Fundamentals of Artificial Intelligence Chapter 04: **Beyond Classical Search**

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Generalities

• So far we addresses a single category of problems:

- observable,
- deterministic,
- with known environment,
- s.t. the solution is a sequence of actions.
- What happens when these assumptions are relaxed?

In order we will:

- release condition 4 \implies local search
- release condition 2 \implies search with non-deterministic actions
- release condition 1 \Longrightarrow search with no observability or with partial observability
- release condition $3 \Longrightarrow$ online search

Local Search and Optimization

- General Ideas
- Hill-Climbing
- Simulated Annealing
- Local Beam Search & Genetic Algorithms
- Search with Nondeterministic Actions
- Search with Partial or No Observations (Deterministic/Nondeterministic Actions)
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General Ideas

- Search techniques: systematic exploration of search space
 - solution to problem: the path to the goal state
 - ex: 8-puzzle
- With many problems, the path to goal is irrelevant
 - goals expressed as conditions, not as explicit list of goal states
 - solution to problem: only the goal state itself
 - ex: N-queens
 - many important applications:

integrated-circuit design, factory-floor layout, job-shop scheduling, automatic programming, telecommunications network optimization, vehicle routing, portfolio management...

- The state space is a set of "complete" configurations
 - decision problems: find goal configuration satisfying constraints/rules (ex: N-queens)
 - optimization problems: find optimal configurations (ex: Travelling Salesperson Problem, TSP)
- If so, we can use iterative-improvement algorithms (in particular local search algorithms):
 - keep a single "current" state, try to improve it

Local Search

- Idea: use single current state and move to "neighbouring" states
 - operate using a single current node
 - the paths followed by the search are not retained
- Two key advantages:
 - use very little memory (usually constant)
 - can often find reasonable solutions in large or infinite (continuous) state spaces, for which systematic algorithms are unsuitable
- Also useful for pure optimization problems
 - find the best state according to an objective function
 - often do not fit the "standard" search model of previous chapter
 - ex: Darwinian survival of the fittest: metaphor for optimization, but no "goal test" and no "path cost"
- A complete local search algorithm: guaranteed to always find a solution (if exists)
- A optimal local search algorithm: guaranteed to always find a maximum/minimum solution
 - maximization and minimization dual (switch sign)

Local Search Example: N-Queens

- One queen per column (incremental representation)
- Cost (h): # of queen pairs on the same row, column, or diagonal
- Goal: h=0
- Step: move a queen vertically to reduce number of conflicts



Almost always solves N-queens problems almost instantaneously for very large N (e.g., N=1million)

Optimization Local Search Example: TSP

Travelling Salesperson Problem (TSP)

Given an undirected graph, with n nodes and each arc associated with a positive value, find the Hamiltonian tour with the minimum total cost.

Very hard for classic search!



Optimization Local Search Example: TSP

- State represented as a permutation of numbers (1, 2, ..., n)
- Cost (h): total cycle length
- Start with any complete tour
- Step: (2-swap) perform pairwise exchange



Variants of this approach get within 1% of optimal very quickly with thousands of cities

Local Search: State-Space Landscape

State-space landscape (Maximization)

- Local search algorithms explore state-space landscape
 - state space n-dimensional (and typically discrete)
 - move to "nearby" states (neighbours)
- NP-Hard problems may have exponentially-many local optima



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Hill-Climbing Search (aka Greedy Local Search)

Hill-Climbing

- Very-basic local search algorithm
- Idea: a move is performed only if the solution it produces is better than the current solution
 - (steepest-ascent version): selects the neighbour with best score improvement (select randomly among best neighbours if ≥ 1)
 - does not look ahead of immediate neighbors of the current state
 - stops as soon as it finds a (possibly local) minimum
- Several variants (Stochastic H.C., Random-Restart H.C., ...)
- Often used as part of more complex local-search algorithms

function HILL-CLIMBING(problem) returns a state that is a local maximum

```
current \gets \mathsf{MAKE}\text{-}\mathsf{NODE}(problem.\mathsf{INITIAL}\text{-}\mathsf{STATE})
```

```
loop do
```

 $neighbor \leftarrow$ a highest-valued successor of currentif neighbor.VALUE \leq current.VALUE then return current.STATE $current \leftarrow neighbor$

Hill-Climbing Search: Example

8-queen puzzle (minimization)

- Neighbour states: generated by moving one queen vertically
 - Cost (h): # of queen pairs on the same row, column, or diagonal
 - Goal: h=0
- Two scenarios $((a) \Longrightarrow (b)$ in 5 steps) :
 - (a) 8-queens state with heuristic cost estimate h = 17 (12d, 5h)
 - (b) local minimum: h=1, but all neighbours have higher costs





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Hill-Climbing Search: Drawbacks

 Incomplete: gets stuck in local optima, flat local optima & shoulders (aka plateaux), ridges (sequences of local optima)

• Ex: with 8-queens, gets stuck 86% of the time, fast when succeed note: converges very fast till (local) minima or plateaux

- Possible idea: allow 0-progress moves (aka sideways moves)
 - pros: may allow getting out of shoulders
 - cons: may cause infinite loops with flat local optima
 - ⇒ set a limit to consecutive sideways moves (e.g. 100)
 - Ex: with 8-queens, pass from 14% to 94% success, slower



Hill-climbing: Variations

• Stochastic hill-climbing

- random selection among the uphill moves
- selection probability can vary with the steepness of uphill move
- sometimes slower, but often finds better solutions
- First-choice hill-climbing
 - cfr. stochastic h.c., generates successors randomly until a better one is found
 - good when there are large amounts of successors
- Random-restart hill-climbing
 - conducts a series of hill-climbing searches from randomly generated initial states
 - tries to avoid getting stuck in local maxima

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Simulated Annealing

- Inspired to statistical-mechanics analysis of metallurgical annealing (Boltzmann's state distributions)
- Idea: Escape local maxima by allowing "bad" moves...
 - "bad move": move toward states with worse value
 - typically pick a move taken at random ("random walk")
- ... but gradually decrease their size and frequency.
 - sideways moves progressively less likely
- Analogy: get a ball into the deepest crevice in a bumpy surface
 - initially shaking hard ("high temperature")
 - progressively shaking less hard ("decrease the temperature")

Widely used in large-scale optimization tasks (e.g. VSLI layout problems, factory scheduling,...)

Simulated Annealing [cont.]

Simulated Annealing (maximization)

- A "temperature" parameter T slowly decreases with steps ("schedule")
- The probability of picking a "bad move":
 - decreases exponentially with the "badness" of the move $|\Delta E|$
 - decreases as the "temperature" T goes down
- If schedule lowers T slowly enough, then the algorithm will find a global optimum with probability approaching 1

 $current \leftarrow MAKE-NODE(problem.INITIAL-STATE)$

for t=1 to ∞ do

 $T \leftarrow schedule(t)$

if T = 0 then return *current*

 $next \leftarrow a randomly selected successor of current$

 $\Delta E \gets next. \texttt{Value} - current. \texttt{Value}$

if $\Delta E > 0$ then $current \leftarrow next$

else $current \leftarrow next$ only with probability $e^{\Delta E/T}$

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Local Beam Search

Local Beam Search

- Idea: keep track of k states instead of one
- Initially: k random states
- Step:
 - determine all successors of k states
 - 2 if any of successors is goal \implies finished
 - else select k best from successors
- Different from k searches run in parallel:
 - searches that find good states recruit other searches to join them
 - \Longrightarrow information is shared among k search threads
- Lack of diversity: quite often, all k states end up same local hill
- ⇒ Stochastic Local Beam: choose k successors randomly, with probability proportional to state success.

Resembles natural selection with asexual reproduction:

the successors (offspring) of a state (organism) populate the next generation according to its value (fitness), with a random component.

Genetic Algorithms

- Variant of local beam search: successor states generated by combining two parent states (rather than one single state)
- States represented as strings over a finite alphabet (e.g. {0,1})
- Initially: pick k random states
- Step:
 - parent states are rated according to a fitness function
 - k parent pairs are selected at random for reproduction, with probability increasing with their fitness
 - gender and monogamy not considered
 - for each parent pair
 - a crossover point is chosen randomly
 - a new state is created by crossing over the parent strings
 - 3 the offspring state is subject to (low-probability) random mutation
- Ends when some state is fit enough (or timeout)
- Many algorithm variants available

Resembles natural selection, with sexual reproduction

Genetic Algorithms

function GENETIC-ALGORITHM(*population*, FITNESS-FN) **returns** an individual **inputs**: *population*, a set of individuals

FITNESS-FN, a function that measures the fitness of an individual

repeat

```
new\_population \leftarrow empty set

for i = 1 to SIZE(population) do

x \leftarrow RANDOM-SELECTION(population, FITNESS-FN)

y \leftarrow RANDOM-SELECTION(population, FITNESS-FN)

child \leftarrow REPRODUCE(x, y)

if (small random probability) then child \leftarrow MUTATE(child)

add child to new\_population

population \leftarrow new\_population

until some individual is fit enough, or enough time has elapsed

return the best individual in population, according to FITNESS-FN
```

```
function REPRODUCE(x, y) returns an individual inputs: x, y, parent individuals
```

```
n \leftarrow \text{LENGTH}(x); c \leftarrow \text{random number from 1 to } n
return APPEND(SUBSTRING(x, 1, c), SUBSTRING(y, c + 1, n))
```

```
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```

Genetic Algorithms: Example

Example: 8-Queens

state[i]: (upward) position of the queen in ith column



Genetic Algorithms: Intuitions, Pros & Cons

Intuitions

- Selection drives the population toward high fitness
- Crossover combines good parts from good solutions (but it might achieve the opposite effect)
- Mutation introduces diversity

Pros & Cons

- Pros:
 - extremely simple
 - general purpose
 - tractable theoretical models
- Cons:
 - not completely understood
 - good coding is crucial (e.g., Gray codes for numbers)
 - too simple genetic operators

Widespread impact on optimization problems, i.e. circuit layout and job-shop scheduling

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Generalities

• Assumptions so far (see ch. 2 and 3):

- the environment is deterministic
- the environment is fully observable
- the agent knows the effects of each action

\implies The agent does not need perception:

- can calculate which state results from any sequence of actions
- always knows which state it is in
- If one of the above does not hold, then percepts are useful
 - the future percepts cannot be determined in advance
 - the agent's future actions will depend on future percepts
- Solution: not a sequence but a contingency plan (aka conditional plan, strategy)
 - specifies the actions depending on what percepts are received
- We analyze first the case of nondeterministic environments

Example: The Erratic Vacuum Cleaner

Erratic Vacuum-Cleaner Example

- actions: Left, Right, Suck
- goal: A and B cleaned (states 7, 8)
- if environment is observable, deterministic, and completely known ⇒ solvable by search algos
- ex: if initially in 1, then [suck,right,suck] leads to 8: [1,5,6,8]



- if dirty square: cleans the square, sometimes cleans also the other square. Ex: 1 $\stackrel{suck}{\Longrightarrow}$ {5,7}
- if clean square: sometimes deposits dirt on the carpet

Ex: $5 \stackrel{suck}{\Longrightarrow} \{1, 5\}$



Searching with Nondeterministic Actions

Generalized notion of transition model

- RESULTS(S,A) returns a set of possible outcomes states
 - Ex: RESULTS(1,SUCK)={5,7}, RESULTS(5,SUCK)={1,5}, ...
- A solution is a contingency plan (aka conditional plan, strategy)
 - contains nested conditions on future percepts (if-then-else, case-switch, ...)
 - Ex: from state 1 we can act the following contingency plan: [SUCK, IF STATE = 5 THEN [RIGHT, SUCK] ELSE []]
- Can cause loops (see later)

Searching with Nondeterministic Actions [cont.]

And-Or Search Trees

- In a deterministic environment, branching on agent's choices
 - \implies OR nodes, hence OR search trees
 - OR nodes correspond to states
- In a nondeterministic environment, branching also on environment's choice of outcome for each action
 - the agent has to handle all such outcomes
 - \implies AND nodes, hence AND-OR search trees
 - AND nodes correspond to actions
 - leaf nodes are goal, dead-end or loop OR nodes
- A solution for an AND-OR search problem is a subtree s.t.:
 - has a goal node at every leaf
 - specifies one action at each of its OR nodes
 - includes all outcome branches at each of its AND nodes

OR tree: AND-OR tree with 1 outcome each AND node (determinism)

And-Or Search Trees: Example

(Part of) And-Or Search Tree for Erratic Vacuum Cleaner Example.

Problem: Init: 1, Goal: 7,8. Solution: [SUCK, IF STATE = 5 THEN [RIGHT, SUCK] ELSE []] (solid arcs)



AND-OR Search

Recursive Depth-First (Tree-based) AND-OR Search

function AND-OR-GRAPH-SEARCH(*problem*) **returns** *a conditional plan*, *or failure* OR-SEARCH(*problem*.INITIAL-STATE, *problem*, [])

 $\begin{array}{l} \textbf{function OR-SEARCH}(state, problem, path) \ \textbf{returns} \ a \ conditional \ plan, \ or \ failure \\ \textbf{if } problem.GOAL-TEST(state) \ \textbf{then return the empty plan} \\ \textbf{if } state \ \textbf{is on } path \ \textbf{then return } failure \\ \textbf{for each } action \ \textbf{in } problem.ACTIONS(state) \ \textbf{do} \\ plan \leftarrow AND-SEARCH(RESULTS(state, action), problem, [state \mid path]) \\ \textbf{if } plan \neq failure \ \textbf{then return } [action \mid \ plan] \\ \textbf{return } failure \\ \end{array}$

function AND-SEARCH(states, problem, path) returns a conditional plan, or failure for each s_i in states do $plan_i \leftarrow \text{OR-SEARCH}(s_i, problem, path)$ if $plan_i = failure$ then return failure return [if s_1 then $plan_1$ else if s_2 then $plan_2$ else ... if s_{n-1} then $plan_{n-1}$ else $plan_n$]

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Note: nested if-then-else can be rewritten as case-switch

AND-OR Search [cont.]

Recursive Depth-First (Tree-based) AND-OR Search

- $\bullet\,$ Cycles: if the current state already occurs in the path \Longrightarrow failure
 - cycle detection like with ordinary DFS
 - does not mean "no solution"
 - means "if there is a non-cyclic solution, it must be reachable from the earlier incarnation of the current state"

 \implies Complete (if state space finite): every path must reach a goal, a dead-end or loop state

- Can be augmented with "explored" data structure for avoiding redundant branches (graph-based search)
- Can also be explored by breadth-first or best-first method
 - e.g. A* variant for AND-OR search available (see AIMA book)

AND-OR Search: Cyclic Solutions

- Some problems have no acyclic solutions
- A cyclic plan may be considered a cyclic solution provided that:
 - every leaf is a goal state (loop states not considered leaves), and
 - a leaf is reachable from every point in the plan
- Can be expressed by means of introducing
 - labels, and backward goto's to labels
 - loop syntax (e.g., while-do)
- Executing a cyclic solution eventually reaches a goal, provided that each outcome of a nondeterministic action eventually occurs
 - Is this assumption reasonable?
 - Yes, provided we distinguish:
 (nondeterministic, observable) \neq (deterministic, partially-observable)
 - Ex: device may not always work \neq device is broken (but we don't know it)

Cyclic Solution: Example

Example: Slippery Vacuum Cleaner

- Movement actions may fail: e.g., $Results(1, Right) = \{1, 2\}$
- A cyclic solution
- Use labels: [Suck, L1 : Right, if State = 5 then L1 else Suck]
- Use cycles: [Suck, While State = 5 do Right, Suck]



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Generalities

Partial Observability

- Partial observability: percepts do not capture the whole state
 - partial state corresponds to a set of possible physical states
- If the agent is in one of several possible physical states, then an action may lead to one of several possible outcomes, even if the environment is deterministic

Belief States

- Belief state: the agent's current belief about the possible physical states it might be in, given the previous sequence of actions and percepts
 - is a set of physical states: the agent is in one of these states (but does not know in which one)
 - contains the actual physical state the agent is in
 - ex: {1,2}: the agent is either in state 1 or in state 2 (but it does not know in which one)
 - if the belief state contains only one state, then the agent knows it is in that state
- 2ⁿ possible belief states out of n possible physical states!

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Search with No Observation (aka Sensorless Search or Conformant Search)

- Idea: To solve sensorless problems, the agent searches in the space of belief states rather than in that of physical states
 - fully observable, because the agent knows its own belief space
 - solutions are always sequences of actions (no contingency plan), because percepts are always empty and thus predictable
- Main drawback: 2^N candidate states rather than N

Search with No Observation: Example

Example: Sensorless Vacuum Cleaner

- the vacuum cleaner knows the geography of its world, but it doesn't know its location or the distribution of dirt
 - initial state: $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$
 - after action RIGHT, state is {2,4,6,8}
 - after action sequence [RIGHT, SUCK], state is {4,8}
 - after action sequence [RIGHT, SUCK, LEFT, SUCK], state is {7}



Belief-State Problem Formulation

- Belief states: subsets of physical states
 - If P has N states, then the sensorless problem has up to 2^N states
- Initial state: typically the set of all physical states in P
- Actions: (assumption: illegal actions have no effects)
 - $Actions(b) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \bigcup_{s \in b} Actions_P(s)$
- Transition model:
 - for deterministic actions: $b' = Result(b, a) \stackrel{\text{\tiny def}}{=} \{s' \mid s' = Result_P(s, a) \text{ and } s \in b\}$
 - for nondeterministic actions:

 $b' = Result(b, a) \stackrel{\text{\tiny def}}{=} \{s' \mid s' \in Result_P(s, a) \text{ and } s \in b\} = \bigcup_{s \in b} Result_P(s, a)$

- This step is called Prediction: $b' \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} Predict(b, a)$
- Goal test: GoalTest(b) holds iff $GoalTest_P(s)$ holds, $\forall s \in b$
- Path cost: (assumption: cost of an action the same in all states)

• $StepCost(a, b) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} StepCost_P(a, s), \forall s \in b$

Actions_P(), Result_P(), GoalTest_P(), StepCost_P() refer to physical System P

Belief-State Problem Formulation [cont.]

Example: Sensorless Vacuum Cleaner, plain and slippery versions

Prediction: Result({1,3}, Right), deterministic (a) and nondeterministic action (b)



Belief-State Problem Formulation [cont.]

Example: Sensorless Vacuum Cleaner: Belief State Space

(self-loops are omitted)



Exercises

Draw the Belief State Space in case of:

- Erratic vacuum cleaner
- Slippery vacuum cleaner

Belief-State Problem Formulation [cont.]

Remarks

- if $b \subseteq b'$, then $Result(b, a) \subseteq Result(b', a)$
- If a is deterministic, then $|Result(b, a)| \le |b|$
- The agent might achieve the goal earlier than GoalTest(b) holds, but it does not know it

Properties

- An action sequence is a solution for b iff it leads b to to a goal
- If an action sequence is a solution for a belief state b, then it is also a solution for any belief state b' s.t. b' ⊆ b
 - if $b \stackrel{a_1}{\mapsto} \stackrel{a_k}{\mapsto} g$, then $b' \stackrel{a_1}{\mapsto} \stackrel{a_k}{\mapsto} g$

We can apply to the Belief-State space any search algorithm.

- we can discard a path reaching a belief state b if b' ⊆ b has already been generated and discarded
- if a solution for *b* has been found, then any $b' \subseteq b$ is solvable
- → Dramatically improves efficiency

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Search with Observations

Perception and Belief-State Problem Formulation

- Percept(s) returns the percept received in state s
 (if sensing is nondeterministic, a function Percepts(s) returns a set of possible percepts)
 - ex: local-sensing vacuum cleaner, can perceive dirty/clean only on the current position: *Percept*(1) = [*A*, *Dirty*]
 - with fully observable problems: $Percept(s) = s, \forall s$
 - with sensorless problems: $Percept(s) = null, \forall s$
- Partial observations: many states can produce the same percept
 - ex: Percept(1) = Percept(3) = [A, Dirty]
 - \implies *Percepts*(*s*) may correspond to many different candidate states
- Actions(), StepCost(), GoalTest(): as with sensorless case

Transition Model with Perceptions

The Prediction-Observation-Update process

- Three steps:
 - Prediction: (same as for sensorless):

 $\hat{b} = \textit{Predict}(b, a) \stackrel{\text{\tiny def}}{=} \textit{Result}_{(\textit{sensorless})}(b, a) = \{s' \mid s' = \textit{Result}_{P}(s, a) \textit{ and } s \in b\}$

- Observation prediction: determines the set of percepts that could be observed in the predicted belief state: PossiblePercepts(b) ^{def} {o | o = Percept(s) and s ∈ b̂}
- **Output** Update: for each percept o, determine the belief state b_o , i.e., the subset of states in \hat{b} that could have produced the percept o:
 - $b_o = Update(\hat{b}, o) \stackrel{\text{\tiny def}}{=} \{s \mid s \in \hat{b} \text{ and } o = Percept(s)\}$
- $\implies \textit{Result}(b, a) = \left\{ b_o \mid \begin{array}{c} b_o = & \textit{Update}(\textit{Predict}(b, a), o) & \textit{and} \\ o \in & \textit{PossiblePercepts}(\textit{Predict}(b, a)) \end{array} \right\}$
 - set (not union!) of belief states, one for each possible percepts o
 - $b_o \subseteq \hat{b}, \forall o \Longrightarrow$ sensing reduces uncertainty!
 - (if sensing is deterministic) the b_o 's are all disjoint (each s belongs to b_o s.t. o = Percept(s))
 - $\Longrightarrow \hat{b}$ partitioned into smaller belief states, one for each possible next percept
- → Non-deterministic belief-state problem
 - due to the inability to predict exactly the next percept

Transition Model with Perceptions: Example

Deterministic actions: Local-sensing vacuum cleaner

- $\hat{b} = Predict(\{1,3\}, Right) = \{2,4\}$
- $PossiblePercepts(\hat{b}) = \{[B, Dirty], [B, Clean]\}$
- $\textit{Result}(\{1,3\},\textit{Right}) = \{\{2\},\{4\}\}$



Transition Model with Perceptions: Example

Nondeterministic actions: Slippery local-sensing vacuum cleaner

- $\hat{b} = Predict(\{1,3\}, Right) = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$
- $PossiblePercepts(\hat{b}) = \{[B, Dirty], [A, Dirty], [B, Clean]\}$
- $\textit{Result}(\{1,3\},\textit{Right}) = \{\{2\},\{1,3\},\{4\}\}$



Solving Partially-Observable Problems

- Formulation as a nondeterministic belief-state search problem
 - non-determinism due to different possible percepts
- \implies The AND-OR search algorithms can be applied
- \implies The solution is a conditional plan

First level:

Solution for initial percept [A, Dirty] (deterministic): [Suck, Right, if Bstate = {6} then Suck else []]



An Agent for Partially-Observable Environments

- Agent quite similar to the simple problem-solving agent [Ch.3]:
 - formulates a problem (as a belief-state search)
 - 2 calls a search algorithm (an AND-OR-GRAPH one)
 - executes the solution
- Two main differences:
 - the solution is a conditional plan, not an action sequence
 - in step (3) the agent needs to maintain its belief state as it performs actions and receives percepts (aka monitoring, filtering, state estimation)
- State estimation resembles the prediction-observation-update process:
 - simpler, because the percept o is given by the environment
 - \implies no need to calculate it
 - given b, a and o: b' = Update(Predict(b, a), o)

Remark

The computation has to happen as fast as percepts are coming in

 \implies in some complex applications, compute approximate belief states

Example: Belief-State Maintenance

Example: Kindergarden Vacuum-Cleaner

- local sensing \implies partially observable
- any square may become dirty at any time unless the agent is actively cleaning it at that moment — nondeterministic

{5,7}

• Ex: Update(Predict({1,3}, Suck), [A, Clean]) = {5,7}

{2,4,6,8}

• Ex: Update(Predict({5,7}, Right), [B, Dirty]) = {2,6}



Example:

- Knows the map, senses walls in the four directions (NESW)
 - · localization broken: does not know where it is
 - navigation broken: does not know the direction is moving to \Longrightarrow move is nondeterministic
 - goal: localization (know where it is)
- $b = \{all \ locations\}, o = NSW$
 - $b_o = Update(b, NSW) = (a)$
 - (2) $b_o = Update(Predict(Update(b, NSW), Move), NS) = (b)$



(a) Possible locations of robot after $E_1 = NSW$

	0	\odot	0	0		0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0		0
l			0	0		0			0		0		0			
l		0	0	0		0			0	0	0	0	0			0
	0	0		0	0	0		0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0

(b) Possible locations of robot After $E_1 = NSW$, $E_2 = NS$

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- Local Search and Optimization
 - General Ideas
 - Hill-Climbing
 - Simulated Annealing
 - Local Beam Search & Genetic Algorithms
- Search with Nondeterministic Actions
- Search with Partial or No Observations (Deterministic/Nondeterministic Actions)
 - Search with No Observations
 - Search with Partial Observations



Generalities

Online vs. offline search

- So far: Offline search
 - it computes a complete solutions before executing it
- Online search: agent interleaves computation and action
 - it takes an action,
 - then it observes the environment and computes the next action
 - (repeat)
- Necessary in dynamic domains or unknown domains
 - cannot know the states and consequences of actions
 - faces an exploration problem: must use actions as experiments in order to learn enough
 - ex: a robot placed in a new building \Longrightarrow must explore it to build a map for getting from A to B
 - ex: newborn baby \Longrightarrow acts to learn the outcome of his/her actions
- Useful in nondeterministic domains
 - prevents search blowup

Must be solved by executing actions, rather than by pure computation

Online Search

Working Hypotheses

- Assumption: a deterministic and fully observable environment
- The agent knows only
 - Actions(s), which returns the list of actions allowed in s
 - the step-cost function c(s, a, s') (cannot be used until s' is known)
 - GoalTest(s)
- Remark: The agent cannot determine *Result*(*s*, *a*)
 - except by actually being in s and doing a
- The agent knows an admissible heuristic function h(s), that estimates the distance from the current state to a goal state
- Objective: reach goal with minimal cost
 - Cost: total cost of traveled path
 - Competitive ratio: ratio of cost over cost of the solution path if search space is known $(+\infty \text{ if agent in a deadend})$

Online Search: Example

Example: a simple maze problem

- the agent does not know that going Up from (1,1) leads to (1,2)
- having done that, it does not know that going Down leads to (1,1)
- the agent might know the location of the goal
- it may be able to use the Manhattan-distance heuristic



Online Search: Deadends

Inevitability of Deadends

- Online search may face deadends (e.g., with irreversible actions)
- No algorithm can avoid dead ends in all state spaces
- Adversary argument: for each algo, an adversary can construct the state space while the agent explores it
 - If states S and A visit. What next?
 - \implies if algo goes right, adversary builds (top), otherwise builds (bot)
 - \implies adversary builds
- Assumption the state space is safely explorable: some goal state is reachable from every reachable state (ex: reversible actions)



Online Search Agents

Online Search Agents: Basic Ideas

- Idea: The agent creates & maintains a map of the environment (result[s, a])
 - map is updated based on percept input after every action
 - map is used to decide next action

• Difference wrt. offline algorithms (ex A*, BFS)

- Can only expand the node it is physically in
 - ⇒ expand nodes in local order
 - → DFS natural candidate for an online version
- Needs to backtrack physically
 - DFS: go back to the state from which the agent most recently entered the current state
 - must keep a table with the predecessor states of each state to which the agent has not yet backtracked (unbacktracked[s])
 - → backtrack physically (find an action reversing the generation of s)
- Works only if actions are always reversible
- Worst case: each node is visited twice
- An agent can go on a long walk even if it is close to the solution
 - an online iterative deepening approach solves this problem

Online DFS Search Agents

if GOAL-TEST(s') then return stop

if s' is a new state (not in *untried*) then $untried[s'] \leftarrow ACTIONS(s')$ if s is not null then

```
result[s, a] \leftarrow s'
```

add s to the front of unbacktracked[s']

if untried[s'] is empty then

if *unbacktracked*[*s'*] is empty **then return** *stop*

```
else a \leftarrow an action b such that result[s', b] = POP(unbacktracked[s'])
```

```
else a \leftarrow \text{POP}(untried[s'])
```

 $s \leftarrow s'$

return a

Online Local Search

- Hill Climbing natural candidate for online search
 - locality of search
 - only one state is stored
 - unfortunately, stuck in local minima
 - random restarts not possible
- Possible solution: Random Walk
 - selects randomly one available actions from the current state
 - preference can be given to actions that have not yet been tried
 - eventually finds a goal or complete its exploration if space is finite
 - unfortunately, very slow

Random Walk: example

 random walk takes exponentially many steps to find a goal (backward progress is twice as likely as forward progress)



Online A*: LRTA*

LRTA*: General ideas

- Better possible solution: add memory to hill climbing
- Idea: store a "current best estimate" H(s) of the cost to reach the goal from each state that has been visited
 - initially h(s)
 - updated as the agent gains experience in the state space

(recall that h(s) is in general "too optimistic")

\Rightarrow Learning Real-Time A* (LRTA*)

- builds a map of the environment in the result[s,a] table
- chooses the "apparently best" move a according to current H()
- updates the cost estimate H(s) for the state s it has just left, using the cost estimate of the target state s'

• H(s) := c(s, a, s') + H(s')

- "optimism under uncertainty": untried actions in s are assumed to lead immediately to the goal with the least possible cost *h*(*s*)
- \implies encourages the agent to explore new, possibly promising paths

An LRTA* agent is guaranteed to find a goal in any finite, safely explorable environment.

Online A*: LRTA*

```
function LRTA*-AGENT(s') returns an action
   inputs: s', a percept that identifies the current state
   persistent: result, a table, indexed by state and action, initially empty
                 H, a table of cost estimates indexed by state, initially empty
                 s, a, the previous state and action, initially null
   if GOAL-TEST(s') then return stop
   if s' is a new state (not in H) then H[s'] \leftarrow h(s')
   if s is not null
       result[s, a] \leftarrow s'
       H[s] \leftarrow \min_{b \in \text{ACTIONS}(s)} \text{LRTA*-COST}(s, b, result[s, b], H)
   a \leftarrow \text{an action } b \text{ in ACTIONS}(s') \text{ that minimizes } LRTA*-COST(s', b, result[s', b], H)
   s \leftarrow s'
```

return a

```
\begin{array}{l} \mbox{function LRTA*-COST}(s,a,s',H) \mbox{ returns a cost estimate} \\ \mbox{if } s' \mbox{ is undefined then return } h(s) \\ \mbox{else return } c(s,a,s') \ + \ H[s'] \end{array}
```

Example: LRTA*

Five iterations of LRTA* on a one-dimensional state space

- states labeled with current H(s), arcs labeled with step cost
- shaded state marks the location of the agent,
- updated cost estimates a each iteration are circled

