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

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#### Generalities

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- What happens when these assumptions are relaxed?
- In order we will:
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  - release condition 2  $\implies$  search with non-deterministic actions
  - release condition 1  $\implies$  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)
  - Search with No Observations
  - Search with Partial Observations

#### Online Search (aka Exploration)

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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...

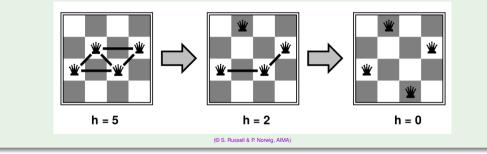
- The state space is a set of "complete" configurations
  - decision problems: find goal configuration satisfying constraints/rules (ex: N-queens)
  - optimization problems: find optimal configurations (ex: Travelling Salesperson Problem TSP)
- If so, we can use iterative-improvement algorithms (in particular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



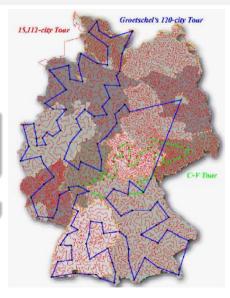
Almost always solves N-queens problems almost instantaneously for very large N (e.g., N=1million)

### Optimization Local Search Example: TSP

#### Travelling Salesperson Problem (TSP)

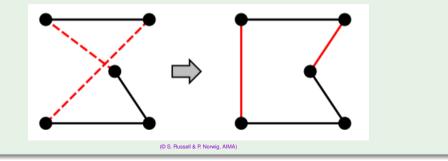
Given an undirected graph, with n nodes and each arc associated with a positive value, find the Hamiltonian tour with the minimum total cost.

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

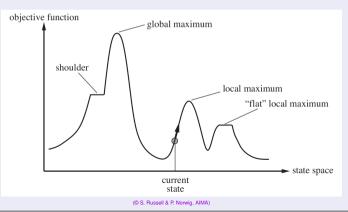


Variants of this approach get within 1% of optimal very quickly with thousands of cities

## 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  $\geq 1$ )
  - 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 \leftarrow Make-Node(problem.Initial-State)
```

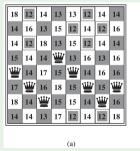
```
loop do
```

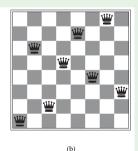
 $neighbor \leftarrow$  a highest-valued successor of currentif neighbor.VALUE  $\leq$  current.VALUE then return current.STATE $current \leftarrow neighbor$ 

## 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



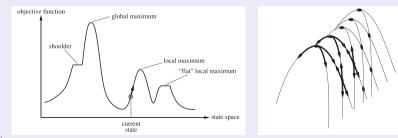


### Hill-Climbing Search: Drawbacks

 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
  - 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 $\infty$ 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 in the 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
    - 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
```

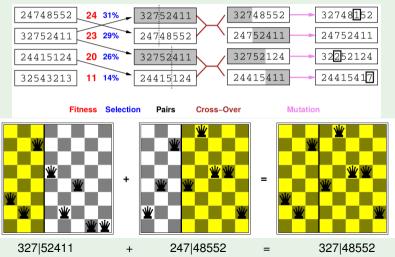
```
n \leftarrow \text{LENGTH}(x); c \leftarrow \text{random number from 1 to } n
return APPEND(SUBSTRING(x, 1, c), SUBSTRING(y, c + 1, n))
```

```
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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 (cont.)

#### • 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

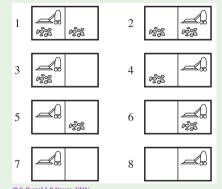
#### Erratic Vacuum-Cleaner Example

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



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## 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)

#### Remark

In practice, we don't reason on states, rather on state variable values: [Suck; if B.Dirty then [Right, Suck] else [ ]]

## Searching with Nondeterministic Actions [cont.]

#### And-Or Search Trees

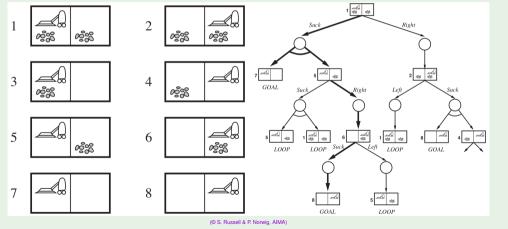
- In a deterministic environment, we branch on agent's choices
  - $\implies$  OR nodes, hence OR search trees
    - OR nodes correspond to states
- In a nondeterministic environment, we branch also on (environment's choice of) outcome for each action
  - the agent has to handle all such outcomes
  - $\implies$  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, [])
```

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, then it must be reachable from the earlier incarnation of the current state"
    - $\Longrightarrow$  the new incarnation can be discharged
- $\implies$  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)
  - Implicitly Depth-First, but can also be explored by breadth-first or best-first method
    - e.g. A\* variant for AND-OR search available (see AIMA book)

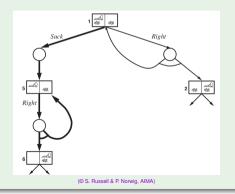
## AND-OR Search: Cyclic Solutions

- 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
- 2<sup>n</sup> possible belief states out of n possible physical states!

In practice, the agent reasons in terms of partial states, rather than a of sets of states.

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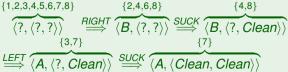
### Search with No Observation (aka Sensorless Search or Conformant Search)

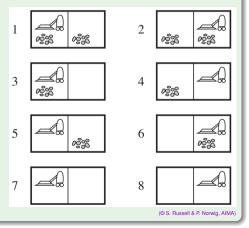
- Idea: To solve sensorless problems, the agent searches in the space of belief states rather than in that of physical states
  - fully observable, because the agent knows its own belief space
  - solutions are always sequences of actions (no contingency plan), because percepts are always empty and thus predictable
- Main drawback: 2<sup>N</sup> 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], state is {3,7}
  - after action sequence [RIGHT, SUCK, LEFT, SUCK], state is {7}
- In practice, the information on the state is made progressively less partial by the actions:





## **Belief-State Problem Formulation**

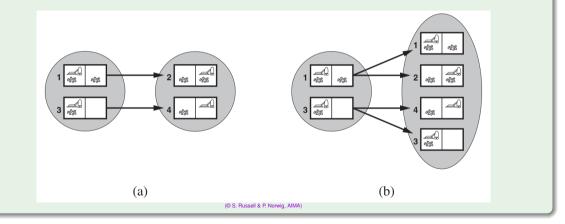
Let Actions<sub>P</sub>(), Result<sub>P</sub>(), GoalTest<sub>P</sub>(), StepCost<sub>P</sub>() refer to physical System P:

- Belief states: subsets of physical states
  - If P has N states, then the sensorless problem has up to 2<sup>N</sup> states
- Initial state: typically the set of all physical states in P
- Actions: (assumption: illegal actions have no effects)
  - $Actions(b) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \bigcup_{s \in b} Actions_{P}(s)$  (i.e., must consider all possible actions in all possible states)
- 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<sub>P</sub>(s) holds, ∀s ∈ b (i.e., all possible states must be goal ones)
- Path cost: (assumption: cost of an action the same in all states)
  - $StepCost(a, b) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} StepCost_P(a, s), \forall s \in b$

# Belief-State Problem Formulation [cont.]

Example: Sensorless Vacuum Cleaner, plain and slippery versions

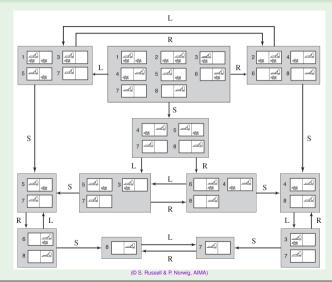
Prediction: Result({1,3}, Right), deterministic (a) and nondeterministic action (b)



## Belief-State Problem Formulation [cont.]

### Example: Sensorless Vacuum Cleaner: Belief State Space

(self-loops are omitted)



46/7

### 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  $Result(b, a) \subseteq Result(b', a)$  (b more informative than b')
- 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 (because he knows it only when all states in the belief state are goal states)

## **Properties**

- An action sequence is a solution for b iff it leads b 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.

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

# Outline

- 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
  - Online Search (aka Exploration)

# 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 (Partial) Perceptions

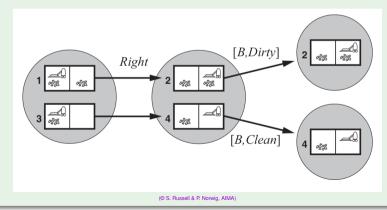
The Prediction-Observation-Update process

- Three steps:
  - Prediction (same as for sensorless): predict the belief state after action a
    - $\hat{b} = \textit{Predict}(b, a) \stackrel{\text{\tiny def}}{=} \textit{Result}_{(\textit{sensorless})}(b, a) = \{s' \mid s' = \textit{Result}_{P}(s, a) \textit{ and } s \in b\}$
  - Observation prediction: determines the set of percepts that could be observed in the predicted belief state: PossiblePercepts(b) <sup>def</sup> {o | o = Percept(s) and s ∈ b̂}
  - 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:
    - $b_o = Update(\hat{b}, o) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{s \mid s \in \hat{b} \text{ and } o = Percept(s)\}$
- $\implies \textit{Result}(b, a) = \left\{ b_o \mid \begin{array}{c} b_o = & \textit{Update}(\textit{Predict}(b, a), o) & \textit{and} \\ o \in & \textit{PossiblePercepts}(\textit{Predict}(b, a)) \end{array} \right\}$ 
  - set (not union!) of belief states, one for each possible percepts o
  - for each  $o, b_o \subseteq \hat{b} \Longrightarrow$  sensing reduces uncertainty!
  - (if sensing is deterministic) the b₀'s are all disjoint (each s belongs to b₀ s.t. o = Percept(s))
     ⇒ each next possible percepts o is used to partition b̂ into a smaller belief state b₀
- → 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

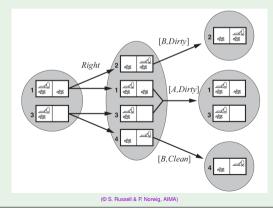
- $\hat{b} = Predict(\{1,3\}, Right) = \{2,4\}$
- $PossiblePercepts(\hat{b}) = \{[B, Dirty], [B, Clean]\}$
- $\textit{Result}(\{1,3\},\textit{Right}) = \{\{2\},\{4\}\}$



# Transition Model with Perceptions: Example

Nondeterministic actions: Slippery local-sensing vacuum cleaner

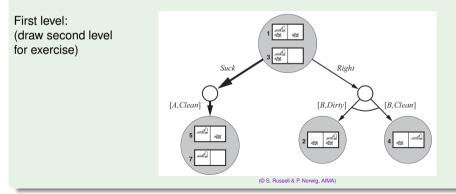
- $\hat{b} = Predict(\{1,3\}, Right) = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$
- $PossiblePercepts(\hat{b}) = \{[B, Dirty], [A, Dirty], [B, Clean]\}$
- $\textit{Result}(\{1,3\},\textit{Right}) = \{\{2\},\{1,3\},\{4\}\}$



# 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

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

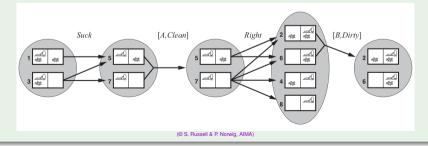
- local sensing  $\implies$  partially observable
- any square may become dirty at any time unless the agent is actively cleaning it at that moment — nondeterministic

#### {5,7}

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

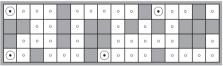
#### {2,4,6,8}

• 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
		0	0		0			0		0		0			
	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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  - Search with No Observations
  - Search with Partial Observations

## Online Search (aka Exploration)

# **Recall: 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  $\implies$  search with no observability or with partial observability
  - release condition 3 —>online search

## 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 ⇒ 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**

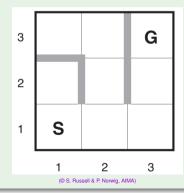
### Working Hypotheses

- 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

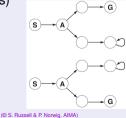
- the agent does not know that going Up from (1,1) leads to (1,2)
- having done that, it does not know that going Down leads to (1,1)
- the agent might know the location of the goal
- it may be able to use the Manhattan-distance heuristic



# **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 a deadend
- Assumption the state space is safely explorable: some goal state is reachable from every reachable state (ex: reversible actions)



# **Online Search Agents**

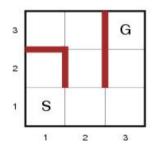
### **Online Search Agents: Basic Ideas**

- 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)

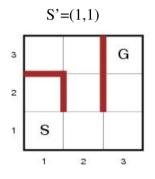
## **Online DFS Search Agents**

```
function ONLINE-DFS-AGENT(problem, s') returns an action
                s, a, the previous state and action, initially null
                result, a table mapping (s, a) to s', initially empty
                untried, a table mapping s to a list of untried actions
                unbacktracked, a table mapping s to a list of states never backtracked to
  if problem.IS-GOAL(s') then return stop
  if s' is a new state (not in untried) then untried[s'] \leftarrow problem.ACTIONS(s')
  if s is not null then // if neither initial nor result of backtracking
       result[s, a] \leftarrow s'
       add s to the front of unbacktracked[s']
                                                          // results[s',b] exists because untried[s'] is empty
  if untried[s'] is empty then //backtrack
       if unbacktracked[s'] is empty then return stop
                                                                               // added in 4th ed. AIMA
       a \leftarrow an action b such that result[s', b] = POP(unbacktracked[s'])s' \leftarrow null
  else a \leftarrow POP(untried[s']) // all actions in actions(s') have been tried
  s \leftarrow s'
```

return a

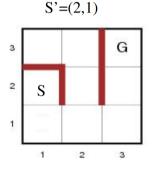


- Assume maze problem on 3x3 grid.
- s' = (1,1) is initial state
- Result, untried, unbacktracked, ... are empty
- S,a are also empty

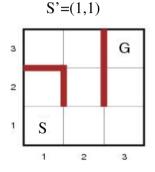


- GOAL-TEST((1,1))?
   S not = G thus false
- (1,1) a new state?
  - True
  - ACTIONS((1,1)) -> untried[(1,1)]
    - {RIGHT,UP}
- s is null?
  - True (initially)
- untried[(1,1)] empty?
  - False
- POP(untried[(1,1)])->a
  - A=UP
- s = (1,1)
- Return a

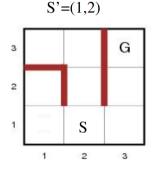
(Courtesy of Tom Lenaerts, IRIDIA)



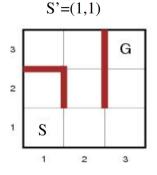
- GOAL-TEST((2,1))?
  - S not = G thus false
- (2,1) a new state?
  - True
  - ACTION((2,1)) -> untried[(2,1)]
    - {DOWN}
- s is null?
  - false (s=(1,1))
  - result[UP, (1,1)] <- (2,1)</p>
  - unbacktracked[(2,1)]={(1,1)}
- untried[(2,1)] empty?
  - False
- A=DOWN, s=(2,1) return A



- GOAL-TEST((1,1))?
   S not = G thus false
- (1,1) a new state?
  - false
- s is null?
  - false (s=(2,1))
  - result[DOWN,(2,1)] <- (1,1)</pre>
  - unbacktracked[(1,1)]={(2,1)}
- untried[(1,1)] empty?
  - False
- A=RIGHT, s=(1,1) return A



- GOAL-TEST((1,2))?
   S not = G thus false
- (1,2) a new state?
  - True, untried[(1,2)]={RIGHT,UP,LEFT}
- s is null?
  - false (s=(1,1))
  - result[RIGHT,(1,1)] <- (1,2)</pre>
  - unbacktracked[(1,2)]={(1,1)}
- untried[(1,2)] empty?
  - False
- A=LEFT, s=(1,2) return A



- GOAL-TEST((1,1))?
   S not = G thus false
- (1,1) a new state?
  - false
- s is null?
  - false (s=(1,2))
  - result[LEFT, (1,2)] <- (1,1)</p>
  - unbacktracked[(1,1)]={(1,2),(2,1)}
- untried[(1,1)] empty?
  - True
  - unbacktracked[(1,1)] empty? False
- A= b for b in result[b,(1,1)]=(1,2)
   B=RIGHT
- A=RIGHT, s=(1,1) ...

### **Online Search Agents: Facts**

- Works only if actions are always reversible
- Worst case: each link  $\langle s, a, s' \rangle$  is visited twice
  - one as exploration (*a* ∈ *untried*[*s*])
  - one as backtracking ( $a \in unbacktracked[s]$ )

### • An agent can go on a long walk even if it is close to the solution

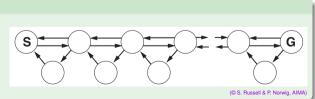
an online iterative deepening approach solves this problem

# **Online 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 an action b in ACTIONS(s') that minimizes LRTA*-COST(s', b, result[s', b], H) s \leftarrow s'
```

return a

```
function LRTA*-COST(s, a, s', H) returns a cost estimate
if s' is undefined then return h(s)
else return c(s, a, s') + H[s']
```

## 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

