# **COSC367: Artificial Intelligence**

This course introduces major concepts and algorithms in Artificial Intelligence. Topics include problem solving, reasoning, games, and machine learning.

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## **Artificial Intelligence**

#### **Course Information**

The course covers core topics in AI including:

- · uninformed and informed graph search algorithms,
- propositional logic and forward and backward chaining algorithms,
- · declarative programming with Prolog,
- the min-max and alpha-beta pruning algorithms,
- Bayesian networks and probabilistic inference algorithms,
- classification learning algorithms,
- · consistency algorithms,
- local search and heuristic algorithms such as simulated annealing, and population-based algorithms such as genetic search and swarm optimisation.

#### **Grades**

Standard Computer science policy applies

- Average 50% over all assessment items
- Average at least 45% on all invigilated assessment items

Grading structure for course

- Assignments (5%)
  - Two Super Quiz's
- Quizzes (16.5%)
  - Weekly Quiz Assessments (1.5% ea)
- Lab Test (20%)
- Final Exam (58.5%)

#### **Textbooks / Resources**

- Poole, David L.1958, Mackworth, Alan K; Artificial intelligence: foundations of computational agents; Cambridge University Press, 2010.
- Russell, Stuart J, Norvig, Peter; Artificial intelligence: a modern approach; 3rd ed; Prentice Hall,
   2010.

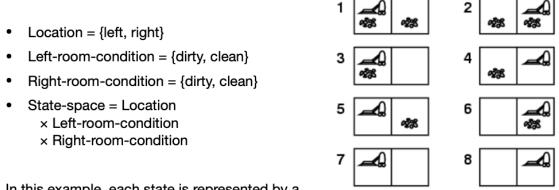
## Readings

#### Lectures

#### **Lecture One: Searching the State Space**

#### What is state?

- A state is a data structure that represents a possible configuration of the world *agent and envi*ronment
- The **state space** is the set of all possible states for that problem
- actions change the state of the world
- Example: A vacuum cleaner agent in two adjacent rooms which can be either clean or dirty.



In this example, each state is represented by a triple (3-tuple).

Figure 1: State space example one

State can also be represented as a graph both directed and undirected

 Example: Suppose the vacuum cleaner agent can take the following actions: L (go left), R (go right), S (suck).

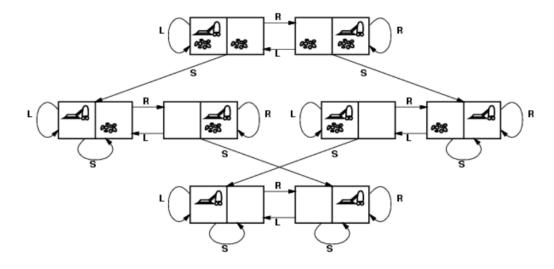


Figure 2: State space graph simplified

- Many problems in AI can be abstracted to the problem of finding a path in a directed graph
- Notation we use is **Nodes** and **arcs** for **vertices** and **edges** in a graph

## **Explicit vs Implicit graphs**

- In **explicit graphs** nodes and arcs are readily available, they are read from the input and stored in a data structure such as an adjacency list/matrix.
  - the entire graph is in memory.
  - the complexity of algorithms are measured in the number of nodes and/or arcs.
- In **implicit graphs** a procedure outgoing\_arcs is defined that given a node, returns a set of directed arcs that connect node to other nodes.
  - The graph is generated as needed *due to the complexity of the graphs*.
  - The complexity is measured in terms of the depth of the goal state node or how far do we have to get into the graph to find a solution.

#### **Explicit graphs in quizzes**

- In some exercises we use small explicit graphs to stydy the behaviour of various frontiers
- · Nodes are specified in a set

- Edges are specified in a list
  - pairs of nodes, or triples of nodes (in a tuple)

#### **Searching graphs**

- We will use generic search algorithms: given a graph, start nodes, and goal nodes, incrementally explore paths from the start nodes.
- Maintain a **frontier** of paths that have been explored
  - frontier: paths that we have already explored
- As search proceeds, the frontier is updated and the graph is explored until a goal node is found.
- The order in which paths are removed and added to the frontier defines the search strategy
- A **search tree** is a tree drawn out of all the possible actions in terms of a tree.
  - How do we handle loops? Covered in next lecture
  - In the search tree outlined below, you can see that the *end of paths on frontier* represents a BFS relationship note this is not always the case.

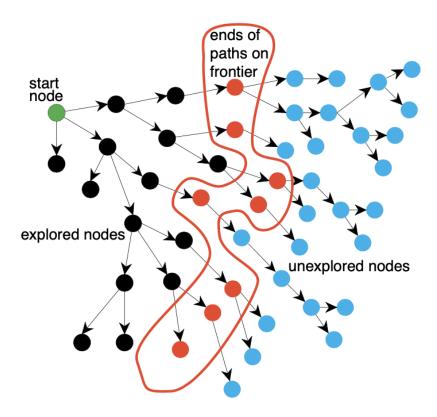


Figure 3: search tree

#### Generic graph search algorithm

```
Input: a graph,
    a set of start nodes,
    Boolean procedure goal(n) that tests if n is a goal node

frontier := \{\langle s \rangle : s \text{ is a start node}\};

while frontier is not empty:

select and remove path \langle n_0, \ldots, n_k \rangle from frontier;

if goal(n_k)

return \langle n_0, \ldots, n_k \rangle;

for every neighbor n of n_k

add \langle n_0, \ldots, n_k, n \rangle to frontier;

end while
```

#### Figure 4: Generic Search

NOTE: you will have to use what ever data structure for the seach you are using (BFS use a queue), (DFS use a stack).

In the generic algorithm, neighbours are going to use the method outgoing\_arcs, we are given this algorithm in the form of a python module.

#### **Depth-first search**

- In order to perform DFS, the generic graph search must be used with a stack frontier LIFO
- If the stack is a python list, where each element is a path, and has the form [..., p, q]
  - q is selected and popped
  - of the algorithm continues then paths that extend q are pushed (appended) to the stack
  - p is only selected when all paths from q have been explored.
- · As a result, at each stage the algorithm expands the deepest path
- The orange nodes in the graph below are considered the frontier nodes

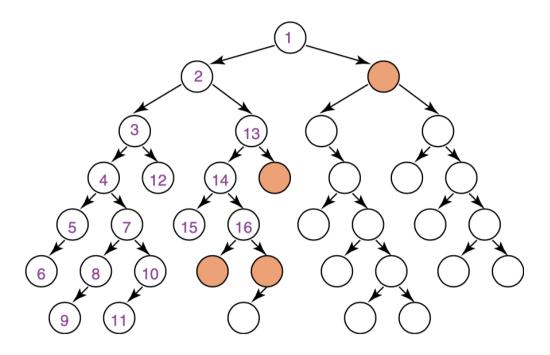


Figure 5: DFS

- DFS does not guarantee a solution without pruning, due to the fact that we can have infinite loops
- It is not guaranteed to complete if it does not use pruning

## A note on complexity

Assume a finite search tree of depth *d* and branching factor of *b*:

- What is the time complexity?
  - It will be exponential:  $O(b^d)$
- What is the space complexity?
  - It will be linear: O(bd)

#### How do we trace the frontier

- starting with an empty frontier we record all the calls to the frontier: to add or get a path we dedicate one line per call
- When we ask the frontier to add a path, we start the line with a + followed by the path that has been added
- When we ask for a path from the frontier we start the line with a followed by the path being removed

- When using a priority queue, the path is followed by a comma and then the key *e.g, cost, heuristic, f-value, ...*
- The lines of the trace should match the following regular expression  $^{-}=1.0$
- We stop when we **remove** a path from the trace

## Given the following graph

```
nodes={a, b, c, d},
edge_list=[(a,b), (a,d), (a, c), (c, d)],
starting_nodes = [a],
goal_nodes = {d}
```

trace the frontier in depth-first search (DFS).

#### Answer:

- + a
- a
- + ab
- + ad
- + ac
- ac
- + acd
- acd

Figure 6: DFS trace using generic algorithm

#### **Breath-first search**

- In order to perform BFS, the generic graph search must be used with a queue frontier FIFO.
- If the queue is a python deque of the form [p,q,...,r], then
  - p is selected (dequeued)
  - if the algorithm continues then paths that extend p are enqueued appended to the queue after r
- As a result, at each state the algorithm expands the shallowest path.

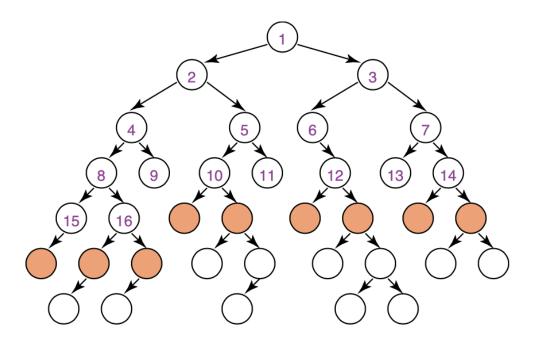


Figure 7: BFS Illustration of search tree

- BFS **does** guarantee to find a solution with the fewest arcs if there is a solution
- It will complete
- It will not halt due to some graphs having cycles, with no pruning

## A note on complexity

BFS has higher complexity than DFS

- What is the time complexity?
  - It will be exponential:  $O(b^d)$
- What is the space complexity?
  - It will be linear:  $O(b^d)$

# Given the following graph

```
nodes={a, b, c, d},
edge_list=[(a,b), (a,d), (a, c), (c, d)],
starting_nodes = [a],
goal_nodes = {d}
```

trace the frontier in breadth-first search (BFS).

#### Answer:

- + a
- a
- + ab
- + ad
- + ac
- ab
- ad

Figure 8: BFS trace using generic algorithm

#### **Lowest-cost-first search**

- The cost of a path is the sum of the costs of its arcs
- This algorithm is very similar to Dijkstra's except modified for larger graphs
- LCFS selects a path on the frontier with the lowest cost
- The frontier is a priority queue ordered by path cost
  - A priority queue is a container in which each element has a priority cost
  - An element with a higher priority is always selected/removed before an element with a lower priority
  - In python we can use the heapq you will need to store objects in a way that these properties
- LCFS finds an optimal solution: a least-cost path to a goal node.
- Another name for this algorithm is uniform-cost search.

NOTE: For an example of this queue, see Lecture One: 1:45 time stamp

# Given the following graph

trace the frontier in lowest-cost-first search (LCFS).

## Answer:

```
+ a, 0

- a, 0

+ ab, 4

+ ac, 2

+ ad, 1

- ad, 1

+ adg, 5

- ac, 2

+ acg, 4

- ab, 4

+ abg, 8

- acg, 4
```

Figure 9: LCFS trace generic

#### **Lecture Two: Searching the State Space (part two)**

#### **Pruning**

- This is our method to deal with cycles and multiple paths.
- this means we can have wasted computation and cycles in our graph

Principle: Do not expand paths to nodes that have already been expanded

#### **Pruning Implementation**

- The frontier keeps track of expanded or closed nodes
- When adding a new path to the frontier, it is only added if another path to the same end-node has not already been expanded, otherwise the new path is discarded (*pruned*)
- When asking for the **next path** to be returned by the frontier, a path is selected and removed but it is returned only if the end-node has not been expanded before, otherwise the path is discarded (pruned) and not returned. The selection and removal is repeated until a path is returned (or the frontier becomes empty). If a path is returned, its end-node will be remembered as an expanded node.

In frontier traces every time a path is pruned, we add an explanation mark! at the end of the line

# **Example: LCFS with pruning**

Trace LCFS with pruning on the following graph:

```
nodes = \{S, A, B, G\},
edge_list=[(S,A,3), (S,B,1), (B,A,1), (A,B,1), (A,G,5)],
starting_nodes = [S],
                                  Answer:
goal nodes = \{G\}.
                                            # expanded={}
                                  + S,0
                                  - S,0
                                            # expanded={S}
                                  + SA,3
                                  + SB,1
                                  - SB,1
                                           # expanded={S,B}
                                  + SBA,2
                                  - SBA,2
                                            # expanded={S,B,A}
                                  + SBAB, 3!
                                             # not added!
                                  + SBAG,7
                                  - SA,3!
                                             # not returned!
                                  - SBAG,7
                                            # expanded={S,B,A,G}
```

Figure 10: Example: LCFS with pruning

#### **How does LCFS behave?**

- LCFS explores increasing cost contours
  - Finds an optimal solution always
  - Explores options in every direction
  - No information about goal location

We are going to use a search heuristic, function h() is an estimate of the cost for the shortest path from node n to a goal node.

- *h* needs to be efficient to compute
- h can be extended to paths:  $h(< n_0, ..., n_k) = h(n_k)$
- h is said to be admissible if and only if:

-  $\forall n \ h(n) \ge 0$ , h is non-negative and  $h(n) \le C$  where C is the optimal cost of getting from n to a goal node

NOTE: We will have to come up with our own heuristic for the assignment as it depends on context.

#### **Best-first Search**

- Idea: select the path whose end is closest to a goal node according to the heuristic function.
- Best-first search is a greedy strategy that selects a path on the frontier with minimal h-value
- Main drawback: this does not guarentee finding an optimal solution.

# Example: tracing best-first search

- Trace the frontier when using the best-first (greedy) search strategy for the following graph.
- The starting node is S and the goal node is G.
- Heuristic values are given next to each node.
- · SA comes before SB.

# 2 A 2 h = 2 B 3 G h = 0

heuristic function

h(S) = 3h(A) = 2

h(B) = 1

h(G) = 0

Answer:

+ S,3

- S, 3

+ SA, 2

+ SB,1

- SB,1

+ SBG, 0

- SBG, 0

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Figure 11: Tracing best-first search

#### A search strategy

#### Properties:

Always finds an optimal solution as long as:

- there is a solution
- there is no pruning
- the heuristic function is admissible
- Does it halt on every graph?

#### Idea:

- Don't be as wasteful as LCFS
- · Don't be as greedy as best-first search
- Estimate the cost of paths as if they could be extended to reach a goal in the best possible way.

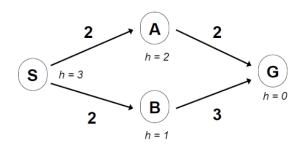
Evaluation function: f(p) = cost(p) + h(n)

- p is a path, n is the last node on p
- cost(p) = cost of path p this is the actual cost from the starting node to node n
- h(n) = an estimate of the cost from n to goal node
- f(p) = estimated total cost of path through p to goal node

The frontier is a priority queue ordered by f(p)

# Example: tracing A\* search

- Trace the frontier when using the A\* search strategy for the following graph.
- The starting node is S and the goal node is G.
- · Heuristic values are given next to each node.
- · SA comes before SB.



**Note:** This small example only show the inner working of A\*. It does not demonstrate its advantage over LCFS.

heuristic function h(S) = 3

h(A) = 2

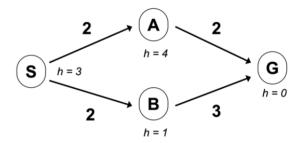
h(B) = 1

h(G) = 0

#### Answer:

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 Same example as the one before just assume h(A) = 4 instead.



heuristic function

h(S) = 3

h(A) = 4

h(B) = 1h(G) = 0

#### Answer:

Non-optimal solution! Why?

# A\*: proof of optimality

When using  $A^*$  (without pruning) the first path p from a starting node to a goal node that is selected and removed from the frontier has the lowest cost.

#### Sketch of proof:

- Suppose to the contrary that there is another path from one of the starting nodes to a goal node with a lower cost.
- There must be a path p' on the frontier such that one of its continuations leads to the goal with a lower overall cost than p.
- Since p was removed before p':

$$f(p) \le f(p') \implies cost(p) + h(p) \le cost(p') + h(p') \implies cost(p) \le cost(p') + h(p')$$

• Let c be any continuation of p' that goes to a goal node; that is, we have a path p'c from a start node to a goal node. Since h is admissible, we have:

$$cost(p'c) = cost(p') + cost(c) \ge cost(p') + h(p')$$

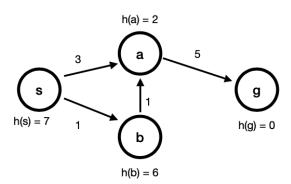
· Thus:

$$cost(p) \le cost(p') + h(p') \le cost(p') + cost(c) = cost(p'c)$$

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# Effect of pruning on A\*

Trace the frontier in A\* search for the following graph, with and without pruning.



## Answer without pruning

# + S, 7 - S, 7 + SA, 5 + SB, 7 - SA, 5 + SAG, 8 - SB, 7 + SBA, 4 - SBA, 4 + SBAG, 7 - SBAG, 7

#### Answer with pruning

```
# expanded={}
+ S, 7
- S, 7  # expanded={S}
+ SA, 5
+ SB, 7
- SA, 5  # expanded={S,A}
+ SAG, 8
- SB, 7  # expanded={S,A,B}
+ SBA, 4!
- SAG, 8  Non-optimal solution!
```

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## What went wrong when pruning $A^*$ Search

- An expensive path, sa was expanded before a cheaper path sba could be discovered, because f(sa) < f(sb)
- Is the heuristic function h admissible?
  - Yes
- So what can we do?
  - We need a stronger condition than admissibility to stop this from happening

Principle: When we are removing nodes, we are essentially saying we have found a cheaper solution, in this case, this was not true and hence why the algorithm fails, we need to use a stronger condition as outlined below

#### Monotonicity

A heuristic function is monotone or consistent if for every two nodes n and n' which is reachable from n:

$$h(n) \le cost(n, n') + h(n')$$

With the monotone restriction, we have:

$$f(n') = cost(s, n') + h(n')$$

$$= cost(s, n) + cost(n, n') + h(n')$$

$$\geq cost(s, n) + h(n)$$

$$\geq f(n)$$

How about using the actual cost as a heuristic?

- Would it be a valid heuristic?
- Would we save on nodes expanded?
- What's wrong with it?
  - It becomes as computationally expensive as it is to just do the problem

Choosing a heuristic: a trade-off between quality of estimate and work per node!

# **Dominance relation**

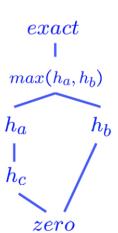
Dominance: h<sub>a</sub> ≥ h<sub>c</sub> if

$$\forall n: h_a(n) \geq h_c(n)$$

- Heuristics form a semi-lattice:
  - Max of admissible heuristics is admissible

$$h(n) = max(h_a(n), h_b(n))$$

- Trivial heuristics
  - Bottom of lattice is the zero heuristic (what does this give us?)
  - Top of lattice is the exact heuristic



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Figure 12: Dominance Relation