Hill Climbing Algorithm in Artificial Intelligence

- Hill climbing algorithm is a local search algorithm which continuously moves in the direction of increasing elevation/value to find the peak of the mountain or best solution to the problem. It terminates when it reaches a peak value where no neighbor has a higher value.
- Hill climbing algorithm is a technique which is used for optimizing the mathematical problems. One of the widely discussed examples of Hill climbing algorithm is Traveling-salesman Problem in which we need to minimize the distance traveled by the salesman.
- It is also called greedy local search .
- A node of hill climbing algorithm has two components which are state and value.
- Hill Climbing is mostly used when a good heuristic is available.
- In this algorithm, we don't need to maintain and handle the search tree or graph as it only keeps a single current state.

Features of Hill Climbing:

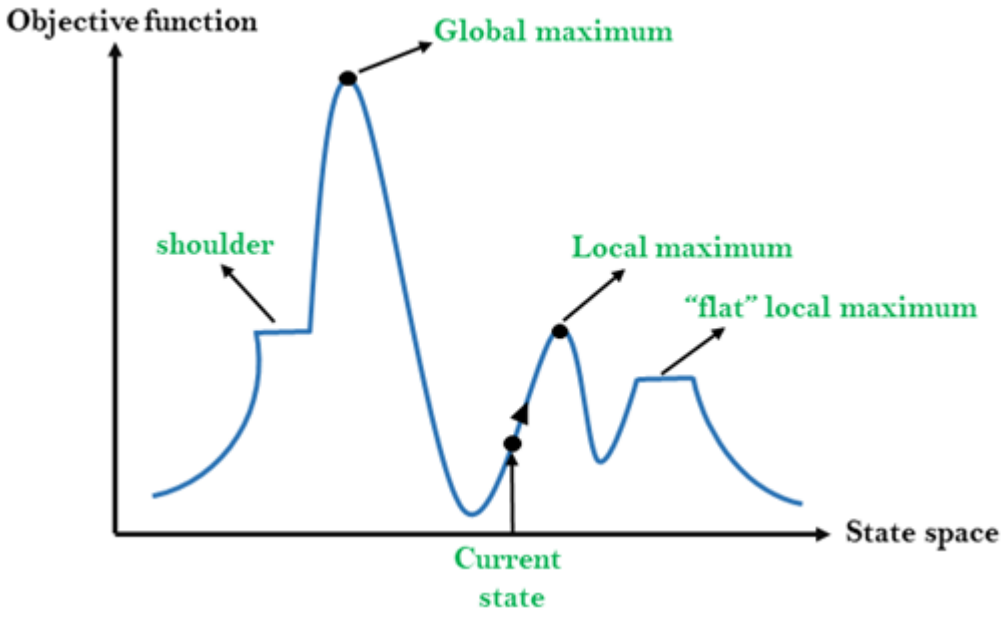
Following are some main features of Hill Climbing Algorithm:

- **Generate and Test variant:** It produce feedback which helps to decide which direction to move in the search space.
- **Greedy approach:** Hill-climbing algorithm search moves in the direction which optimizes the cost.
- **No backtracking:** It does not backtrack the search space, as it does not remember the previous states.

State-space Diagram for Hill Climbing:

The state-space landscape is a graphical representation of the hill-climbing algorithm which is showing a graph between various states of algorithm and Objective function/Cost.

On Y-axis we have taken the function which can be an objective function or cost function, and state-space on the x-axis. If the function on Y-axis is cost then, the goal of search is to find the global minimum and local minimum. If the function of Y-axis is Objective function, then the goal of the search is to find the global maximum and local maximum.



Different regions in the state space landscape:

Local Maximum: Local maximum is a state which is better than its neighbor states, but there is also another state which is higher than it.

Global Maximum: Global maximum is the best possible state of state space landscape. It has the highest value of objective function.

Current state: It is a state in a landscape diagram where an agent is currently present.

Flat local maximum: It is a flat space in the landscape where all the neighbor states of current states have the same value.

Shoulder: It is a plateau region which has an uphill edge.

Types of Hill Climbing Algorithm:

- Simple hill Climbing:
- Steepest-Ascent hill-climbing:
- Stochastic hill Climbing:

1. Simple Hill Climbing:

Simple hill climbing is the simplest way to implement a hill climbing algorithm. **It only evaluates the neighbor node state at a time and selects the first one which optimizes current cost and set it as a current state**. It only checks it's one successor state, and if it finds better than the current state, then move else be in the same state. This algorithm has the following features:

- Less time consuming
- Less optimal solution and the solution is not guaranteed

Algorithm for Simple Hill Climbing:

- **Step 1:** Evaluate the initial state, if it is goal state then return success and Stop.
- **Step 2:** Loop Until a solution is found or there is no new operator left to apply.
- **Step 3:** Select and apply an operator to the current state.
- **Step 4:** Check new state:
    a. If it is goal state, then return success and quit.
    b. Else if it is better than the current state then assign new state as a current state.
    c. Else if not better than the current state, then return to step2.

Step 5: Exit.

2. Steepest-Ascent hill climbing:

The steepest-Ascent algorithm is a variation of simple hill climbing algorithm. This algorithm examines all the neighboring nodes of the current state and selects one neighbor node which is closest to the goal state. This algorithm consumes more time as it searches for multiple neighbors

Algorithm for Steepest-Ascent hill climbing:

- **Step 1:** Evaluate the initial state, if it is goal state then return success and stop, else make current state as initial state.
- **Step 2:** Loop until a solution is found or the current state does not change.
    a. Let SUCC be a state such that any successor of the current state will be better than it.
    b. For each operator that applies to the current state:
        a. Apply the new operator and generate a new state.

b. Evaluate the new state.
c. If it is goal state, then return it and quit, else compare it to the SUCC.
d. If it is better than SUCC, then set new state as SUCC.
e. If the SUCC is better than the current state, then set current state to SUCC.

Step 5: Exit.

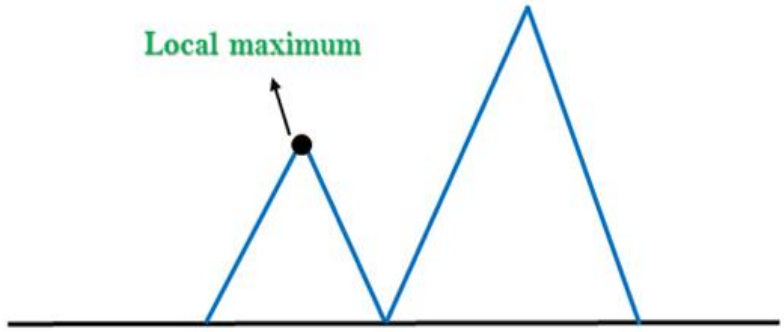
3. Stochastic hill climbing:

Stochastic hill climbing does not examine for all its neighbor before moving. Rather, this search algorithm selects one neighbor node at random and decides whether to choose it as a current state or examine another state.

Problems in Hill Climbing Algorithm:

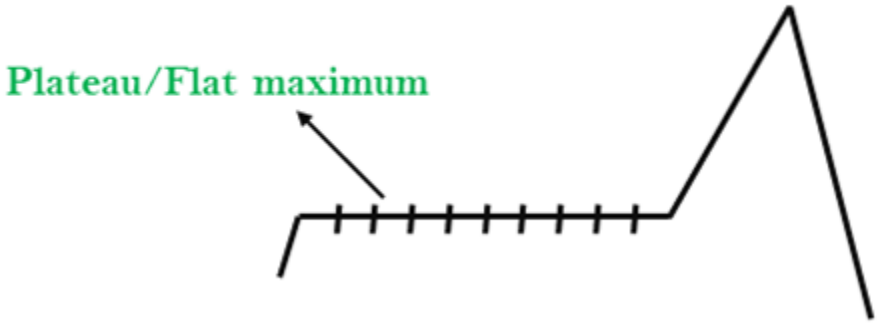
1. Local Maximum: A local maximum is a peak state in the landscape which is better than each of its neighboring states, but there is another state also present which is higher than the local maximum.

Solution: Backtracking technique can be a solution of the local maximum in state space landscape. Create a list of the promising path so that the algorithm can backtrack the search space and explore other paths as well.



2. Plateau: A plateau is the flat area of the search space in which all the neighbor states of the current state contains the same value, because of this algorithm does not find any best direction to move. A hill-climbing search might be lost in the plateau area.

Solution: The solution for the plateau is to take big steps or very little steps while searching, to solve the problem. Randomly select a state which is far away from the current state so it is possible that the algorithm could find non-plateau region.



3. Ridges: A ridge is a special form of the local maximum. It has an area which is higher than its surrounding areas, but itself has a slope, and cannot be reached in a single move.

Solution: With the use of bidirectional search, or by moving in different directions, we can improve this problem.

Simulated Annealing:

A hill-climbing algorithm which never makes a move towards a lower value guaranteed to be incomplete because it can get stuck on a local maximum. And if algorithm applies a random walk, by moving a successor, then it may complete but not efficient. **Simulated Annealing** is an algorithm which yields both efficiency and completeness.

In mechanical term **Annealing** is a process of hardening a metal or glass to a high temperature then cooling gradually, so this allows the metal to reach a low-energy crystalline state. The same process is used in simulated annealing in which the algorithm picks a random move, instead of picking the best move. If the random move improves the state, then it follows the same path. Otherwise, the algorithm follows the path which has a probability of less than 1 or it moves downhill and chooses another path.

Uninformed Search Algorithms

Uninformed search is a class of general-purpose search algorithms which operates in brute force-way. They do not have additional information about state or search space other than how to traverse the tree, so it is also called blind search.

Following are the various types of uninformed search algorithms:

1. Breadth-first Search
2. Depth-first Search
3. Depth-limited Search
4. Iterative deepening depth-first search
5. Uniform cost search
6. Bidirectional Search

1. Breadth-first Search:

- Breadth-first search is the most common search strategy for traversing a tree or graph. This algorithm searches breadth-wise in a tree or graph, so it is called breadth-first search.
- BFS algorithm starts searching from the root node of the tree and expands all successor node at the current level before moving to nodes of next level.
- The BFS is an example of a general-graph search algorithm.
- Breadth-first search implemented using FIFO queue data structure.
- In BFS , shallowest node computed .
- It is complete search and optical search .
- There is no Backtracking in BFS .
- Also we cannot repeat any node while searching.

Advantages:

- BFS will provide a solution if any solution exists.

- If there are more than one solutions for a given problem, then BFS will provide the minimal solution which requires the least number of steps.

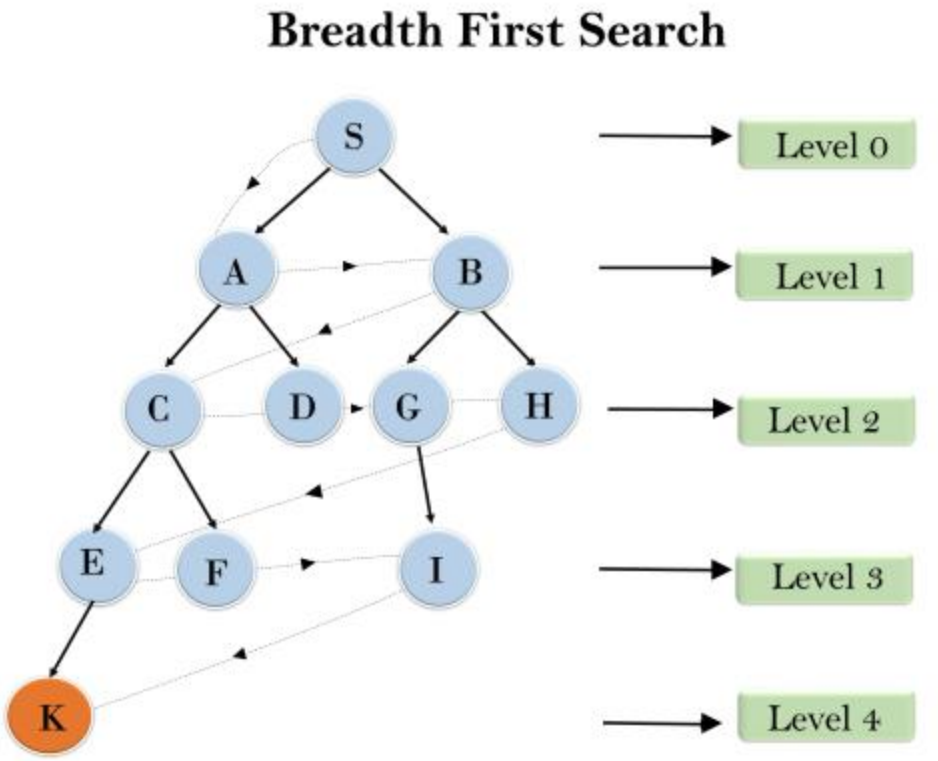
Disadvantages:

- It requires lots of memory since each level of the tree must be saved into memory to expand the next level.
- BFS needs lots of time if the solution is far away from the root node.

Example:

In the below tree structure, we have shown the traversing of the tree using BFS algorithm from the root node S to goal node K. BFS search algorithm traverse in layers, so it will follow the path which is shown by the dotted arrow, and the traversed path will be:

1. S---> A--->B---->C--->D---->G--->H--->E---->F---->I---->K



Time Complexity: Time Complexity of BFS algorithm can be obtained by the number of nodes traversed in BFS until the shallowest Node. Where the d= depth of shallowest solution and b is a node at every state.

$T(b) = 1+b^2+b^3+.....+ b^d= O(b^d)$

Space Complexity: $O(b^d)$.

Completeness: BFS is complete, which means if the shallowest goal node is at some finite depth, then BFS will find a solution.

Optimality: BFS is optimal if path cost is a non-decreasing function of the depth of the node.

2. Depth-first Search

- Depth-first search is a recursive algorithm for traversing a tree or graph data structure.
- It is called the depth-first search because it starts from the root node and follows each path to its greatest depth node before moving to the next path.
- DFS uses a stack data structure for its implementation.
- The process of the DFS algorithm is similar to the BFS algorithm.

> *Note: Backtracking is an algorithm technique for finding all possible solutions using recursion.*

Advantage:

- DFS requires very less memory as it only needs to store a stack of the nodes on the path from root node to the current node.
- It takes less time to reach to the goal node than BFS algorithm (if it traverses in the right path).

Disadvantage:

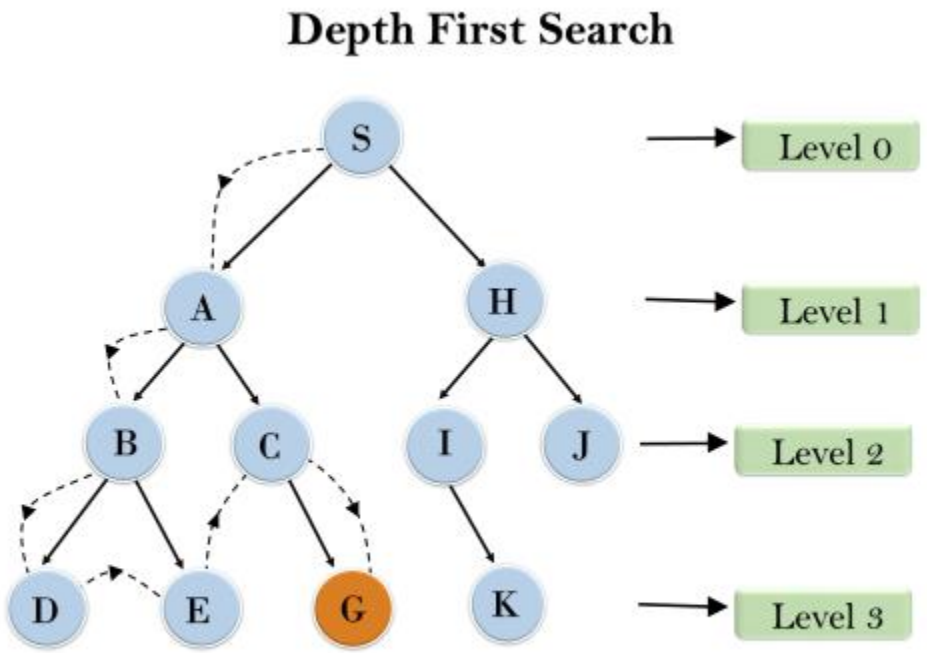
- There is the possibility that many states keep re-occurring, and there is no guarantee of finding the solution.
- DFS algorithm goes for deep down searching and sometime it may go to the infinite loop.

Example:

In the below search tree, we have shown the flow of depth-first search, and it will follow the order as:

Root node--->Left node ----> right node.

It will start searching from root node S, and traverse A, then B, then D and E, after traversing E, it will backtrack the tree as E has no other successor and still goal node is not found. After backtracking it will traverse node C and then G, and here it will terminate as it found goal node.



Completeness: DFS search algorithm is complete within finite state space as it will expand every node within a limited search tree.

Time Complexity: Time complexity of DFS will be equivalent to the node traversed by the algorithm. It is given by:

$T(n)= 1+ n^2+ n^3 +.....+ n^m=O(n^m)$

Where, m= maximum depth of any node and this can be much larger than d (Shallowest solution depth)

Space Complexity: DFS algorithm needs to store only single path from the root node, hence space complexity of DFS is equivalent to the size of the fringe set, which is **O(bm)**.

Optimal: DFS search algorithm is non-optimal, as it may generate a large number of steps or high cost to reach to the goal node.

Informed Search Algorithms

Informed search algorithm contains an array of knowledge such as how far we are from the goal, path cost, how to reach to goal node, etc. This knowledge help agents to explore less to the search space and find more efficiently the goal node.

The informed search algorithm is more useful for large search space.

It uses the idea of heuristic, so it is also called Heuristic search.

Heuristics function: Heuristic is a function which is used in Informed Search, and it finds the most promising path. It takes the current state of the agent as its input and produces the estimation of how close agent is from the goal. The heuristic method, however, might not always give the best solution, but it guaranteed to find a good solution in reasonable time. Heuristic function estimates how close a state is to the goal. It is represented by h(n), and it calculates the cost of an optimal path between the pair of states. The value of the heuristic function is always positive.

Admissibility of the heuristic function is given as:

1. h(n) <= h*(n)

   Here h(n) is heuristic cost, and h*(n) is the estimated cost. Hence heuristic cost should be less than or equal to the estimated cost.

   In the informed search we will discuss two main algorithms which are given below:

   - **Best First Search Algorithm(Greedy search)**
   - **A* Search Algorithm**

   ### 1.) Best-first Search Algorithm (Greedy Search):

   Greedy best-first search algorithm always selects the path which appears best at that moment. It is the combination of depth-first search and breadth-first search algorithms. It uses the heuristic function and search. Best-first search allows us to take the advantages of both algorithms. With the help of best-first search, at each step, we can choose the most promising node. In the best first search algorithm, we expand the node which is closest to the goal node and the closest cost is estimated by heuristic function, i.e.

1. f(n)= g(n).

   Were, h(n)= estimated cost from node n to the goal.

   The greedy best first algorithm is implemented by the priority queue.

   ### Best first search algorithm:

   - **Step 1:** Place the starting node into the OPEN list.
   - **Step 2:** If the OPEN list is empty, Stop and return failure.
   - **Step 3:** Remove the node n, from the OPEN list which has the lowest value of h(n), and places it in the CLOSED list.
   - **Step 4:** Expand the node n, and generate the successors of node n.

- **Step 5:** Check each successor of node n, and find whether any node is a goal node or not. If any successor node is goal node, then return success and terminate the search, else proceed to Step 6.
- **Step 6:** For each successor node, algorithm checks for evaluation function f(n), and then check if the node has been in either OPEN or CLOSED list. If the node has not been in both list, then add it to the OPEN list.
- **Step 7:** Return to Step 2.

Advantages:

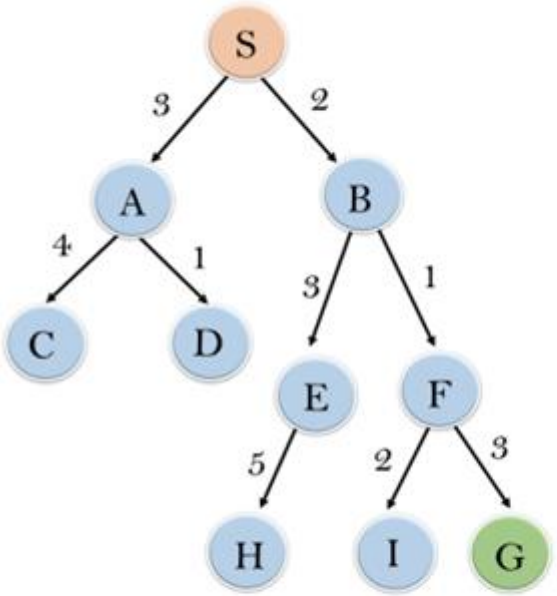
- Best first search can switch between BFS and DFS by gaining the advantages of both the algorithms.
- This algorithm is more efficient than BFS and DFS algorithms.

Disadvantages:

- It can behave as an unguided depth-first search in the worst case scenario.
- It can get stuck in a loop as DFS.
- This algorithm is not optimal.

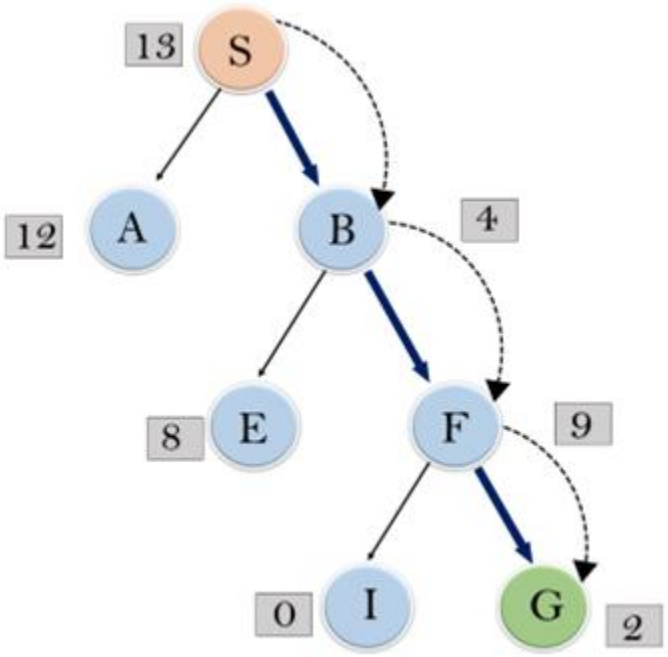
Example:

Consider the below search problem, and we will traverse it using greedy best-first search. At each iteration, each node is expanded using evaluation function f(n)=h(n) , which is given in the below table.



node	H (n)
A	12
B	4
C	7
D	3
E	8
F	2
H	4
I	9
S	13
G	0

In this search example, we are using two lists which are **OPEN** and **CLOSED** Lists. Following are the iteration for traversing the above example.



Expand the nodes of S and put in the CLOSED list

Initialization: Open [A, B], Closed [S]

Iteration 1: Open [A], Closed [S, B]

Iteration 2: Open [E, F, A], Closed [S, B]
: Open [E, A], Closed [S, B, F]

Iteration 3: Open [I, G, E, A], Closed [S, B, F]
: Open [I, E, A], Closed [S, B, F, G]

Hence the final solution path will be: **S----> B----->F----> G**

Time Complexity: The worst case time complexity of Greedy best first search is $O(b^m)$.

Space Complexity: The worst case space complexity of Greedy best first search is $O(b^m)$. Where, m is the maximum depth of the search space.

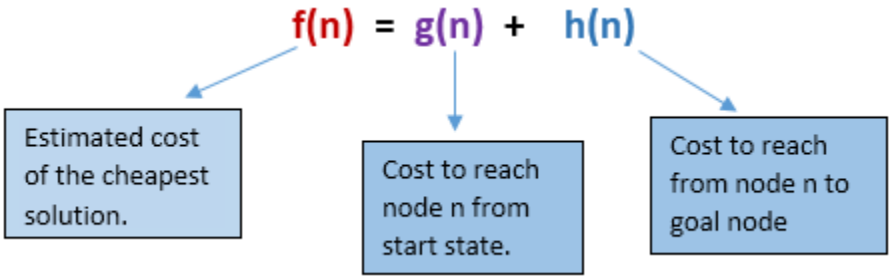
Complete: Greedy best-first search is also incomplete, even if the given state space is finite.

Optimal: Greedy best first search algorithm is not optimal.

2.) A* Search Algorithm:

A* search is the most commonly known form of best-first search. It uses heuristic function h(n), and cost to reach the node n from the start state g(n). It has combined features of UCS and greedy best-first search, by which it solve the problem efficiently. A* search algorithm finds the shortest path through the search space using the heuristic function. This search algorithm expands less search tree and provides optimal result faster. A* algorithm is similar to UCS except that it uses g(n)+h(n) instead of g(n).

In A* search algorithm, we use search heuristic as well as the cost to reach the node. Hence we can combine both costs as following, and this sum is called as a **fitness number**.



> At each point in the search space, only those node is expanded which have the lowest value of f(n), and the algorithm terminates when the goal node is found.

Algorithm of A* search:

Step1: Place the starting node in the OPEN list.

Step 2: Check if the OPEN list is empty or not, if the list is empty then return failure and stops.

Step 3: Select the node from the OPEN list which has the smallest value of evaluation function (g+h), if node n is goal node then return success and stop, otherwise

Step 4: Expand node n and generate all of its successors, and put n into the closed list. For each successor n', check whether n' is already in the OPEN or CLOSED list, if not then compute evaluation function for n' and place into Open list.

Step 5: Else if node n' is already in OPEN and CLOSED, then it should be attached to the back pointer which reflects the lowest g(n') value.

Step 6: Return to **Step 2**.

Advantages:

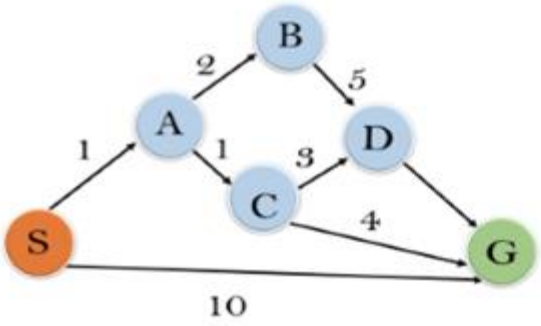
- A* search algorithm is the best algorithm than other search algorithms.
- A* search algorithm is optimal and complete.
- This algorithm can solve very complex problems.

Disadvantages:

- It does not always produce the shortest path as it mostly based on heuristics and approximation.
- A* search algorithm has some complexity issues.
- The main drawback of A* is memory requirement as it keeps all generated nodes in the memory, so it is not practical for various large-scale problems.

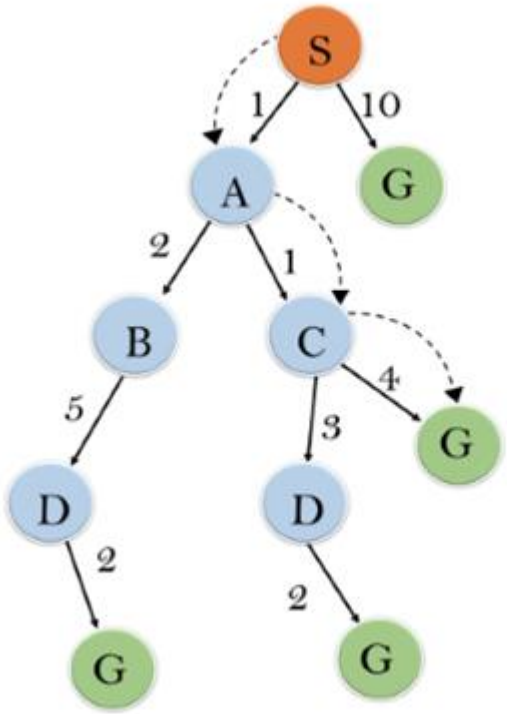
Example:

In this example, we will traverse the given graph using the A* algorithm. The heuristic value of all states is given in the below table so we will calculate the f(n) of each state using the formula f(n)= g(n) + h(n), where g(n) is the cost to reach any node from start state.
Here we will use OPEN and CLOSED list.



State	h(n)
S	5
A	3
B	4
C	2
D	6
G	0

Solution:



Initialization: {(S, 5)}

Iteration1: {(S--> A, 4), (S-->G, 10)}

Iteration2: {(S--> A-->C, 4), (S--> A-->B, 7), (S-->G, 10)}

Iteration3: {(S--> A-->C--->G, 6), (S--> A-->C--->D, 11), (S--> A-->B, 7), (S-->G, 10)}

Iteration 4 will give the final result, as **S--->A--->C--->G** it provides the optimal path with cost 6.

Points to remember:

- A* algorithm returns the path which occurred first, and it does not search for all remaining paths.
- The efficiency of A* algorithm depends on the quality of heuristic.
- A* algorithm expands all nodes which satisfy the condition f(n)<="" li="">

Complete: A* algorithm is complete as long as:

- Branching factor is finite.
- Cost at every action is fixed.

Optimal: A* search algorithm is optimal if it follows below two conditions:

- **Admissible:** the first condition requires for optimality is that h(n) should be an admissible heuristic for A* tree search. An admissible heuristic is optimistic in nature.
- **Consistency:** Second required condition is consistency for only A* graph-search.

If the heuristic function is admissible, then A* tree search will always find the least cost path.

Time Complexity: The time complexity of A* search algorithm depends on heuristic function, and the number of nodes expanded is exponential to the

depth of solution d. So the time complexity is O(b^d), where b is the branching factor.

Space Complexity: The space complexity of A* search algorithm is **O(b^d)**

AO* Search (And-Or) Graph, Advantages and Disadvantages – Artificial Intelligence – Artificial Intelligence

The Depth-first search and Breadth-first search given earlier for OR trees or graphs can be easily adopted by AND-OR graph. The main difference lies in the way termination conditions are determined since all goals following an AND node must be realized; whereas a single goal node following an OR node will do. So for this purpose, we are using AO* algorithm.

Like A* algorithm here we will use two arrays and one heuristic function.

OPEN: It contains the nodes that have been traversed but yet not been marked solvable or unsolvable.
CLOSE: It contains the nodes that have already been processed.
h(n): The distance from the current node to the goal node.

AO* Search Algorithm

Step 1: Place the starting node into OPEN.

Step 2: Compute the most promising solution tree say T0.

Step 3: Select a node n that is both on OPEN and a member of T0. Remove it from OPEN and place it in CLOSE

Step 4: If n is the terminal goal node then leveled n as solved and leveled all the ancestors of n as solved. If the starting node is marked as solved then success and exit.

Step 5: If n is not a solvable node, then mark n as unsolvable. If starting node is marked as unsolvable, then return failure and exit.

Step 6: Expand n. Find all its successors and find their h (n) value, push them into OPEN.

Step 7: Return to Step 2.

Step 8: Exit.

Advantages of AO* Star

- It is an optimal algorithm.
- If traverse according to the ordering of nodes.
- It can be used for both OR and AND graph.

Disadvantages of AO* Star

- Sometimes for unsolvable nodes, it can't find the optimal path.
- Its complexity is than other algorithms.

Mini-Max Algorithm in Artificial Intelligence

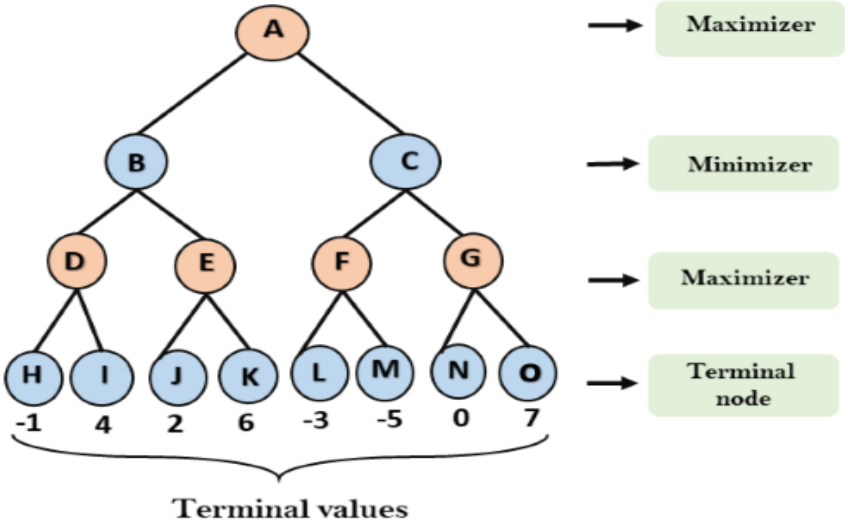
- Mini-max algorithm is a recursive or backtracking algorithm which is used in decision-making and game theory. It provides an optimal move for the player assuming that opponent is also playing optimally.
- Mini-Max algorithm uses recursion to search through the game-tree.
- Min-Max algorithm is mostly used for game playing in AI. Such as Chess, Checkers, tic-tac-toe, go, and various tow-players game. This Algorithm computes the minimax decision for the current state.
- In this algorithm two players play the game, one is called MAX and other is called MIN.
- Both the players fight it as the opponent player gets the minimum benefit while they get the maximum benefit.

- Both Players of the game are opponent of each other, where MAX will select the maximized value and MIN will select the minimized value.
- The minimax algorithm performs a depth-first search algorithm for the exploration of the complete game tree.
- The minimax algorithm proceeds all the way down to the terminal node of the tree, then backtrack the tree as the recursion.

Working of Min-Max Algorithm:

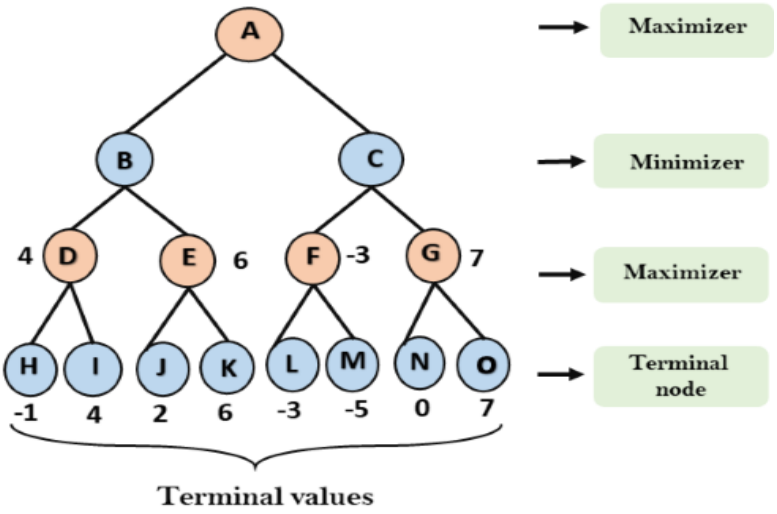
- The working of the minimax algorithm can be easily described using an example. Below we have taken an example of game-tree which is representing the two-player game.
- In this example, there are two players one is called Maximizer and other is called Minimizer.
- Maximizer will try to get the Maximum possible score, and Minimizer will try to get the minimum possible score.
- This algorithm applies DFS, so in this game-tree, we have to go all the way through the leaves to reach the terminal nodes.
- At the terminal node, the terminal values are given so we will compare those value and backtrack the tree until the initial state occurs. Following are the main steps involved in solving the two-player game tree:

Step-1: In the first step, the algorithm generates the entire game-tree and apply the utility function to get the utility values for the terminal states. In the below tree diagram, let's take A is the initial state of the tree. Suppose maximizer takes first turn which has worst-case initial value =- infinity, and minimizer will take next turn which has worst-case initial value = +infinity.



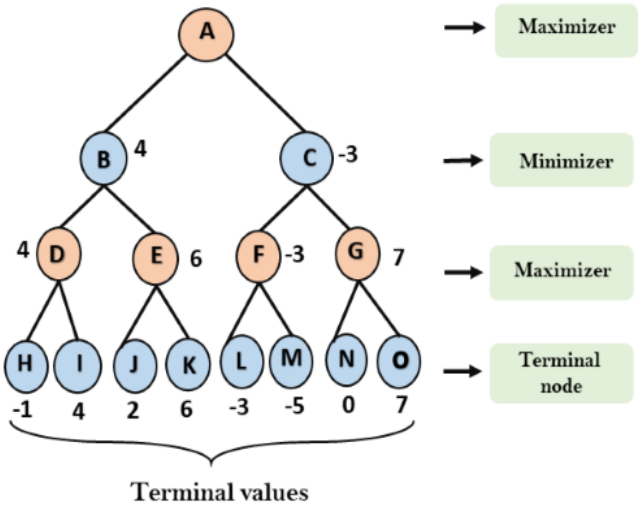
Step 2: Now, first we find the utilities value for the Maximizer, its initial value is -∞, so we will compare each value in terminal state with initial value of Maximizer and determines the higher nodes values. It will find the maximum among the all.

- For node D max(-1,- -∞) => max(-1,4)= 4
- For Node E max(2, -∞) => max(2, 6)= 6
- For Node F max(-3, -∞) => max(-3,-5) = -3
- For node G max(0, -∞) = max(0, 7) = 7



Step 3: In the next step, it's a turn for minimizer, so it will compare all nodes value with +∞, and will find the 3rd layer node values.

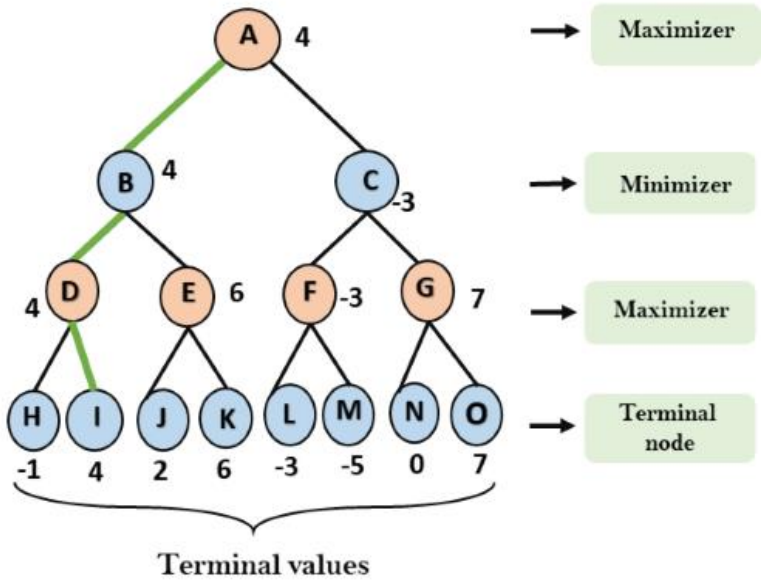
- For node B= min(4,6) = 4
- For node C= min (-3, 7) = -3



Step 4: Now it's a turn for Maximizer, and it will again choose the maximum of all nodes value and find the maximum value for the root node.

In this game tree, there are only 4 layers, hence we reach immediately to the root node, but in real games, there will be more than 4 layers.

- For node A max(4, -3)= 4



That was the complete workflow of the minimax two player game.

Properties of Mini-Max algorithm:

- **Complete-** Min-Max algorithm is Complete. It will definitely find a solution (if exist), in the finite search tree.
- **Optimal-** Min-Max algorithm is optimal if both opponents are playing optimally.
- **Time complexity-** As it performs DFS for the game-tree, so the time complexity of Min-Max algorithm is **$O(b^m)$**, where b is branching factor of the game-tree, and m is the maximum depth of the tree.
- **Space Complexity-** Space complexity of Mini-max algorithm is also similar to DFS which is **O(bm)**.

Limitation of the minimax Algorithm:

The main drawback of the minimax algorithm is that it gets really slow for complex games such as Chess, go, etc. This type of games has a huge branching factor, and the player has lots of choices to decide. This limitation of the minimax algorithm can be improved from **alpha-beta pruning** which we have discussed in the next topic.

Water Jug problem using BFS

You are given an m liter jug and a n liter jug. Both the jugs are initially empty. The jugs don't have markings to allow measuring smaller quantities. You have to use the jugs to measure d liters of water where d is less than n.

(X, Y) corresponds to a state where X refers to the amount of water in Jug1 and Y refers to the amount of water in Jug2
Determine the path from the initial state (xi, yi) to the final state (xf, yf), where (xi, yi) is (0, 0) which indicates both Jugs are initially empty and (xf, yf) indicates a state which could be (0, d) or (d, 0).

The operations you can perform are:

1. Empty a Jug, (X, Y)->(0, Y) Empty Jug 1
2. Fill a Jug, (0, 0)->(X, 0) Fill Jug 1
3. Pour water from one jug to the other until one of the jugs is either empty or full, (X, Y) -> (X-d, Y+d)

Examples:

```
Input : 4 3 2
Output : {(0, 0), (0, 3), (3, 0), (3, 3), (4, 2), (0, 2)}
```

We have discussed the optimal solution in The Two Water Jug Puzzle. In this post, a BFS based solution is discussed.
Here, we keep exploring **all the different valid cases of the states of water in the jug simultaneously** until and unless we reach the required target water.
As provided in the problem statement, at any given state we can do either of the following operations:

1. Fill a jug

2. Empty a jug

3. Transfer water from one jug to another **until either of them gets completely filled or empty.**

Running of the algorithm:

We start at an initial state in the queue where both the jugs are empty. We then continue to explore all the possible intermediate states derived from the current jug state using the operations provided.

We also, maintain a visited matrix of states so that we avoid revisiting the same state of jugs again and again.

Cases	Jug 1	Jug 2	Is Valid
Case 1	Fill it	Empty it	
Case 2	Empty it	Fill it	
Case 3	Fill it	Fill it	Redundant case
Case 4	Empty it	Empty it	Already visited (Initial State)
Case 5	Unchanged	Fill it	
Case 6	Fill it	Unchanged	
Case 7	Unchanged	Empty	
Case 8	Empty	Unchanged	
Case 9	Transfer water from this	Transfer water into this	
Case 10	Transfer water into this	Transfer water from this	

From the table above, we can observe that the state **where both the jugs are filled is redundant** as we won't be able to continue ahead / do anything with this state in any possible way.
So, we proceed, **keeping in mind all the valid state cases** (as shown in the table above) and we do a BFS on them.
In the BFS, we firstly skip the states which was already visited or if the amount of water in either of the jugs exceeded the jug quantity.

If we continue further, then we firstly mark the current state as visited and check if in this state, if we have obtained the target quantity of water in either of the jugs, we can empty the other jug and return the current state's entire path.

But, if we have not yet found the target quantity, we then derive the intermediate states from the current state of jugs i.e. we derive the valid cases, mentioned in the table above (go through the code once if you have some confusion).

We keep repeating all the above steps until we have found our target or there are no more states left to proceed with.

What is rule-based AI?

A system designed to achieve artificial intelligence (AI) via a model solely based on predetermined rules is known as a *rule-based AI system*. The makeup of this simple system comprises a set of human-coded rules that result in pre-defined outcomes. These AI system models are defined by 'if-then' coding statements (i.e. if *X* performs *Y*, then *Z* is the result). Two important elements of rule-based AI models are "a set of rules" and "a set of facts" and by using these, developers can create a basic artificial intelligence model. These systems can be viewed as a more advanced form of robotic process automation (RPA).

What is Knowledge Representation?

Knowledge Representation in AI describes the representation of knowledge. Basically, it is a study of how the **beliefs, intentions**, and **judgments** of an **intelligent agent** can be expressed suitably for automated reasoning. One of the primary purposes of Knowledge Representation includes modeling intelligent behavior for an agent.

Knowledge Representation and Reasoning (**KR, KRR**) represents information from the real world for a computer to understand and then utilize this knowledge to solve **complex real-life problems** like communicating with human beings in natural language. Knowledge representation in AI is not just about storing data in a database, it allows a machine to learn from that knowledge and behave intelligently like a human being.

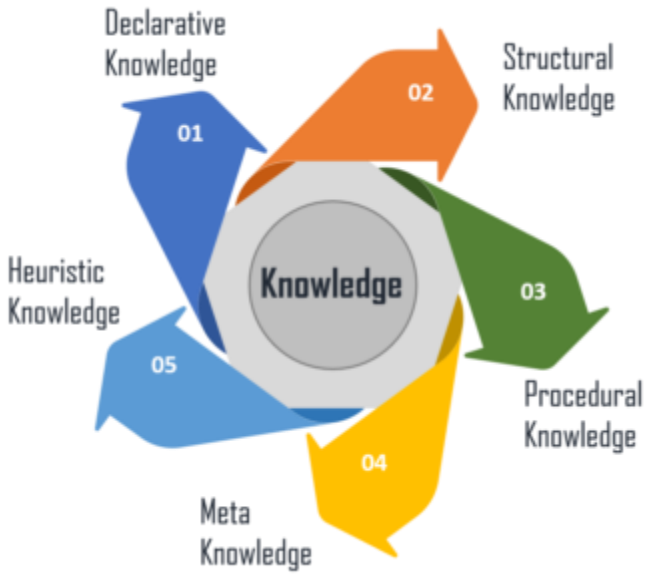
The different kinds of knowledge that need to be represented in AI include:

- **Objects**
- **Events**
- **Performance**
- **Facts**
- **Meta-Knowledge**
- **Knowledge-base**

Now that you know about Knowledge representation in AI, let's move on and know about the different types of Knowledge.

Different Types of Knowledge

There are 5 types of Knowledge such as:



- **Declarative Knowledge** – It includes concepts, facts, and objects and expressed in a declarative sentence.
- **Structural Knowledge** – It is a basic problem-solving knowledge that describes the relationship between concepts and objects.
- **Procedural Knowledge** – This is responsible for knowing how to do something and includes rules, strategies, procedures, etc.
- **Meta Knowledge** – Meta Knowledge defines knowledge about other types of Knowledge.
- **Heuristic Knowledge** – This represents some expert knowledge in the field or subject.

These are the important types of Knowledge Representation in AI. Now, let's have a look at the cycle of knowledge representation and how it works.

Cycle of Knowledge Representation in AI

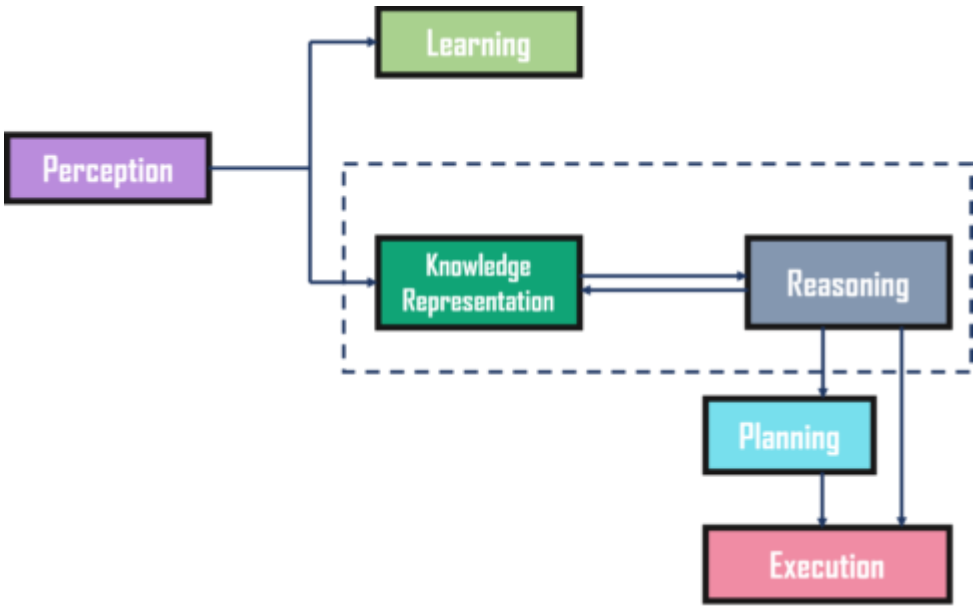
Artificial Intelligent Systems usually consist of various components to display their intelligent behavior. Some of these components include:

- **Perception**
- **Learning**
- **Knowledge Representation & Reasoning**

- **Planning**
- **Execution**

Here is an example to show the different components of the system and how it works:

Example



The above diagram shows the interaction of an AI system with the **real world** and the **components** involved in showing intelligence.

- The **Perception component** retrieves data or information from the environment. with the help of this component, you can retrieve data from the environment, find out the source of noises and check if the AI was damaged by anything. Also, it defines how to respond when any sense has been detected.
- Then, there is the **Learning Component** that learns from the captured data by the perception component. The goal is to build computers that can be taught instead of programming them. Learning focuses on the process of self-improvement. In order to learn new

things, the system requires knowledge acquisition, inference, acquisition of heuristics, faster searches, etc.

- The main component in the cycle is **Knowledge Representation and Reasoning** which shows the human-like intelligence in the machines. Knowledge representation is all about understanding intelligence. Instead of trying to understand or build brains from the bottom up, its goal is to understand and build intelligent behavior from the top-down and focus on what an agent needs to know in order to behave intelligently. Also, it defines how automated reasoning procedures can make this knowledge available as needed.
- The **Planning and Execution** components depend on the analysis of knowledge representation and reasoning. Here, planning includes giving an initial state, finding their preconditions and effects, and a sequence of actions to achieve a state in which a particular goal holds. Now once the planning is completed, the final stage is the execution of the entire process.

So, these are the different components of the cycle of Knowledge Representation in AI. Now, let's understand the relationship between knowledge and intelligence.

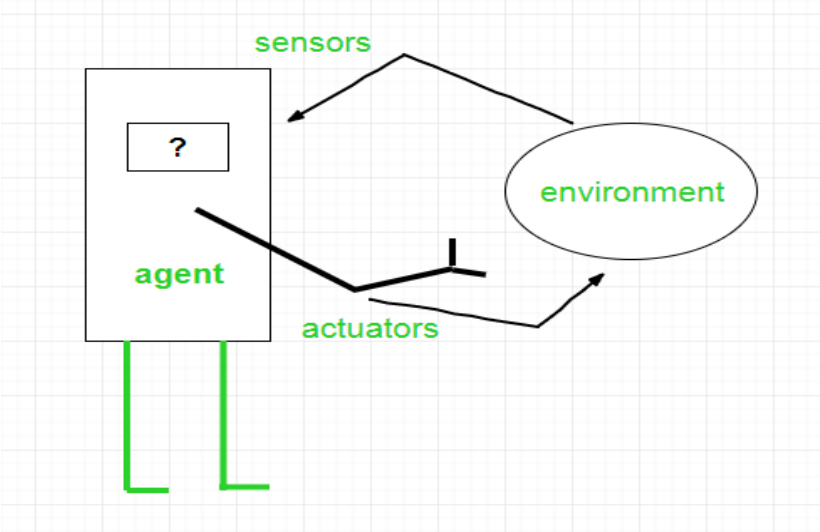
Agents in Artificial Intelligence

Artificial intelligence is defined as the study of rational agents. A rational agent could be anything that makes decisions, as a person, firm, machine, or software. It carries out an action with the best outcome after considering past and current percepts(agent's perceptual inputs at a given instance). An AI system is composed of an **agent and its environment**. The agents act in their environment. The environment may contain other agents.

An agent is anything that can be viewed as :

- perceiving its environment through **sensors** and
- acting upon that environment through **actuators**

Note: Every agent can perceive its own actions (but not always the effects)

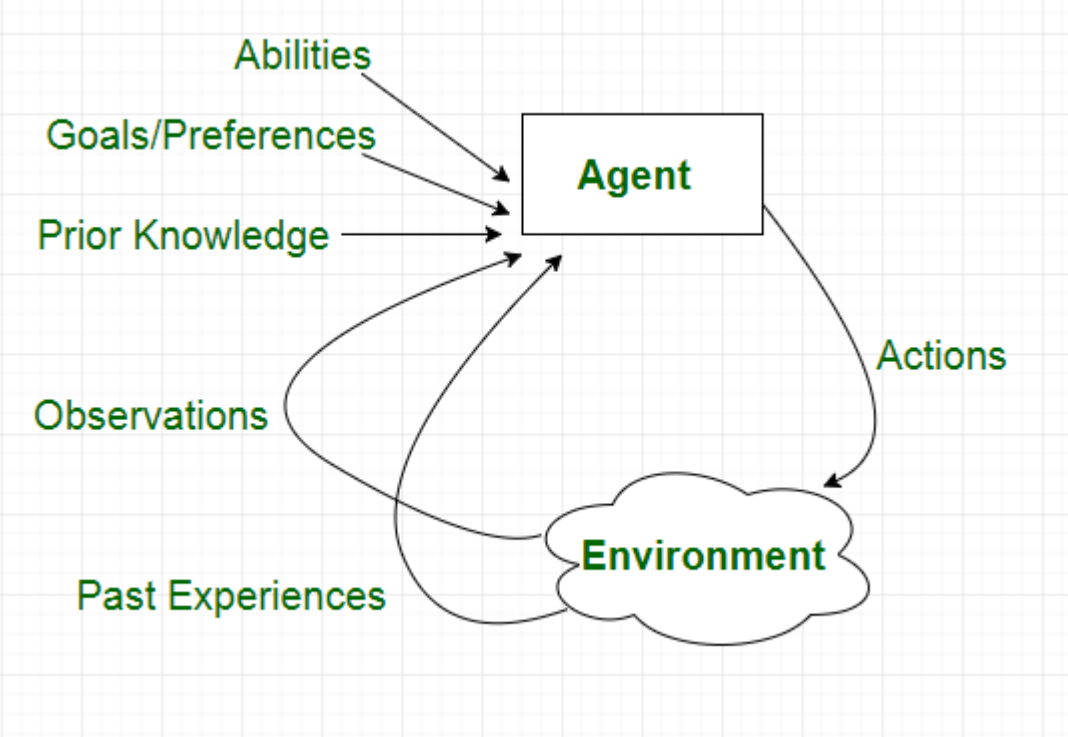


To understand the structure of Intelligent Agents, we should be familiar with *Architecture* and *Agent* programs. **Architecture** is the machinery that the agent executes on. It is a device with sensors and actuators, for example, a robotic car, a camera, a PC. **Agent program** is an implementation of an agent function. An **agent function** is a map from the percept sequence(history of all that an agent has perceived to date) to an action.

Agent = Architecture + Agent Program

Examples of Agent:

- A **software agent** has Keystrokes, file contents, received network packages which act as sensors and displays on the screen, files, sent network packets acting as actuators.
- A Human-agent has eyes, ears, and other organs which act as sensors, and hands, legs, mouth, and other body parts acting as actuators.
- A **Robotic agent** has Cameras and infrared range finders which act as sensors and various motors acting as actuators.



Types of AI Agents

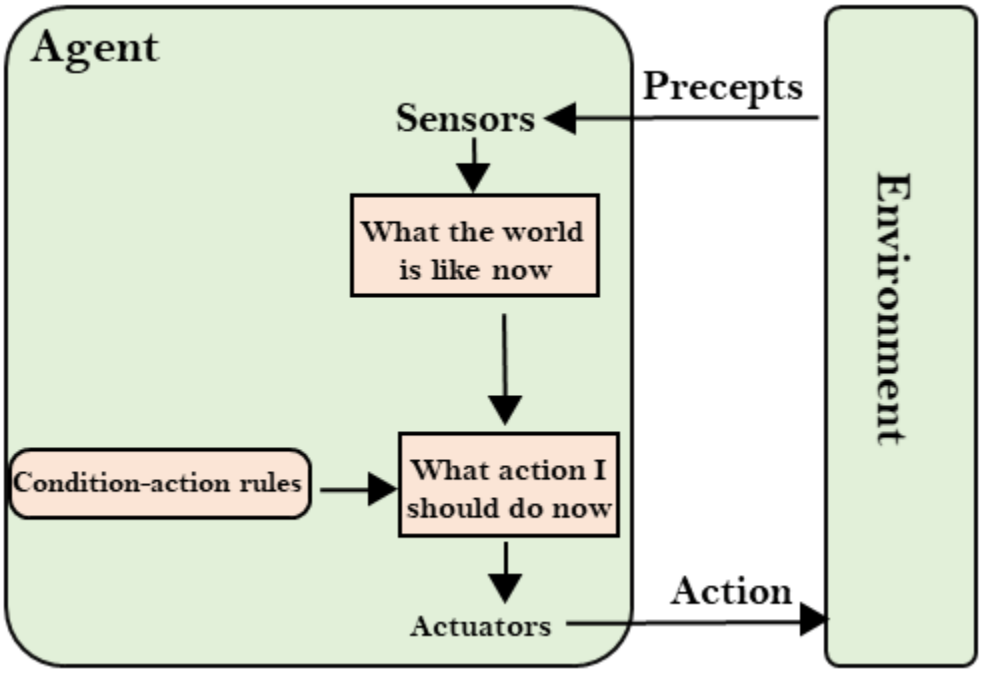
Agents can be grouped into five classes based on their degree of perceived intelligence and capability. All these agents can improve their performance and generate better action over the time. These are given below:

- Simple Reflex Agent
- Model-based reflex agent
- Goal-based agents
- Utility-based agent
- Learning agent

1. Simple Reflex agent:

- The Simple reflex agents are the simplest agents. These agents take decisions on the basis of the current percepts and ignore the rest of the percept history.
- These agents only succeed in the fully observable environment.

- The Simple reflex agent does not consider any part of percepts history during their decision and action process.
- The Simple reflex agent works on Condition-action rule, which means it maps the current state to action. Such as a Room Cleaner agent, it works only if there is dirt in the room.
- Problems for the simple reflex agent design approach:
  - They have very limited intelligence
  - They do not have knowledge of non-perceptual parts of the current state
  - Mostly too big to generate and to store.
  - Not adaptive to changes in the environment.



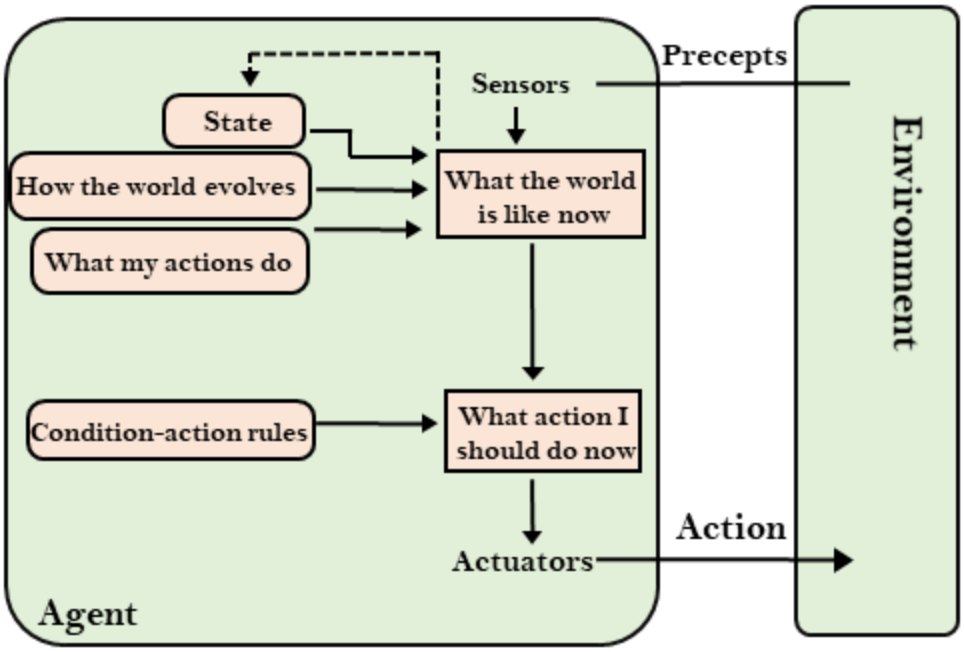
2. Model-based reflex agent

- The Model-based agent can work in a partially observable environment, and track the situation.
- A model-based agent has two important factors:
  - **Model:** It is knowledge about "how things happen in the world," so it is called a Model-based agent.

- **Internal State:** It is a representation of the current state based on percept history.
- These agents have the model, "which is knowledge of the world" and based on the model they perform actions.
- Updating the agent state requires information about:

a. How the world evolves

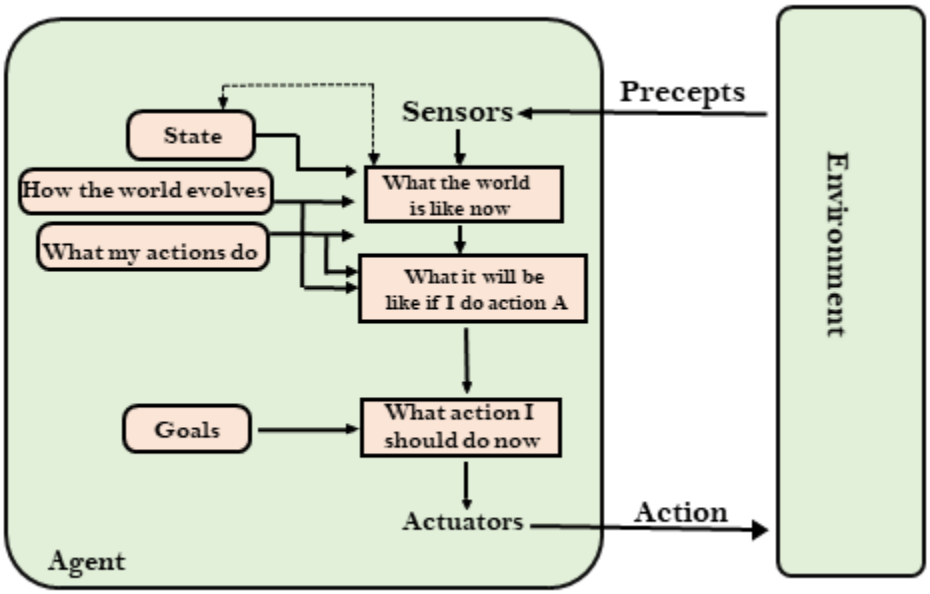
b. How the agent's action affects the world.



3. Goal-based agents

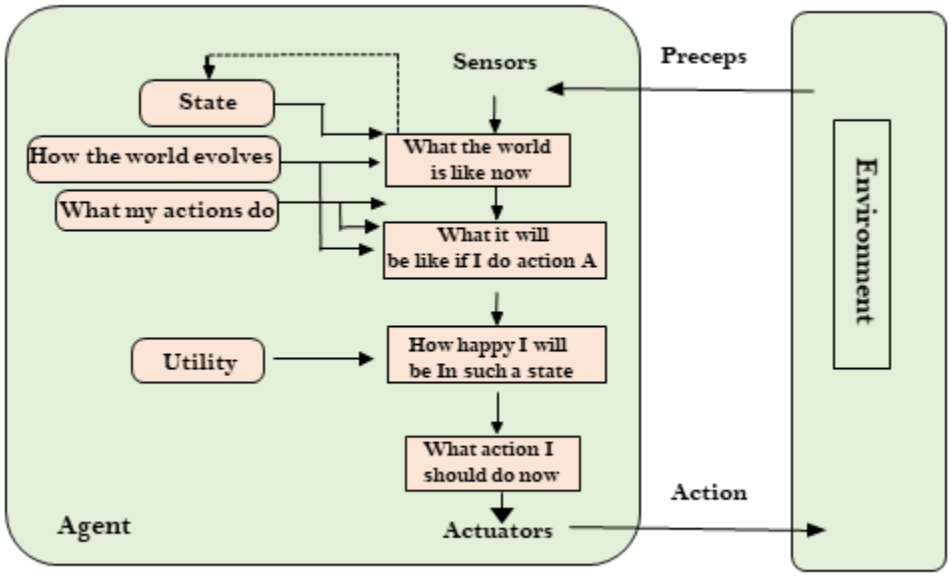
- The knowledge of the current state environment is not always sufficient to decide for an agent to what to do.
- The agent needs to know its goal which describes desirable situations.
- Goal-based agents expand the capabilities of the model-based agent by having the "goal" information.
- They choose an action, so that they can achieve the goal.
- These agents may have to consider a long sequence of possible actions before deciding whether the goal is achieved or not. Such

considerations of different scenario are called searching and planning, which makes an agent proactive.



4. Utility-based agents

- These agents are similar to the goal-based agent but provide an extra component of utility measurement which makes them different by providing a measure of success at a given state.
- Utility-based agent act based not only goals but also the best way to achieve the goal.
- The Utility-based agent is useful when there are multiple possible alternatives, and an agent has to choose in order to perform the best action.
- The utility function maps each state to a real number to check how efficiently each action achieves the goals.



5. Learning Agents

- A learning agent in AI is the type of agent which can learn from its past experiences, or it has learning capabilities.
- It starts to act with basic knowledge and then able to act and adapt automatically through learning.
- A learning agent has mainly four conceptual components, which are:

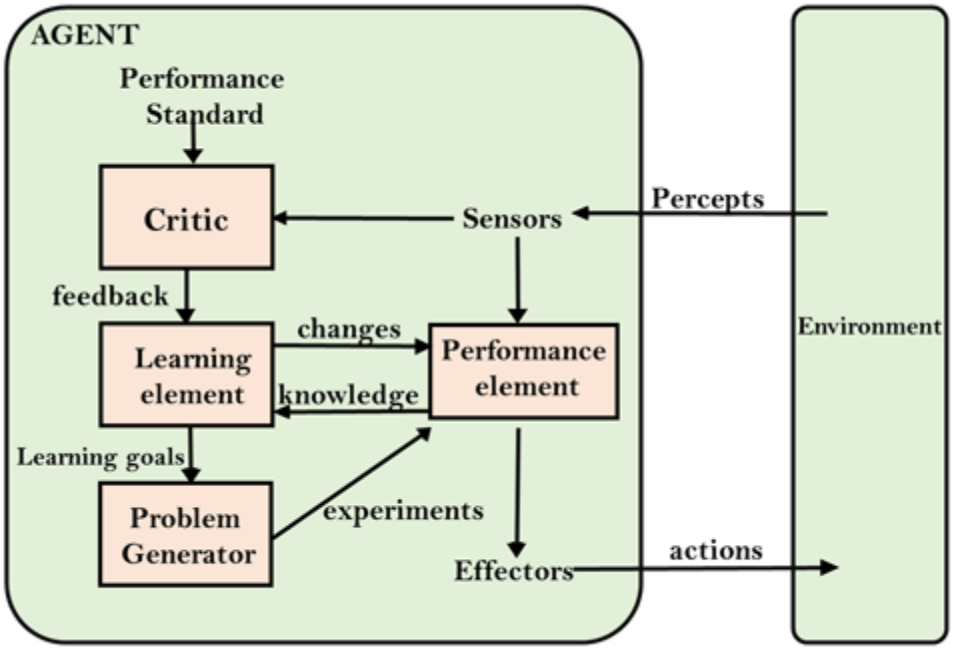
a. **Learning element:** It is responsible for making improvements by learning from environment

b. **Critic:** Learning element takes feedback from critic which describes that how well the agent is doing with respect to a fixed performance standard.

c. **Performance element:** It is responsible for selecting external action

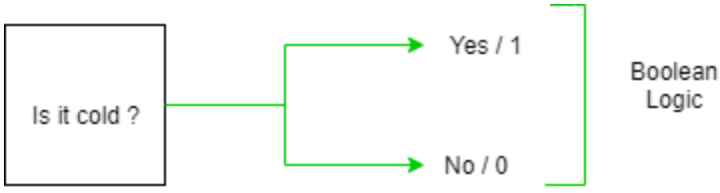
d. **Problem generator:** This component is responsible for suggesting actions that will lead to new and informative experiences.

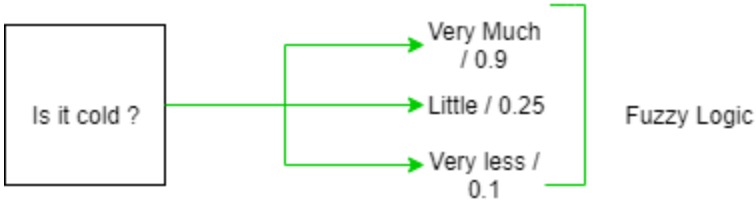
- Hence, learning agents are able to learn, analyze performance, and look for new ways to improve the performance.



Fuzzy Logic | Introduction

The term **fuzzy** refers to things that are not clear or are vague. In the real world many times we encounter a situation when we can't determine whether the state is true or false, their fuzzy logic provides very valuable flexibility for reasoning. In this way, we can consider the inaccuracies and uncertainties of any situation.
In the boolean system truth value, 1.0 represents the absolute truth value and 0.0 represents the absolute false value. But in the fuzzy system, there is no logic for the absolute truth and absolute false value. But in fuzzy logic, there is an intermediate value too present which is partially true and partially false.

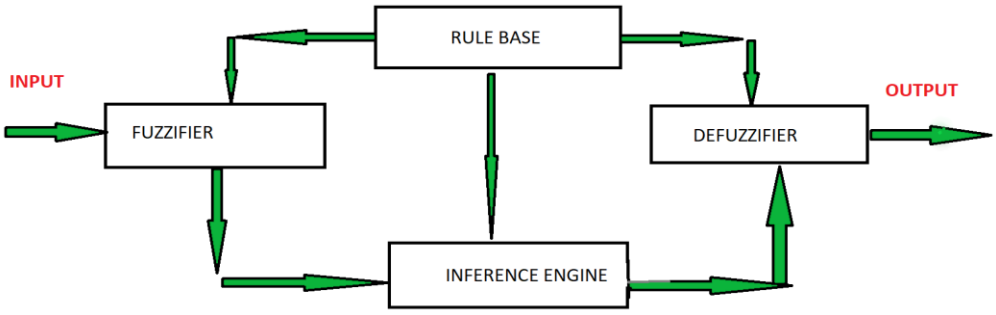




ARCHITECTURE

Its Architecture contains four parts :

- RULE BASE: It contains the set of rules and the IF-THEN conditions provided by the experts to govern the decision-making system, on the basis of linguistic information. Recent developments in fuzzy theory offer several effective methods for the design and tuning of fuzzy controllers. Most of these developments reduce the number of fuzzy rules.
- FUZZIFICATION: It is used to convert inputs i.e. crisp numbers into fuzzy sets. Crisp inputs are basically the exact inputs measured by sensors and passed into the control system for processing, such as temperature, pressure, rpm's, etc.
- INFERENCE ENGINE: It determines the matching degree of the current fuzzy input with respect to each rule and decides which rules are to be fired according to the input field. Next, the fired rules are combined to form the control actions.
- DEFUZZIFICATION: It is used to convert the fuzzy sets obtained by the inference engine into a crisp value. There are several defuzzification methods available and the best-suited one is used with a specific expert system to reduce the error.



FUZZY LOGIC ARCHITECTURE