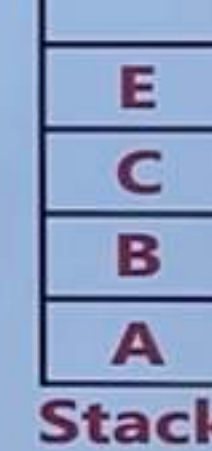
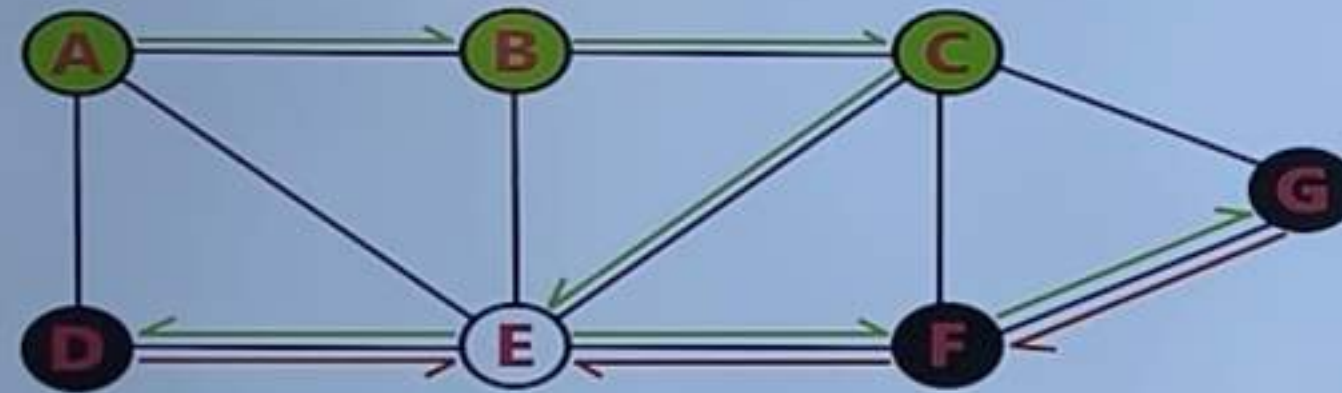
Step 9:

- There is no new vertex to be visited from G. So use back track.
- Pop G from the Stack.



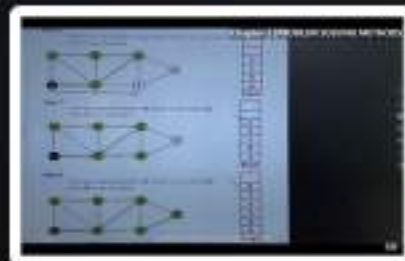
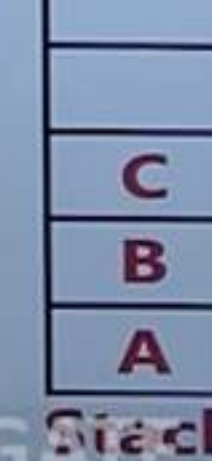
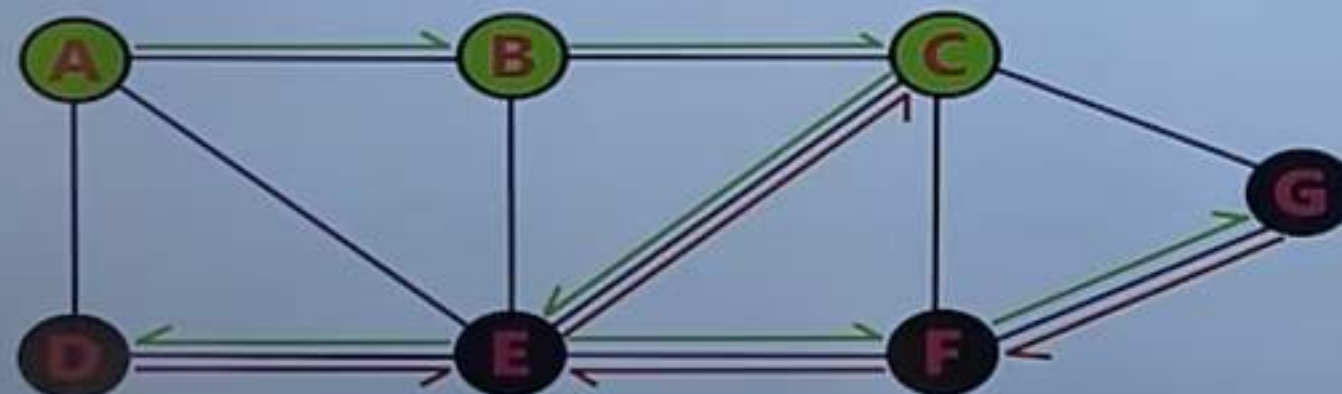
Step 10:

- There is no new vertex to be visited from F. So use back track.
- Pop F from the Stack.



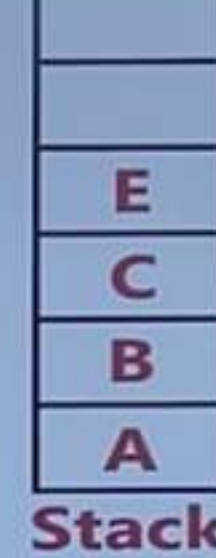
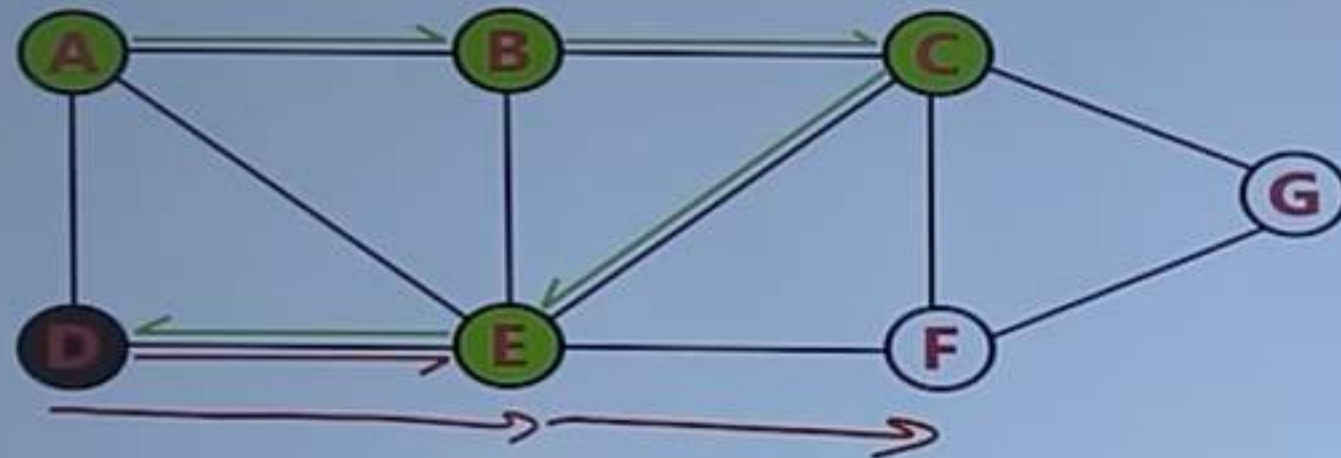
Step 11:

- There is no new vertex to be visited from E. So use back track.
- Pop E from the Stack.



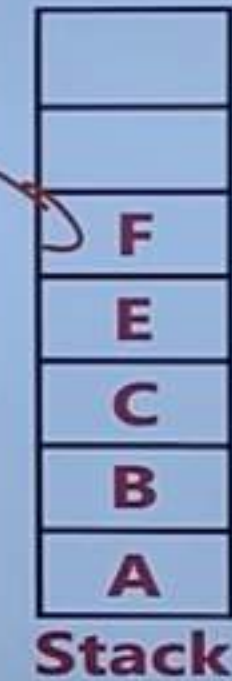
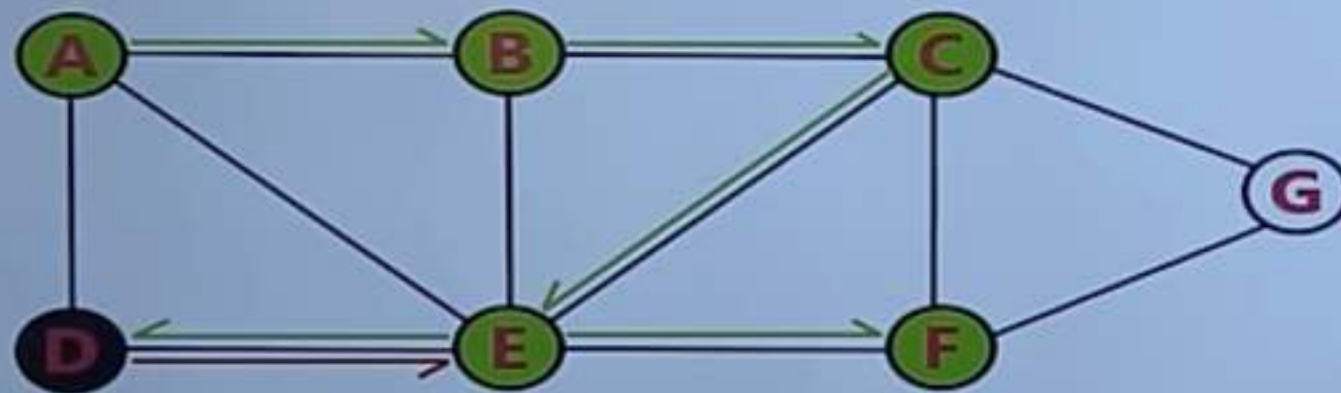
Step 6:

- There is no new vertex to be visited from D. So use back track.
- Pop D from the Stack.



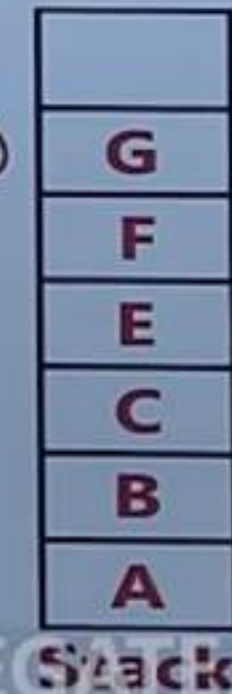
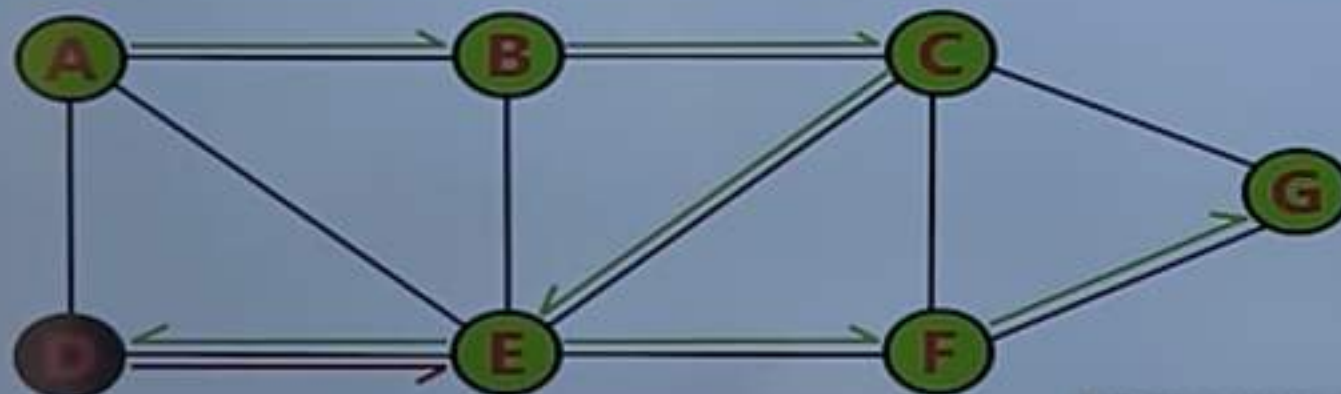
Step 7:

- Visit any adjacent vertex of E which is not visited (F).
- Push F on to the Stack.



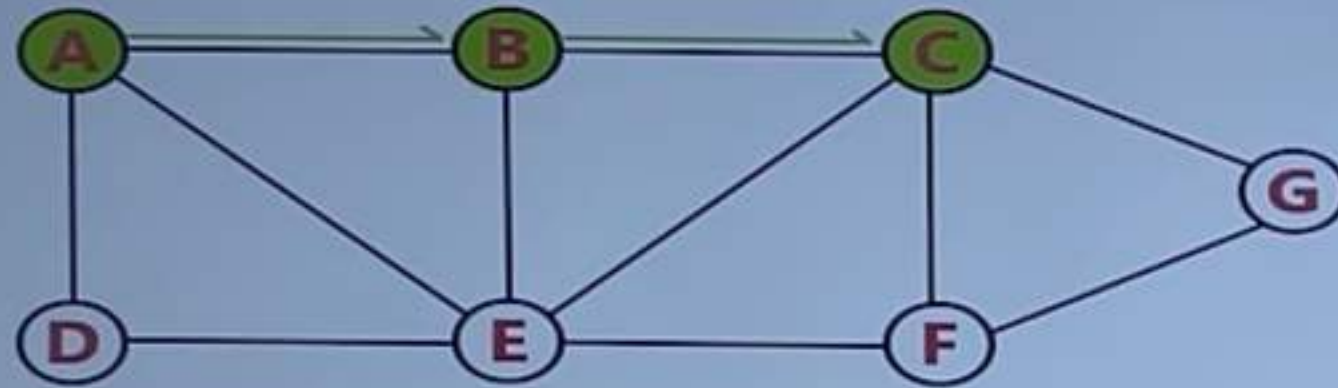
Step 8:

- Visit any adjacent vertex of F which is not visited (G).
- Push G on to the Stack.

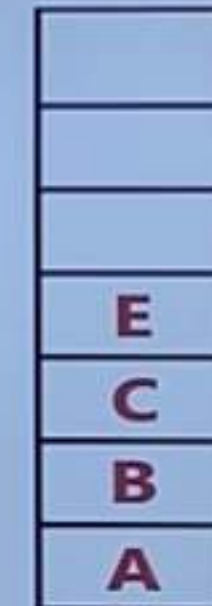


Step 3:

- Visit any adjacent vertex of **B** which is not visited (**C**).
- Push C on to the Stack.



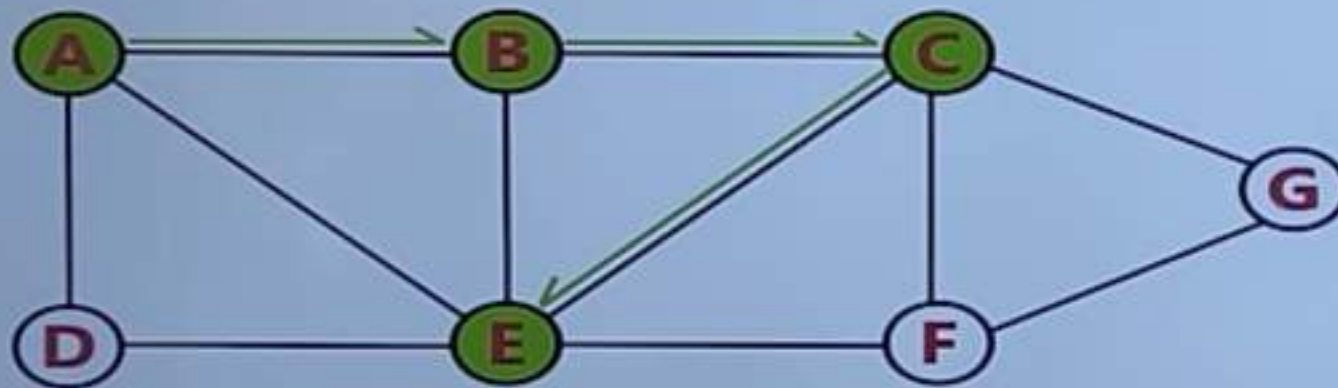
Stack



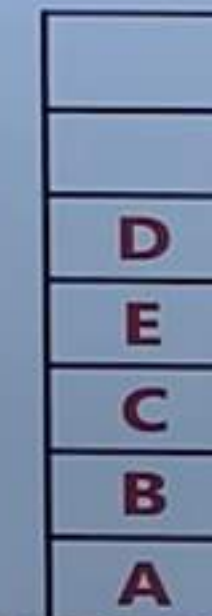
Stack

Step 4:

- Visit any adjacent vertex of **C** which is not visited (**E**).
- Push E on to the Stack



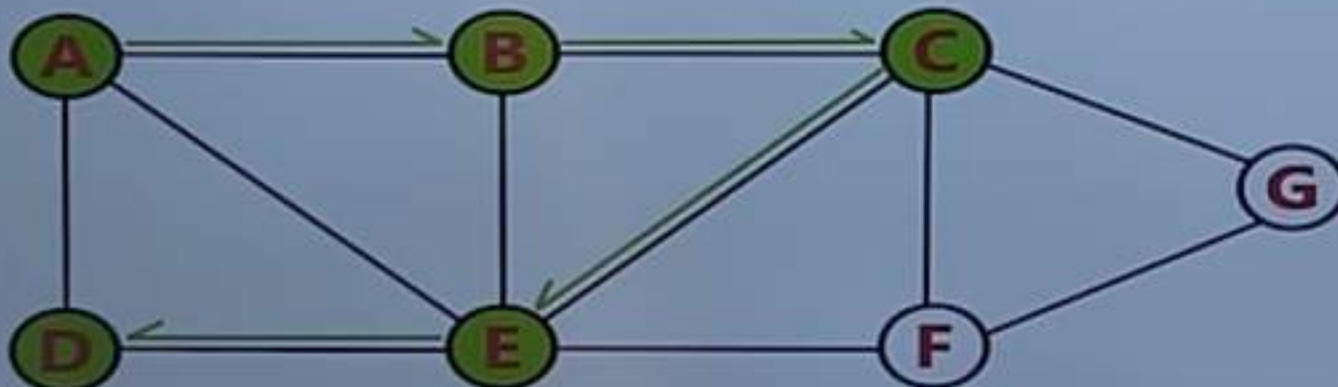
Stack



Stack

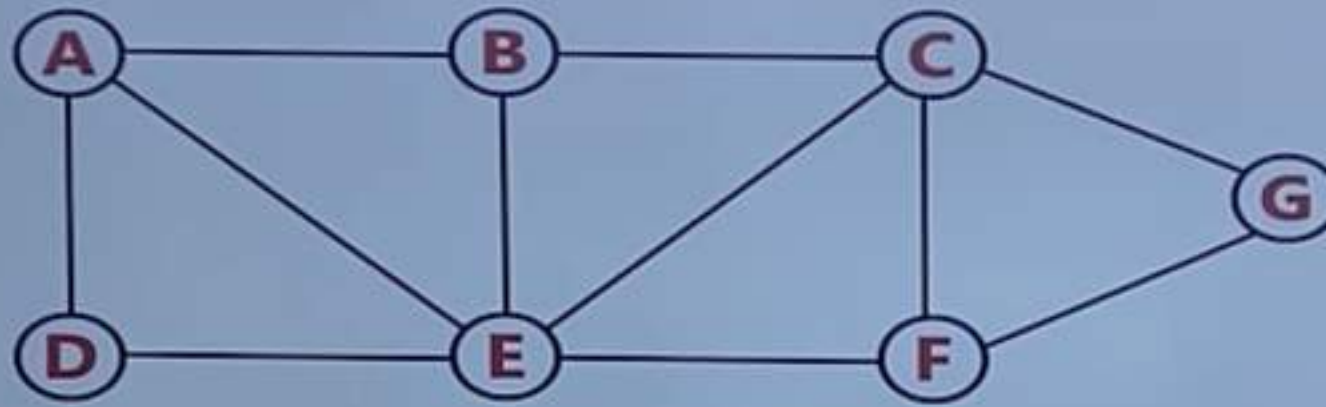
Step 5:

- Visit any adjacent vertex of **E** which is not visited (**D**).
- Push D on to the Stack



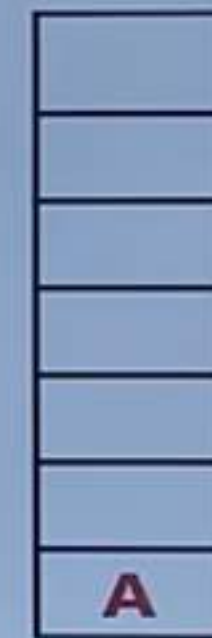
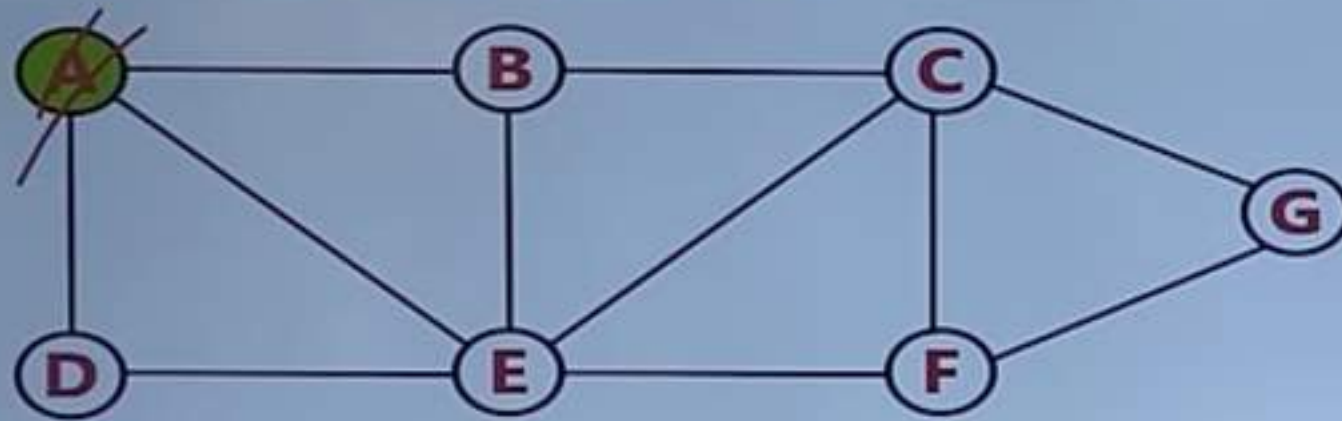
Consider the following example graph to perform DFS traversal

Chapter-2 (PROBLEM SOLVING METHODS)



Step 1:

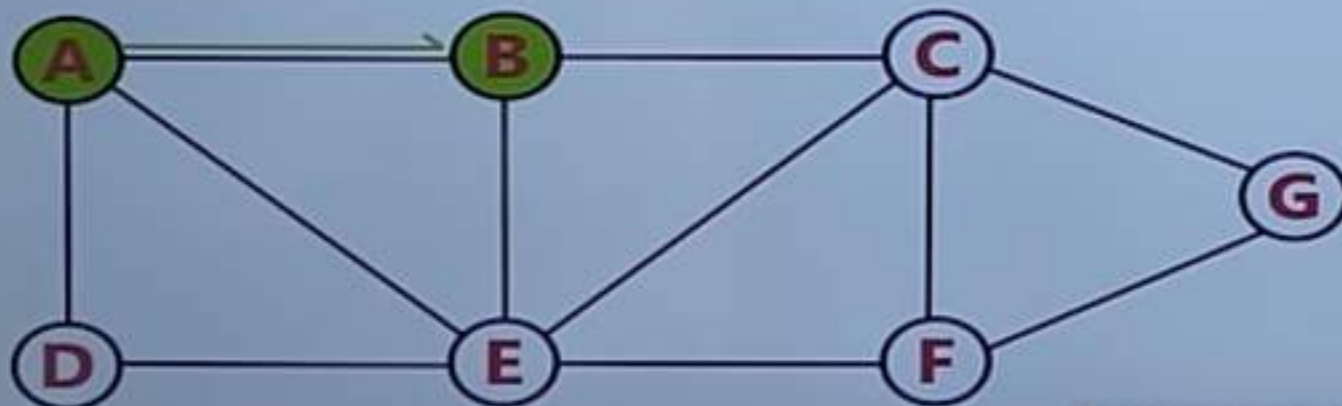
- Select the vertex **A** as starting point (visit **A**).
- Push **A** on to the Stack.



Stack

Step 2:

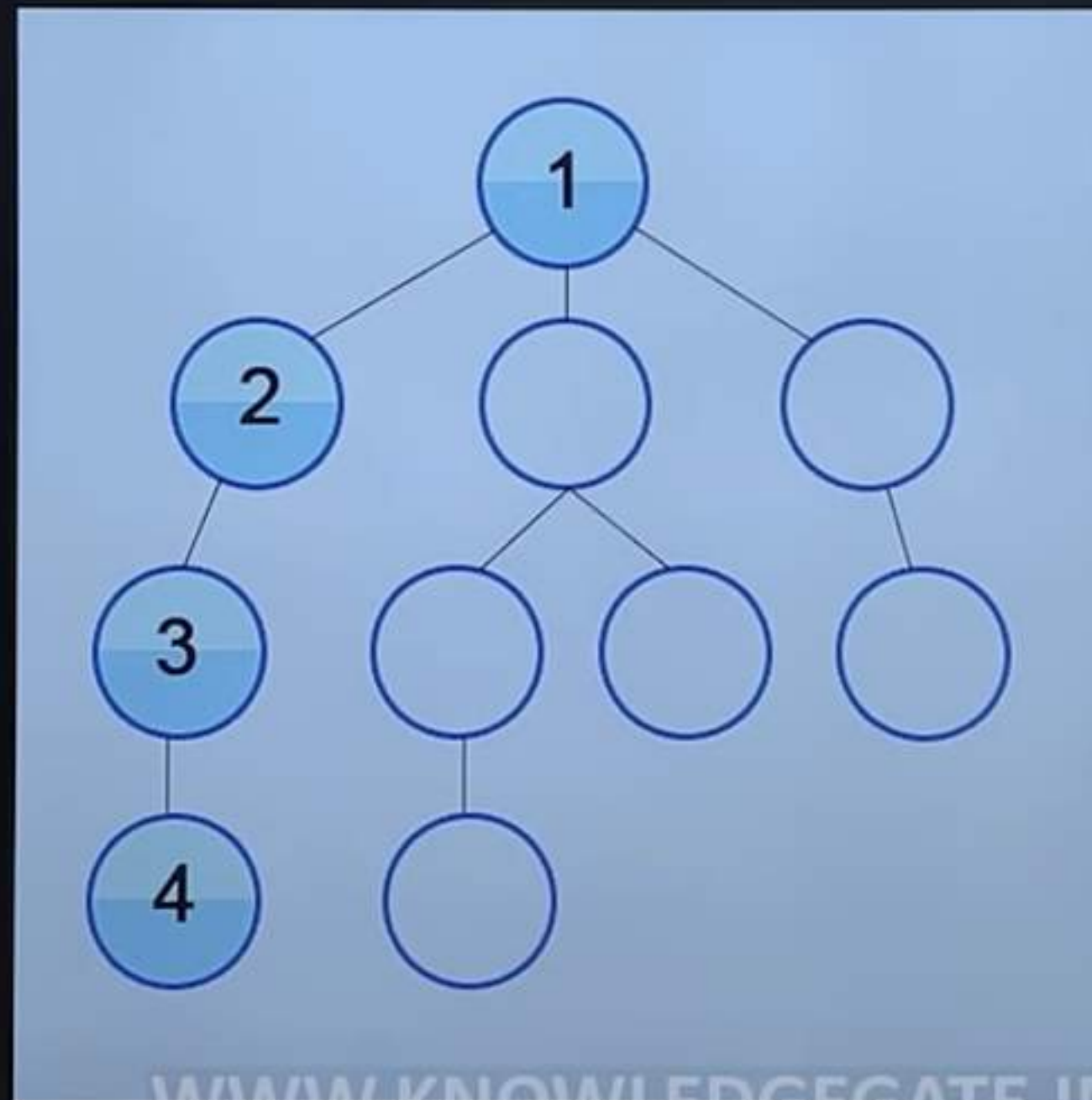
- Visit any adjacent vertex of **A** which is not visited (**B**).
- Push newly visited vertex B on to the Stack.



Stack

Depth-first search

- Depth-First Search is an uninformed search strategy that explores as far as possible along each branch before backtracking. It traverses the depth of a search tree or graph before exploring the neighboring nodes.



- **Completeness:**

- Breadth-First Search is complete if the search space is finite or if there is a solution within a finite depth.

- **Optimality:**

- Breadth-First Search is optimal in terms of finding the shortest path in an unweighted or uniformly weighted graph.

- **Time Complexity:**

- The time complexity of Breadth-First Search is $O(b^d)$, where b is the branching factor and d is the depth of the shallowest goal node.

- **Space Complexity:**

- The space complexity of Breadth-First Search is $O(b^d)$, as it stores all the nodes at each level in the search tree in memory.

• Advantages:

- Guarantees finding the shortest path if one exists in an unweighted graph.
- Closer nodes are discovered before moving to farther ones.

• Disadvantages:

- Inefficient in terms of time and space for large search spaces.
- Not suitable for scenarios where the cost or weight of edges is not uniform.

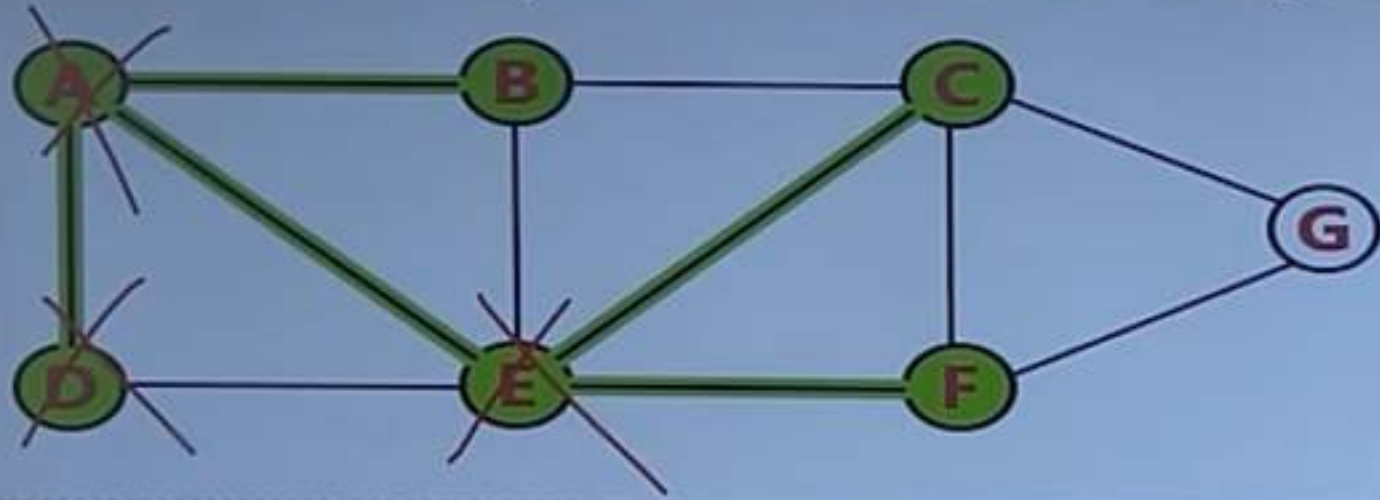


Algorithm:

1. Start with the initial state as the root node.
2. Enqueue the root node into a queue.
3. While the queue is not empty, do the following:
 1. Dequeue a node from the front of the queue.
 2. Expand the node and enqueue its unvisited neighboring nodes.
 3. Mark the dequeued node as visited.
4. Repeat steps 3 until the queue is empty or a goal state is found.

Step 4:

- Visit all adjacent vertices of **E** which are not visited (**C**, **F**).
- Insert newly visited vertices into the Queue and delete **E** from the Queue.

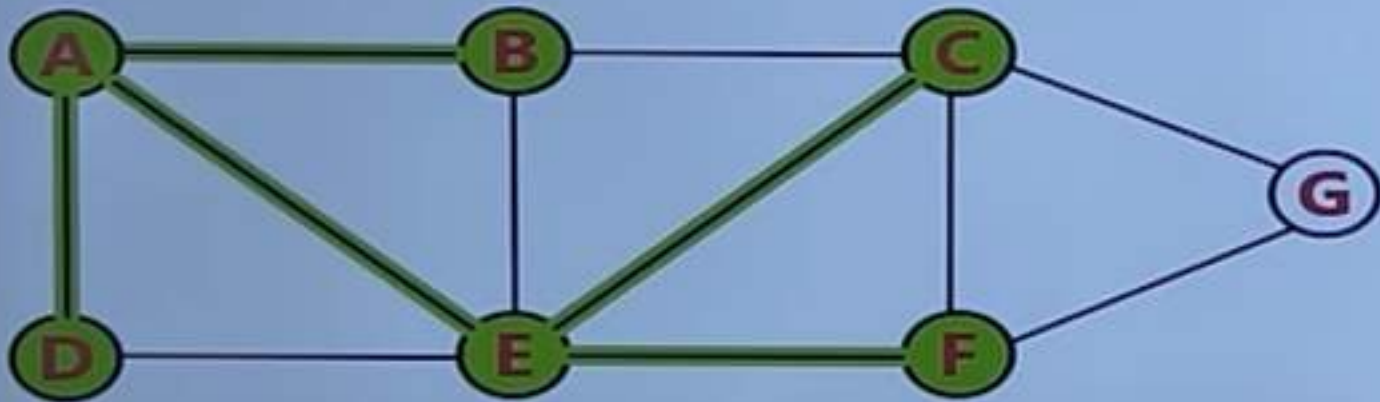


Queue



Step 5:

- Visit all adjacent vertices of **B** which are not visited (**there is no vertex**).
- Delete **B** from the Queue.

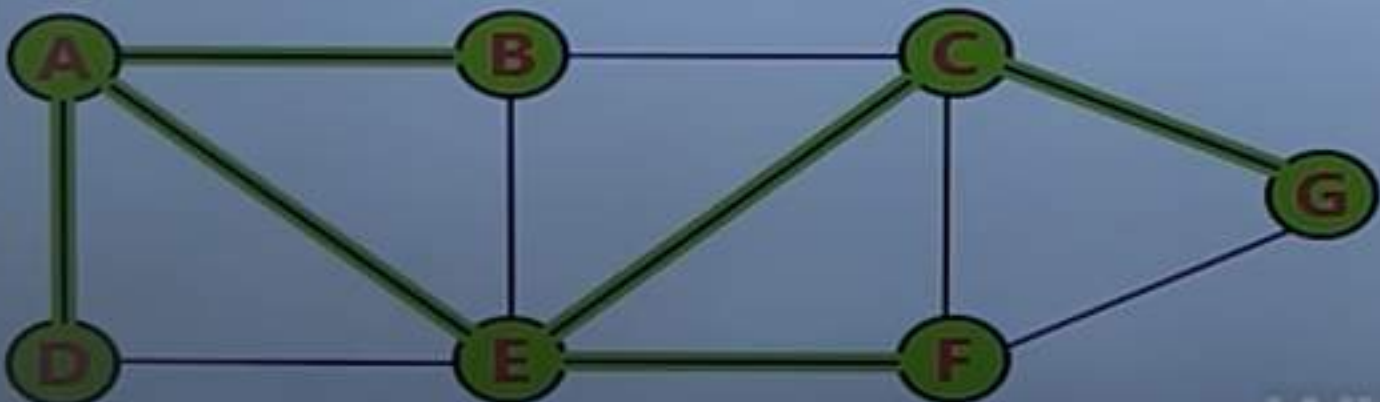


Queue

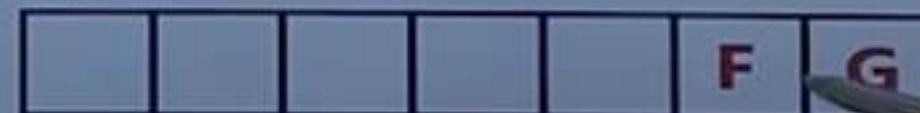


Step 6:

- Visit all adjacent vertices of **C** which are not visited (**G**).
- Insert newly visited vertex into the Queue and delete **C** from the Queue.

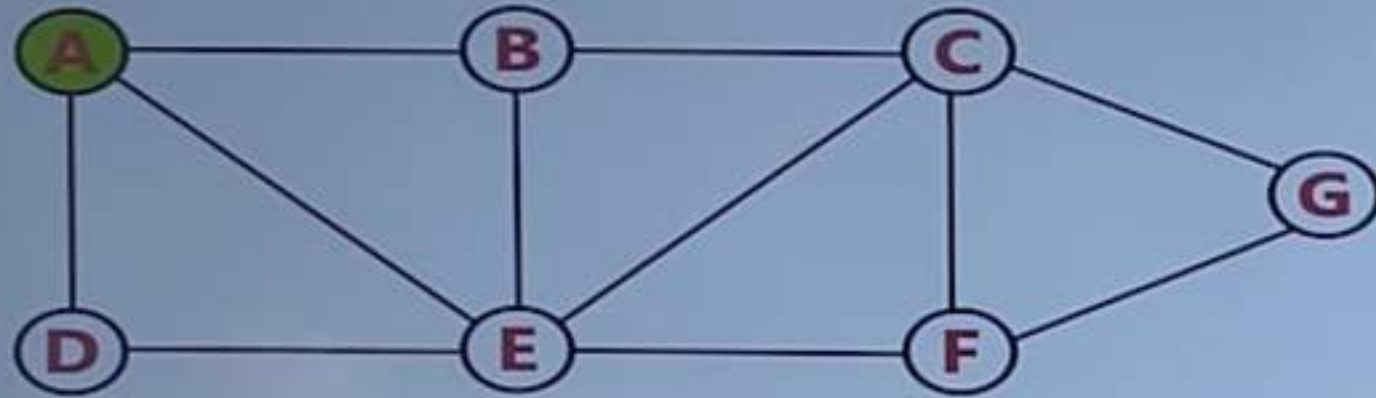


Queue



Step 1:

- Select the vertex **A** as starting point (visit **A**).
- Insert **A** into the Queue.

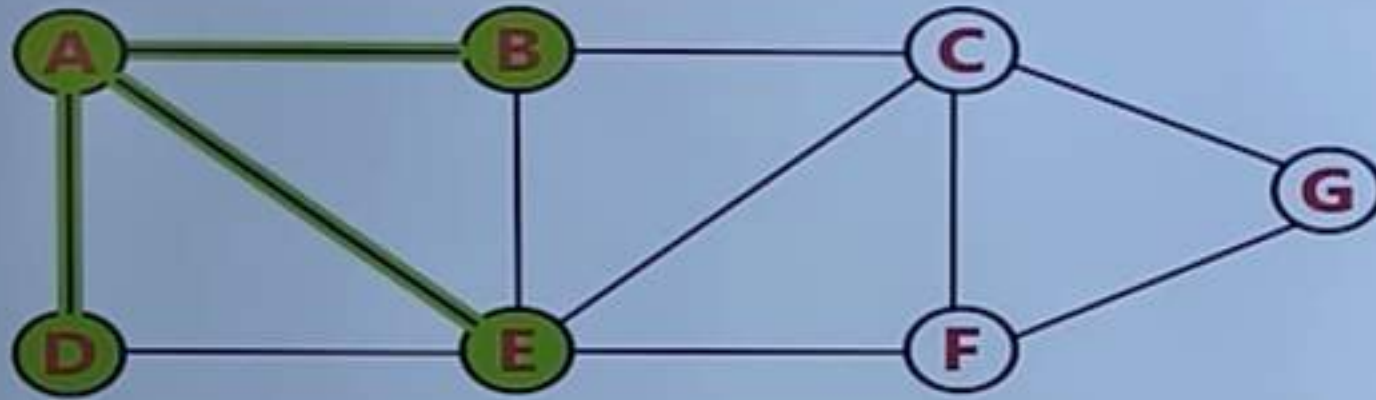


Queue

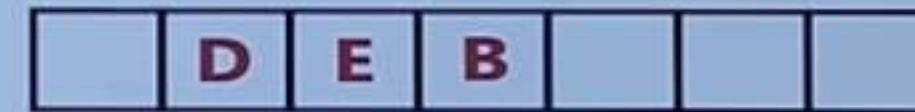


Step 2:

- Visit all adjacent vertices of **A** which are not visited (**D**, **E**, **B**).
- Insert newly visited vertices into the Queue and delete A from the Queue..

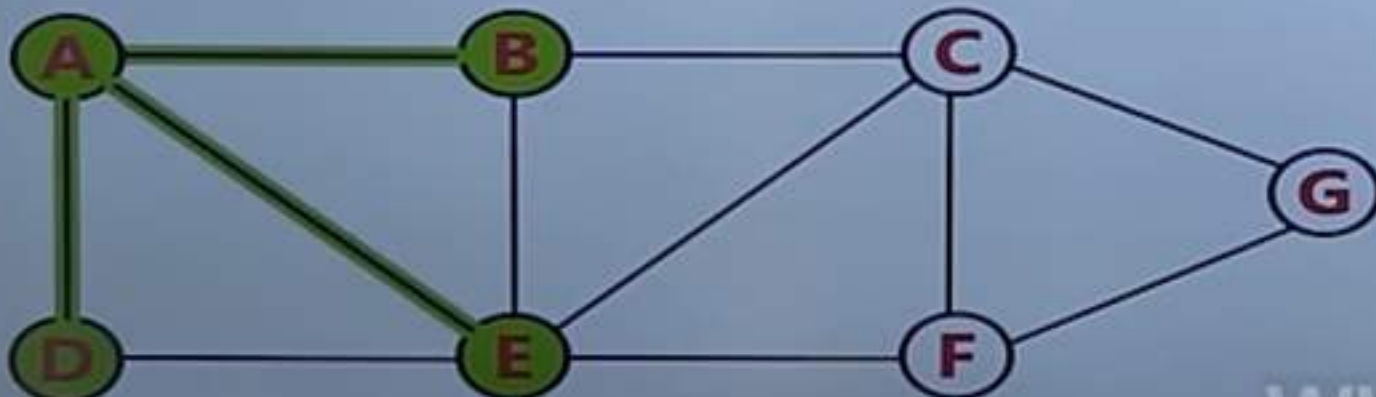


Queue

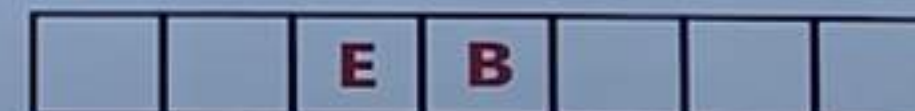


Step 3:

- Visit all adjacent vertices of **D** which are not visited (there is no vertex).
- Delete D from the Queue.



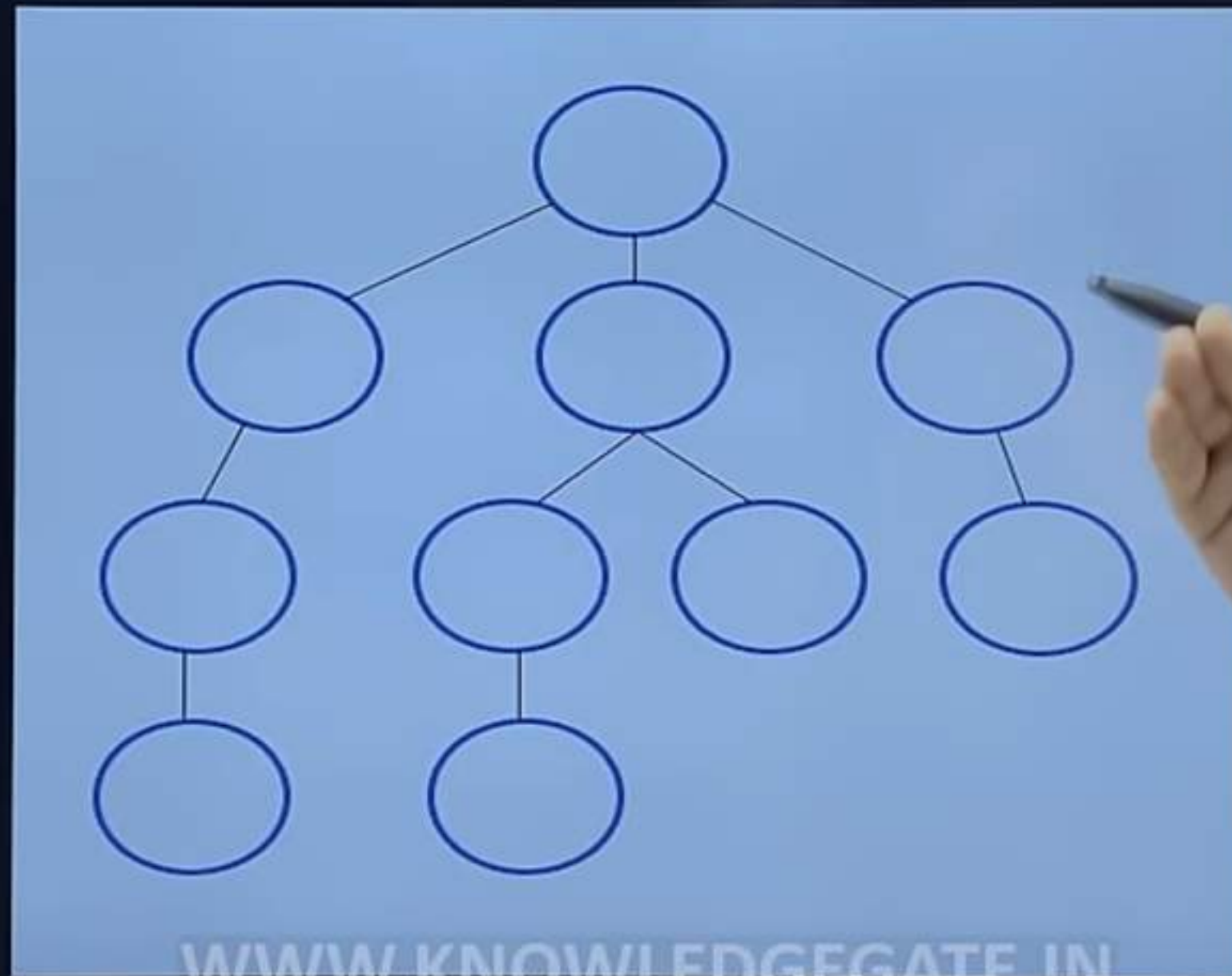
Queue



BFS

Chapter-2 (PROBLEM SOLVING METHODS)

- Breadth-First Search is an uninformed search strategy that explores all neighboring nodes at the current level before moving to the next level starting from the root.
- This is achieved very simply by using a FIFO queue. New nodes (which are always than their parents) go to the back of the queue, and old nodes, which are shallow new nodes, get expanded first.



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Aspect	Uninformed Search	Chapter-2 (PROBLEM SOLVING METHODS) Informed Search
Knowledge	Searches without any prior knowledge.	Uses knowledge, such as heuristics, to guide the search.
Time Efficiency	Generally more time-consuming.	Finds solutions quicker by prioritizing certain paths.
Complexity	Higher complexity due to lack of information, affecting time and space complexity.	Reduced complexity and typically more efficient in both time and space due to informed decisions.
Example Techniques	Depth-First Search (DFS), Breadth-First Search (BFS).	A* Search, Heuristic Depth-First Search, Best-First Search.
Solution Approach	Explores paths blindly.	Explores paths strategically towards the goal.

Informed Search (Heuristic Search)

- Informed search strategies utilize domain-specific information or heuristics to guide the search towards more promising paths. Here we have knowledge such as how far we are from the goal, path cost, how to reach to goal node etc. This knowledge helps agents to explore less to the search space and find more efficiently the goal node.
- **Advantage:**
 - Efficiency: By leveraging domain knowledge, informed search strategies can make informed decisions and focus the search on more relevant areas, leading to faster convergence to a solution.
- **Disadvantage:**
 - Heuristic Accuracy: The effectiveness of informed search strategies heavily relies on the quality and accuracy of the chosen heuristic function. An inaccurate or misleading heuristic can lead to suboptimal or incorrect solutions.
- **Example:**
 - Hill Climbing
 - Best First Search
 - A* Algorithm

- Uninformed search strategies explore the search space without any specific information or heuristics about the problem. Here we proceed in a systematic way by exploring nodes in some predetermined order or simply by selecting nodes at random.
 - **Advantage:**
 - **Simplicity**: Uninformed search strategies are generally easy to implement and understand.
 - **Disadvantage:**
 - **Inefficiency**: Without additional information, uninformed search strategies may require an extensive search, leading to inefficiency in terms of time and space.
 - **Examples:**
 - **Breadth First Search**
 - **Depth First Search**
 - **Uniform Cost Search**

- Search strategies refer to systematic methods and approaches used to explore and find relevant information or solutions within a given search space or dataset. Parameters for Evaluating Search Technique Performance:
 - Completeness: Determines if the search technique guarantees finding a solution if one exists within the search space.
 - Time and Space Complexity: Evaluates the efficiency of the search technique in terms of the time and space required to find a solution.
 - Optimality: Determines whether the search technique can find the best or optimal solution among all possible solutions.

Chapter-2 (PROBLEM SOLVING METHODS) Problem Spaces States Space Representation

The concept of "Problem Spaces States Space Representation" is a method used in artificial intelligence to formulate and solve problems. We use this representation for several reasons:

- **Structure**: It provides a structured way of defining all possible configurations that can occur while solving a problem.
- **Search**: It allows algorithms to search through possible states.
- **Optimization and Decision Making**: Helps in finding the most efficient path or sequence of actions to reach a desired goal state from an initial state.
- **Clarity**: Visually illustrates the complexity of a problem, making it easier to understand and explain.
- **Scalability**: It can be applied to simple as well as very complex problems, scaling from basic puzzles to real-world issues in robotics or planning.

- **Initial State:**
 - The agent is at the starting point, for example, 'Home'.
- **Action(s):**
 - The possible actions include choosing a road to travel from one intersection to another.
- **Result(s, a):**
 - For a chosen action 'a' (road taken), the result would be a new state representing the agent's new location (another intersection).
- **Goal Test:**
 - A function to determine if the agent has reached the destination 'Work'.
- **Path Cost Function:**
 - A function that adds up the distance (or time) to travel from the initial to the current state via the chosen paths. The objective is to minimize this cost.

Chapter-2 (PROBLEM SOLVING METHODS)

Problem Spaces States Space Representation

Defining a problem as a state space search

- A problem can be defined formally by five components:
 - {Initial State, Action(s), Result(s, a), Goal Test, Path Cost Function}



Settings

