Uniformed Search (cont.)

Computer Science cpsc322, Lecture 6

(Textbook finish 3.5)

May, 18, 2017



Lecture Overview

Recap DFS vs BFS

Uninformed Iterative Deepening (IDS)

Search with Costs



Search Strategies



Search Strategies are different with respect to how they:

- A. Check what node on a path is the goal
- B. Initialize the frontier
- C. Add/remove paths from the frontier
- D. Check if a state is a goal

Recap: Graph Search Algorithm

```
Input: a graph, a start node, Boolean procedure goal(n) that tests if n is a
    goal node
frontier:= [\langle s \rangle: s is a start node];
While frontier is not empty:
      select and remove path \langle n_o, \dots, n_k \rangle from frontier;
     If goal(n_{k})
             return \langle n_o, \dots, n_k \rangle;
     For every neighbor n of n_k add \langle n_o, \dots, n_k, n \rangle to frontier;
end
No solution found
```

In what aspects <u>DFS</u> and <u>BFS</u> differ when we look at the generic graph search algorithm?

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Slide 4

When to use BFS vs. DFS?

The search graph has cycles or is infinite



We need the shortest path to a solution



DFS

There are only solutions at great depth



DFS

There are some solutions at shallow depth



DFS

Memory is limited





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Iterative Deepening (sec 3.6.3)

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How can we achieve an acceptable (linear) space complexity maintaining completeness and optimality?

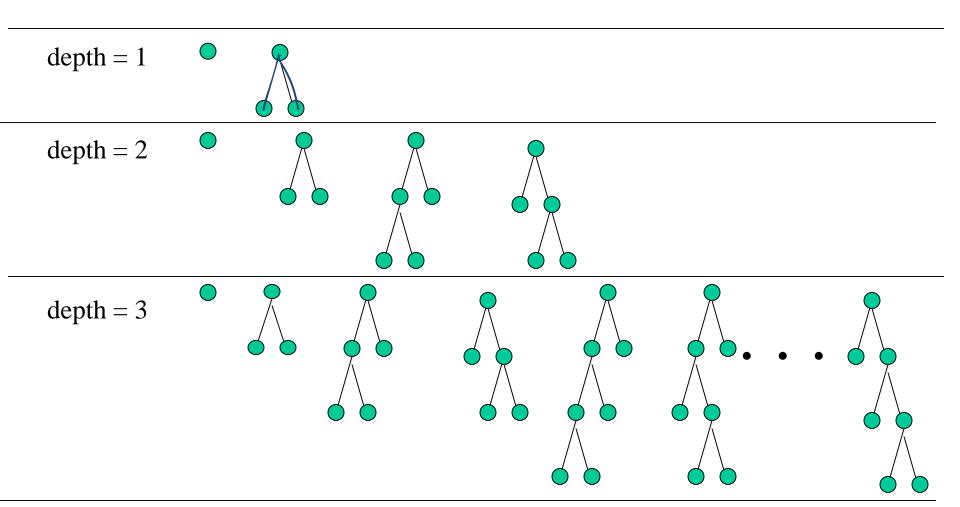
	Complete	Optimal	Time	Space
DFS	\sim	\sim	6 m	m 5
BFS	P	Y	bm	5 m
LIDS	Y	Y	6 m	mb

Key Idea: let's re-compute elements of the frontier rather than saving them.

Iterative Deepening in Essence

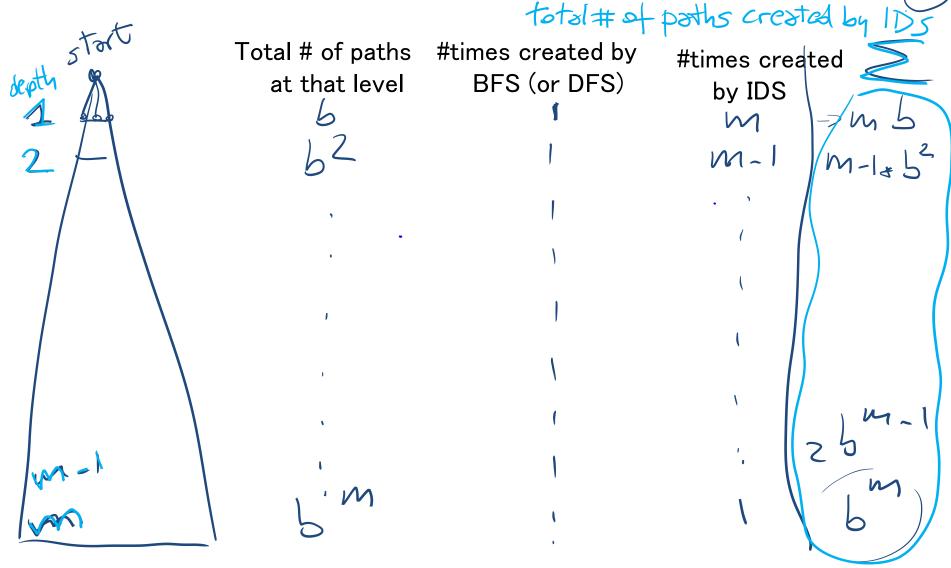
- Look with DFS for solutions at depth 1, then 2, then 3, etc.
- If a solution cannot be found at depth D, look for a solution at depth D + 1.

- You need a depth-bounded depth-first searcher.
- Given a bound B you simply assume that paths of length B cannot be expanded….



(Time) Complexity of Iterative Deepening

Complexity of solution at depth m with branching factor b



(Time) Complexity of Iterative Deepening

Complexity of solution at depth m with branching factor b

Total # of paths generated
$$b^{m} + 2b^{m-1} + 3b^{m-2} + .. + mb = A$$

$$b^{m} (1+2b^{-1} + 3b^{-2} + .. + mb^{1-m}) \le A$$

$$b^{m} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} ib^{1-i} + b^{m} \left(\frac{b}{b-1}\right)^{2} = O(b^{m})$$

$$b = 3$$

$$b = 3$$

$$4$$

$$b = 3$$

$$4$$

$$b = 4$$

$$b = 4$$

$$b = 4$$

$$b = 4$$

$$b = 3$$

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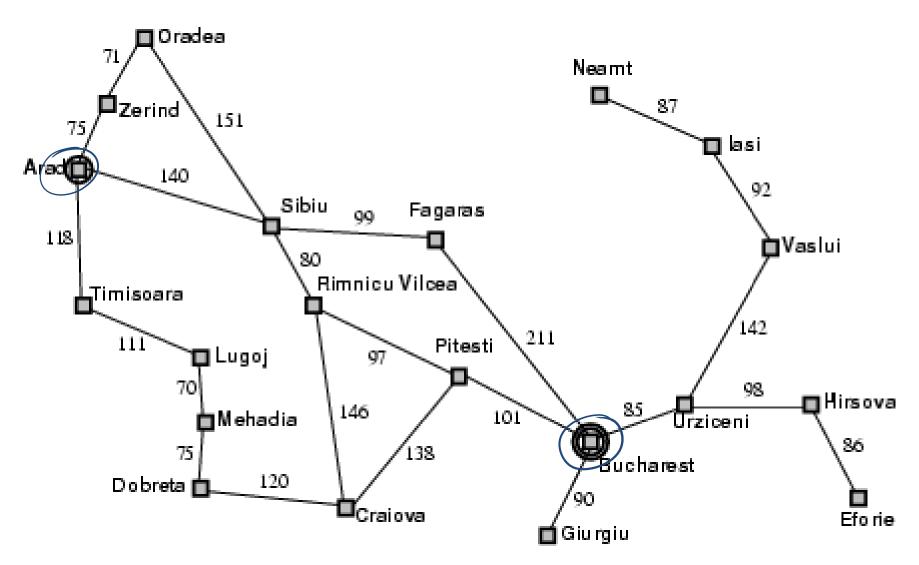
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Search with Costs

Example: Romania



Search with Costs

Sometimes there are costs associated with arcs.

Definition (cost of a path)

The cost of a path is the sum of the costs of its arcs:

$$cost(\langle n_0, \dots, n_k \rangle) = \sum_{i=1}^k cost(\langle n_{i-1}, n_i \rangle)$$

In this setting we often don't just want to find just any solution

we usually want to find the solution that minimizes cost

Definition (optimal algorithm)

A search algorithm is optimal if, when it returns a solution, it is the one with minimal cost.

Lowest-Cost-First Search

- At each stage, lowest-cost-first search selects a path on the frontier with lowest cost.
 - The frontier is a priority queue ordered by path cost
 - We say ``a path" because there may be ties

Example of one step for LCFS:

- the frontier is $[\langle p_2, 5 \rangle, \langle p_3, 7 \rangle, \langle p_1, 11 \rangle,]$
- (ρ_2) is the lowest-cost node in the frontier
- "neighbors" of p_2 are $\{\langle p_9, 10 \rangle, \langle p_{10}, 15 \rangle\}$

What happens?

- p_2 is selected, and tested for being a goal (its end).
- (if not a goal) Neighbors of p_2 are inserted into the frontier
- Thus, the frontier is now $[(p_3, 7), (p_3, 10), (p_1, 11), (p_{10}, 15)]$.
- ? ?? ? is selected next.
- Etc. etc.

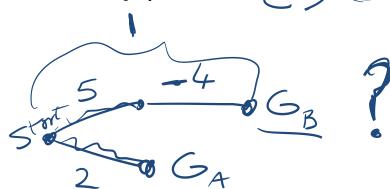


When arc costs are equal LCFS is equivalent to..

- A. DFS
- B. BFS
- C. IDS
- D. None of the Above

Analysis of Lowest-Cost Search (1)

- Is LCFS complete?
 - not in general: a cycle with zero or negative arc costs could be followed forever
 - yes, as long as arc costs are strictly positive



- Is LCFS optimal?
 - Not in general. Why not?
 - Arc costs could be negative: a path that initially looks high-cost could end up getting a ``refund".
 - However LCFS is optimal if arc costs are guaranteed to be non-negative.

Analysis of Lowest-Cost Search

- What is the time complexity, if the maximum path length is *m* and the maximum branching factor is *b*?
 - The time complexity is $O(b^m)$: must examine every node in the tree.
 - Knowing costs doesn't help here.

- What is the space complexity?
 - Space complexity is $O(b^m)$. We must store the whole frontier in memory.

Learning Goals for Search (up to today)

 Apply basic properties of search algorithms: completeness, optimality, time and space complexity of search algorithms.

	Complete	Optimal	Time	Space
DFS	\sim	\sim	6 m	bus
BFS	Y	4	N	bm
105			11	bm
LERS	X 1+ C>0	N Y1+ C>1	b b	5m

Learning Goals for Search (cont') (up to today)

• Select the most appropriate search algorithms for specific problems.

- BFS vs DFS vs IDS vs BidirS
- LCFS vs. BFS -
- A* vs. B&B vs IDA* vs MBA*

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- Define/read/write/trace/debug different search algorithms
 - With / Without cost
 - Informed / Uninformed

Beyond uninformed search....



What information we could use to better select paths from the frontier

- A. an estimate of the distance from the last node on the path to the goal
- B. an estimate of the distance from the start state to the goal
- C. an estimate of the cost of the path
- D. None of the above

Next Class on Tue

Heuristic Search

(read textbook.: 3.6)

- Best-First Search
- Combining LCFS and BFS: A* (finish 3.6)
- A* Optimality

Finish Search (finish Chpt 3)

- Branch-and-Bound
- A* enhancements
- Non-heuristic Pruning
- Dynamic Programming