

Search

- Search Space
- Uninformed Search
- Informed Search
- Local Search and Optimization
- Online Search and Unknown Environments

Search

- Search permeates ALL of AI.
 - Which choices do we make?
 - Problem solving (15 puzzle)
Move 1, then move 3, then move 2, then move 2, ...
 - Natural language
Ways to map words to parts of speech
 - Computer vision
Ways to map features with object model
 - Machine learning
Possible concepts that fit examples seen so far
 - Motion planning
Sequence of moves to reach goal destination
- In **search**, an intelligent agent attempts to find a set or sequence of **actions** that will achieve a **goal** given a set of **initial states**, a goal that can be in one or more states.
- Each **state** is distinguished by the value of predicates that make up the state description.

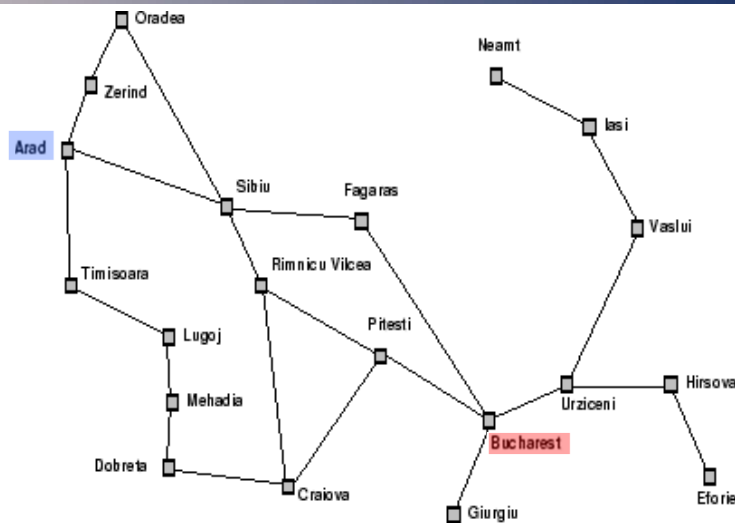
Problem-Solving Agent

```
SimpleProblemSolvingAgent(percept)
  state = UpdateState(state, percept)
  if sequence is empty then
    goal = FormulateGoal(state)
    problem = FormulateProblem(state, g)
    sequence = Search(problem)
    if sequence = FAIL the return NULL
  action = First(sequence)
  sequence = Rest(sequence)
  return action
```

Example

- On holiday in Romania, currently in Arad. Must reach Bucharest tomorrow.
 - **Formulate goal:** Be in Bucharest
 - **Formulate problem:** states are cities, operators are to drive between the pairs of cities
 - **Find solution:** find the sequence of cities (e.g., Arad, Sibiu, Fagaras, Bucharest) that leads from current state to a state meeting the goal condition

Search Space



Search Space Terminology

- **World State (state)**
A description of a possible state of the world (includes all features of the world that are pertinent to the problem)
- **Initial State**
A description of all pertinent aspects of the world state in which the agent starts the search
- **Goal (Goal Condition)**
Conditions the agent is trying to meet
(Have \$1,000,000)
- **Goal State**
Any world state which meets the goal conditions
(Thursday, have \$1,000,000, live in NYC)
(Friday, have \$1,000,000, live in Valparaiso)
- **Action**
Function that transitions from one state to another

Search Space Terminology (2)

- Problem Formulation
 - Describe a general problem as a search problem
- Solution
 - Sequence of actions that transitions the agent from the initial state to a goal state
- Solution Cost (additive)
 - Sum of distances, number of operators, cost of operators, etc.
- Search
 - The process of looking for a solution
- Search algorithm - algorithm that takes problem as input and returns solution
 - We are searching through a space of possible world states
- Execution
 - Process of executing sequence of actions that comprises problem solution

Agent's Process

- 3 main steps
 1. Formulate
 2. Search
 3. Execute

Problem Formulation

- A single-state search problem is defined by the
 - Initial state (e.g., Arad)
 - Operators (Arad → Zerind, Arad → Sibiu, etc.)
 - Goal test (e.g., at Bucharest)
 - Solution cost (path cost)

Eight Puzzle Problem

5	4	
6	1	8
7	3	2

Start State

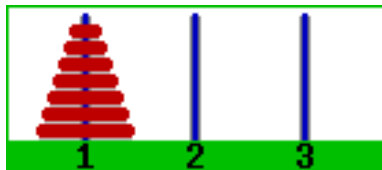
1	2	3
8		4
7	6	5

Goal State

- What is the problem formulation?
- States:
- Actions:
- Goal test:
- Path cost:

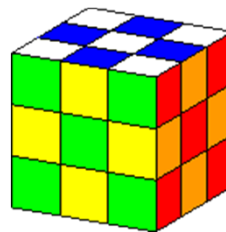
Towers of Hanoi Problem

- States: combinations of poles and disks
- Operators: move disk x from pole y to pole z subject to constraints
- Goal test: disks from smallest to largest on goal pole
- Path cost: 1 per move



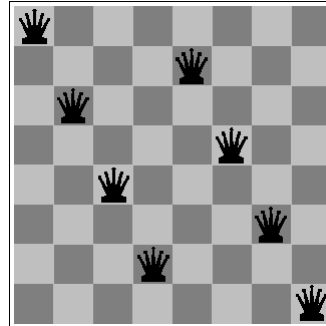
Rubik's Cube

- States: list of colors for each cell on each face
- Operators: rotate row x or column y on face z
- Goal: Each face has all one color
- Path Cost: 1 per twist
- http://www.math.umass.edu/~mreid/Rubik/optimal_solver.html



Eight Queens Problem

- States: locations of 8 queens on chess board
- Operators: move queen x to row y and column z
- Goal: no queen can attack another
- Path Cost: 1 per move



Sample Search Problems

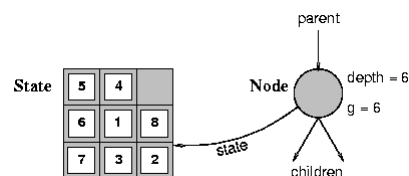
- Graph coloring problem
- Protein folding problem
- Game playing
- Airline travel
- Proving algebraic equalities
- Robot motion planning

Agent's Process

- 3 main steps
 1. Formulate
 2. Search
 3. Execute

View Search Space as a Tree

- States are nodes
- Actions are arcs
- Initial state is root
- Solution is path from root to goal node
- Arcs sometimes have associated costs
- Possible resulting states are children of a node

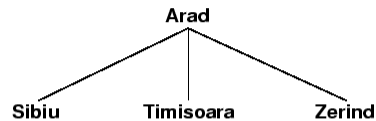


General Search Example

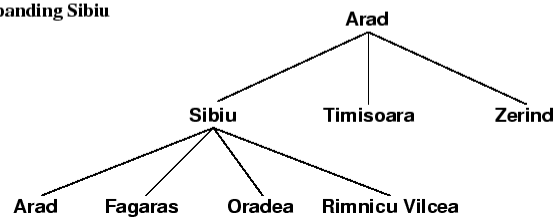
(a) The initial state

Arad

(b) After expanding Arad



(c) After expanding Sibiu



Search Strategies

- Search strategies differ in queuing-function portion of algorithm
- Performance issues to keep in mind
 - Completeness (always find solution)
 - Cost of search (time and space)
 - Cost of solution, optimal solution
 - Make use of knowledge of the domain “blind search” vs. “informed search”

Generic Search Function

```
SEARCH (initial){
  open_list.offer(initial);           // Put initial node into open

  while (!done){
    state= open_list.poll();          // Pull node off of queue/stack

    if (GoalCheck(board) || state == NULL) // Determine if at bottom or
      done = true;                     // goal found

    possible_moves = genMoves(state);  // Get moves for this node

    for each (move ∈ possible_moves) { // Expand moves from this node
      new_state = makeMove(move);      // Generate child
      open_list.offer(new_state);      // Put new state into open list
    }

    return state; // this will be goal or NULL for no goal found
  }
}
```

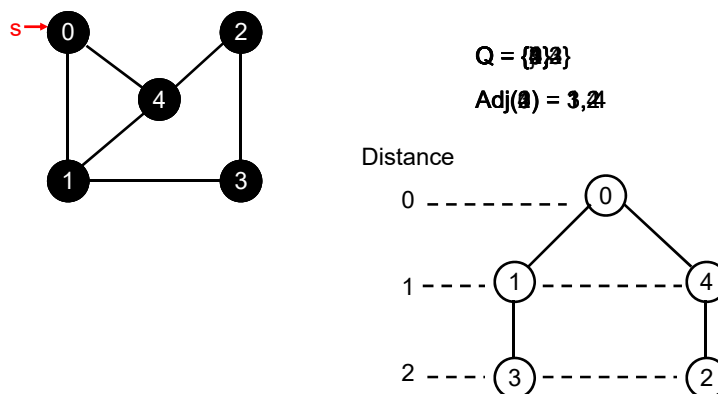
Uninformed Search Techniques

- Breadth-First Search (BFS)
- Depth-First Search (DFS)
- Uniform Cost Search (UCS)
- Iterative Deepening Search (IDS)

Breadth-First Search

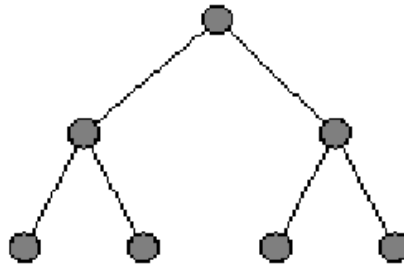
- Queuing-function is enqueue-at-end
- Generate all children of a state, add the children to the end of the queue
 - Net effect is all nodes at one level are expanded before any nodes at the next level
- Level-by-level search
- Order in which children are inserted is arbitrary (4 children, which is first?)
- In tree, assume children are considered left-to-right unless ordered
- Number of children is “branching factor” b

BFS Example

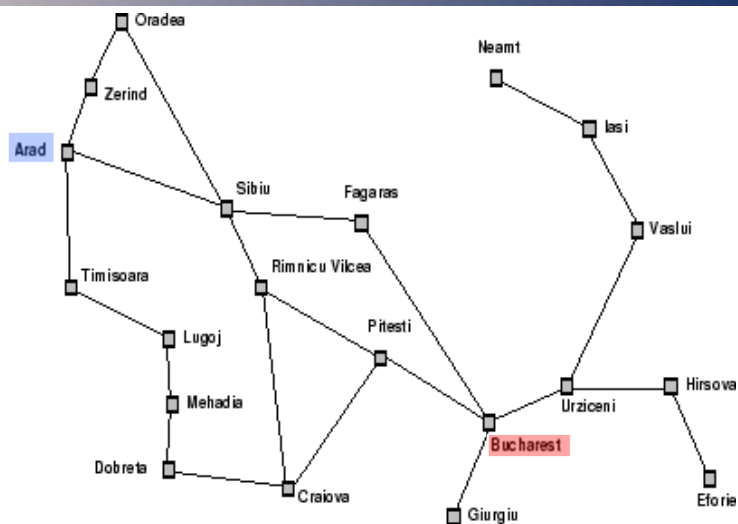


Examples

- Breadth-first expansion of search tree with a branching factor of 2



Search Space



Analysis

- Assume the solution is at level d and branching factor is b
- *NOTE: For BFS, we perform a goal check when generating the children*
- Time complexity: (number of nodes considered)
 - 1 (1st level) + b (2nd level) + b^2 (3rd level) + ... + b^d (solution level) = $O(b^d)$
 - This assumes solution is on the far right of the solution level, and a constant branching factor b .
- Space complexity:
 - At most all nodes at $d-1$ level + majority of nodes at d level = $O(b^{d-1} + b^d) = O(b^d)$
- This means exponential time and space
- Benefits
 - Simple to encode
 - Always finds a solution if one exists (reach any point in space in finite time)
 - Least-LENGTH solution - not necessarily least-cost solution, unless all operators (actions) have equal cost

Analysis

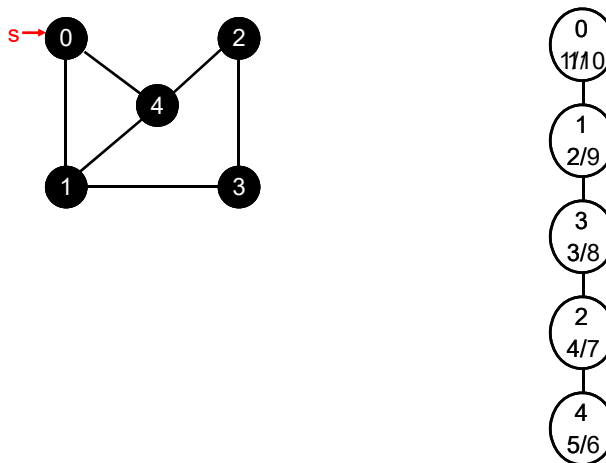
Depth	Nodes	Time	Memory
0	1	1 ms	100 bytes
2	100	.1 s	11 Kb
4	10,000	11 s	1 Mb
6	10^6	18 m	111 Mb
8	10^8	31 hours	11 Gb
10	10^{10}	128 days	1 Terrabyte
12	10^{12}	35 years	111 Terrabytes
14	10^{14}	3500 years	11,111 Terrabytes

$b = 10$

Depth-First Search

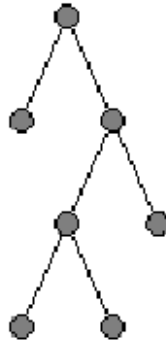
- Queueing-function is enqueue-at-front
- BFS uses FIFO queue, DFS uses LIFO stack
- Net effect is to follow leftmost path to the bottom, then incrementally backtrack

DFS Example

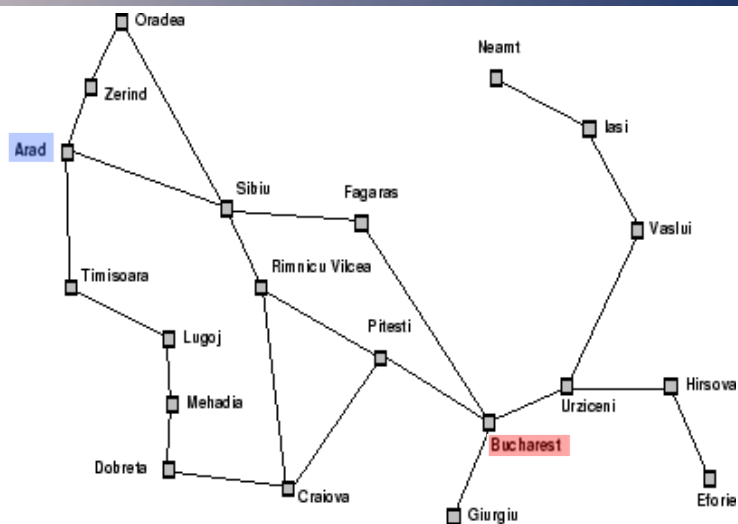


Examples

- Depth-first expansion of search tree with a branching factor of 2



Search Space

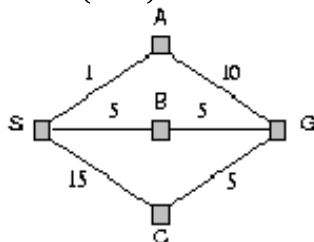


Analysis

- Time complexity:
 - In the worst case, have to search entire search space
Solution may be at level d , but tree may go to level m , $m \geq d$, so run time is $O(b^m)$
 - Particularly bad if tree is infinitely deep
- Space complexity:
 - Only have to save 1 set of children at each level
 $1+b+b+\dots+b(m \text{ levels total}) = O(bm)$
- May not always find solution
- Solution found is not always least-length or least-cost
- Benefits
 - If many solutions, can find one quickly (quickly moves to depth d)
 - Simple to implement
 - Space usually bigger constraint than time, so more usable than BFS for large problems

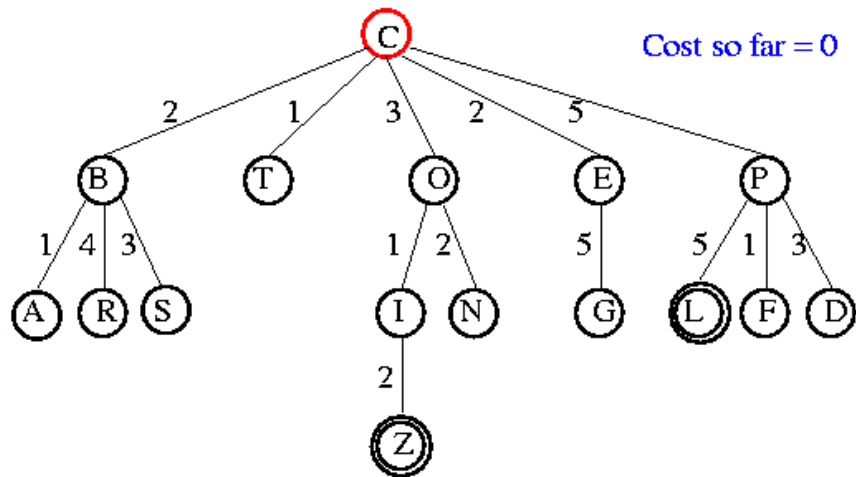
Uniform Cost Search (Branch and Bound Search)

- Queueing-function is sort-by-cost-so-far or sort-by- g
- Cost from root node to current node n is $g(n)$, which adds up individual action costs along path from root to n
- Because cheapest path length is always picked until solution is reached, first solution found is least-cost (optimal) solution
- Space and time complexities can be as much as $O(b^m)$, depending on the nature of the plan costs $\theta(b^{1+\lceil C^*/\epsilon \rceil})$ where C^* is the optimal cost and ϵ is the average action cost.
- If $\epsilon = 1$ then we have BFS, except with the goal check on pop end with $O(b^{d+1})$

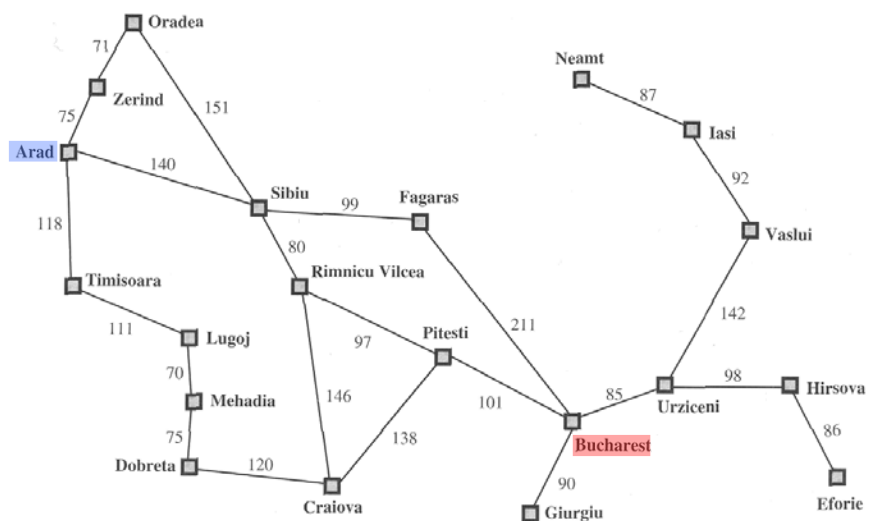


S ●

UCS Example



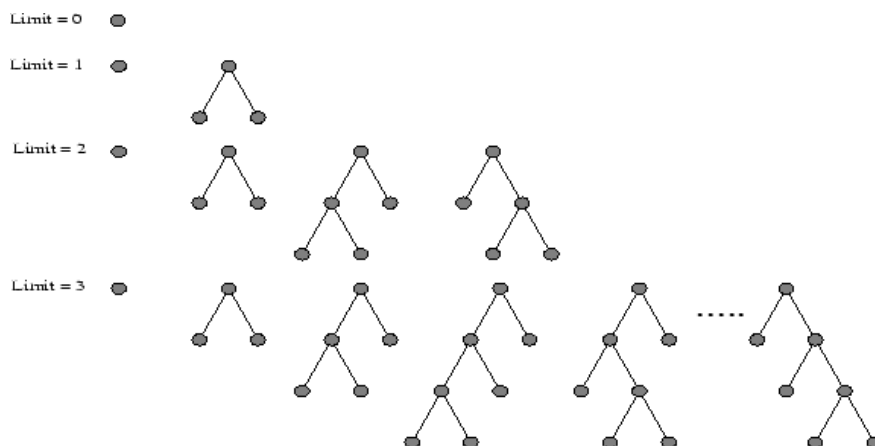
Search Space



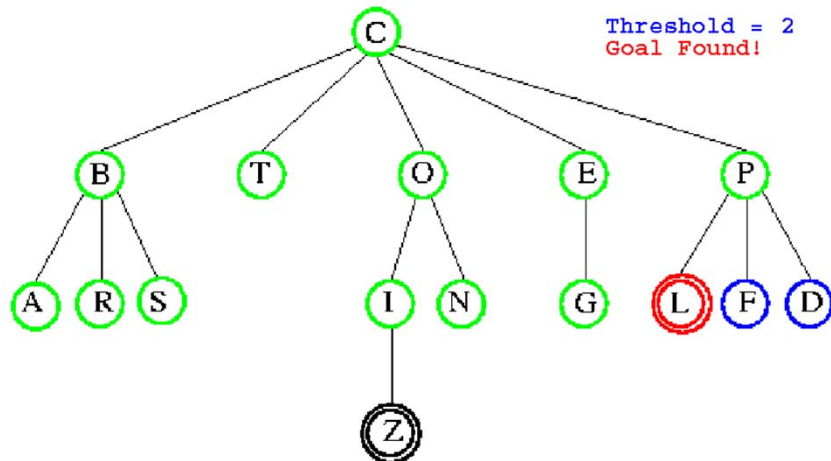
Iterative Deepening Search (IDS)

- DFS with a cutoff bound
- Usually backtrack when cannot add children
 - no children to add to front of queue, no next state on queue to pop
- Queueing-function is enqueue-at-front
- As before, but (expanded state) ONLY returns children with $\text{depth}(\text{children}) \leq \text{threshold}$
- This prevents DFS from going down infinite path
However, we may not find solution!
- Try one threshold - if no solution, increase threshold and start again from root

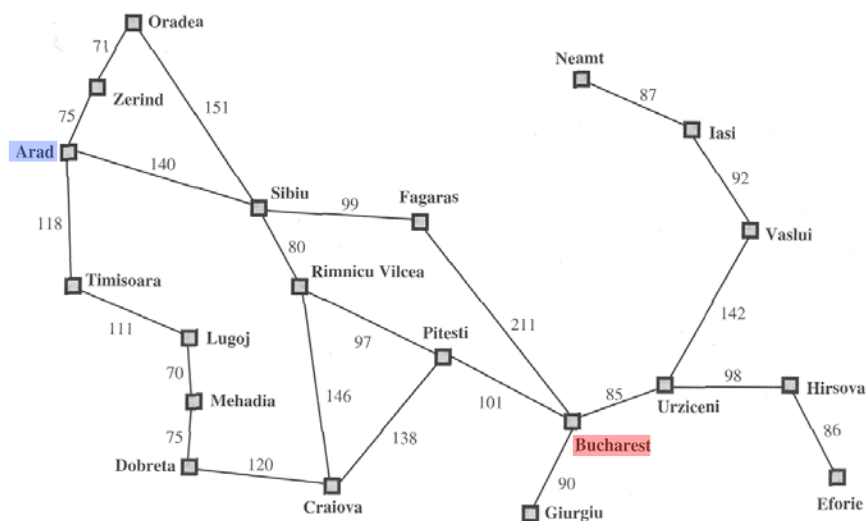
Example



IDS Example



Search Space

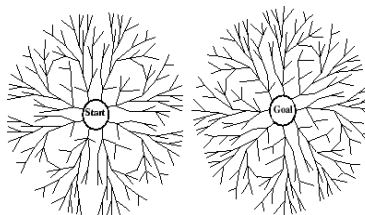


Analysis

- Repeat some work, but repeated work is only fraction of work on last (unrepeated) level
 $[1]+[1+b]+[1+b+b^2]+\dots+[1+b+b^2+\dots+b^d]$
- Repeated work is approximately $1/b$ of total work (negligible)
- Is there a better way to decide thresholds?
Yes!
 - An informed search like IDA*

Bidirectional Search

- Search forward from initial state to goal AND backward from goal to initial state
- Prune much of the search space
- Must consider:
 - Which goal state to use (set of goal states)?
 - How to determine when two searches overlap?
 - Which search to use for each direction (DFS probably not good choice)
 - Figure shows two breadth-first searches
 - Backwards search can be difficult for some problems



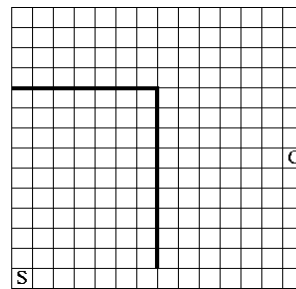
- Run time and space of bidirectional search using an uninformed searches is $O(b^{d/2})$.

Avoid Repeating States

- Speed search by avoiding state repetition
- Do not return to the parent state
 - e.g., in 8 puzzle problem, do not allow the Up move right after a Down move
- Do not create solution paths with cycles
- Do not generate any repeated states
 - need to store and check a potentially large number of states

Operator Ordering

- Imagine states are cells in a maze, and you can move N, E, S, or W.
- What would BFS do, assuming it always expanded the E child first, then N, then W, then S?
- What about DFS?
- What if the order changed to N, E, S, W, and loops are prevented?



Informed Search

- Besides not repeating states and operator ordering how else can we speed search?
- Use information in and about the domain to guide our search strategy.
 - Distance from the start
 - As time, cost, fuel, etc
 - Distance to the goal
 - If I go 'left' will I reach the goal faster than if I go 'right'?

Informed Search Techniques

- Best-First Search
- Hill Climbing
- Beam Search
- A*
- IDA*
- SMA*
- Many others....

Informed Searches

- We'll learn related terms such as heuristics, optimal solution, informedness, hill climbing problems (local maxima/minima, plateau, foothill problem) and admissibility.
- $g(n)$ = estimated cost from initial state to node n
 - Uniform cost search (branch-and-bound search) uses this measure.
- $h(n)$ = estimated (guessed) distance from node n to closest goal
 - The function h is our HEURISTIC.
- $f(n) = g(n) + h(n)$
 - The combination provides even more information as seen in A*
- Methods which use h to guide search are called heuristic search methods.

Best-First Search

- Queueing-function is sort-by- h
 - Similar to UCS but sorting on $h(n)$ instead of $g(n)$
- $h(n)$ is estimated distance remaining to the nearest goal state
- Best-First Search is only as good as its heuristic
- Example Heuristic: Manhattan Distance Function for 8 puzzle

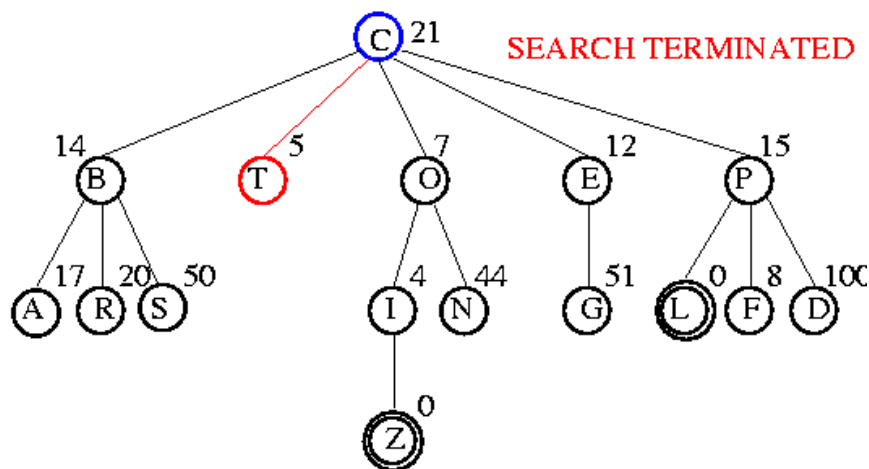
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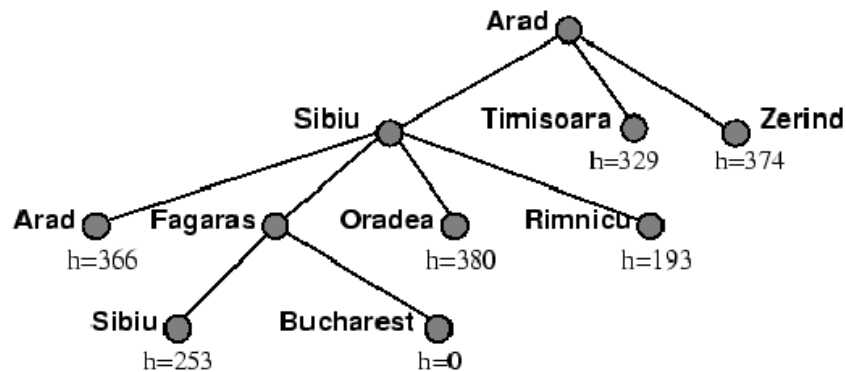
Hill Climbing (Greedy Search)

- Hill Climbing is also guided by h , but it saves time and space by only keeping the single best state seen so far.
- queueing-fn is (first (sort-by- h open))
- Best-First Search is tentative, Hill Climbing is irrevocable
- Advantage: much faster, takes less memory
If good heuristic, then Hill Climbing will lead immediately to the goal
- Disadvantage: if bad heuristic, may prune away all the goals
 - Gets stuck in the tree above

Hill Climbing Example

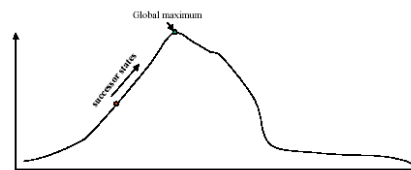


Example



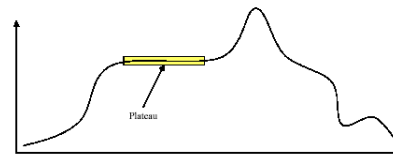
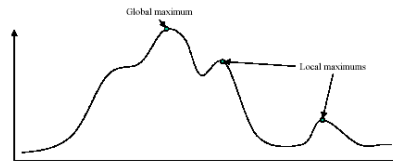
Hill Climbing Issues

- Also referred to as gradient descent (an iterative improvement algorithm)
- In optimization problems, the *path* is irrelevant, the goal state is the solution
- Start with a configuration (often a solution) and attempt to improve its quality
 - state space becomes set of "complete" configurations
 - goal is to find the *optimal* solution



Hill Climbing Issues

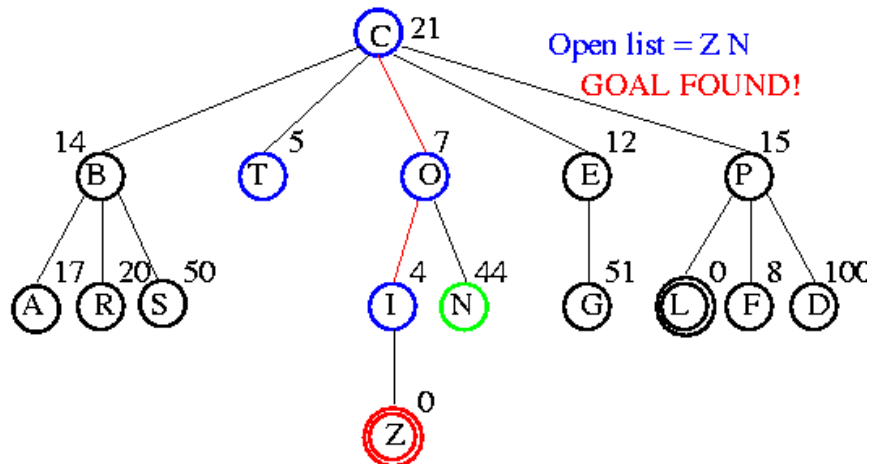
- Foothill problem / local maxima / local minima
- Plateau problem
- Both can be solved with random walk or more steps
 - We will revisit this when we discuss local search



Beam Search

- Keep n best alternatives.
- $\text{open_list} = (\text{first-}n (\text{sort-by-}h (\text{expand state})))$
- n is the “beam width”
 - $n = 1$, Hill Climbing
 - $n = \text{infinity}$, Best-First Search

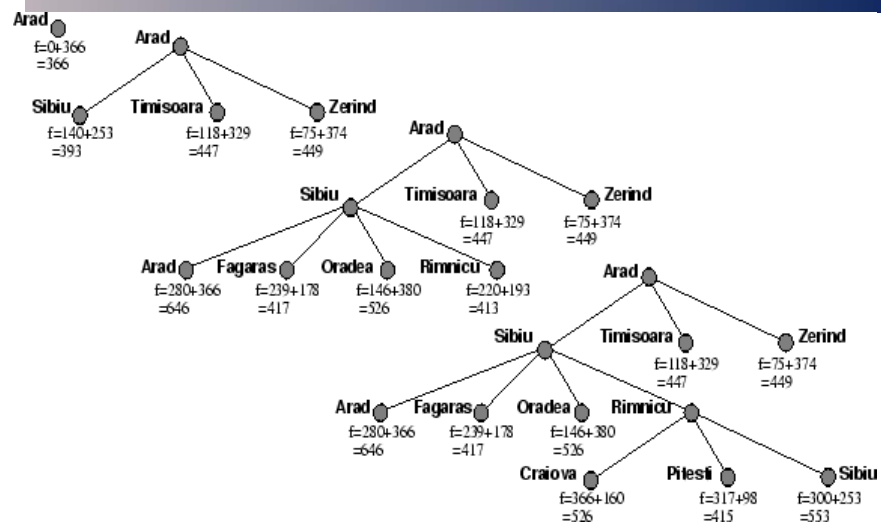
Beam Search Example



A* Search

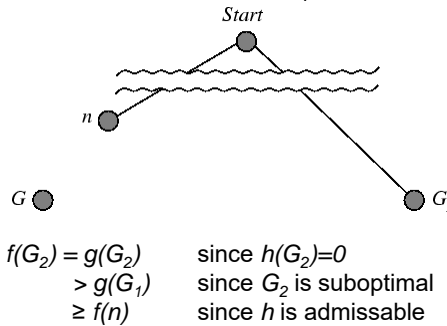
- Note that UCS and best-first search both improve the search
- UCS (B&B) makes sure that the solution path is low cost, and Best-First helps to find a solution quickly
- A* combines these approaches, using the evaluation function
- $f(n) = g(n) + h(n)$
- $g(n)$ - cost so far to reach n from initial state
- $h(n)$ - estimated cost to nearest goal state from n
- $f(n)$ - estimated total cost of path through n to goal
- The search is guided by the function f the open list is sort-by- f
- If a heuristic function is wrong (bad estimate), it either overestimates (guesses too high) or underestimates (guesses too low).
- For A*, overestimating is much worse than underestimating.

Example



Optimality of A*

- Suppose some suboptimal goal G_2 has been generated and is in the queue. Let n be an unexpanded node on a shortest path to an optimal goal G_1 .



- Since $f(G_2) > f(n)$, A* will never select G_2 for expansion

Suboptimal A*

- The heuristic function in A* is:

$$f(n) = g(n) + h(n)$$

- Instead where n is the current node, use the following formula

$$f(n) = g(n) + ((1 + e^{w(n)}) h(n))$$

where e (epsilon) is a constant between 0 and 1, and $w(n)$ is

$$w(n) = \begin{cases} h(n)/h(s), & \text{if } h(n) \leq h(s) \\ 1, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $h(s)$ is the initial estimate of the path from the start node s to the target node.

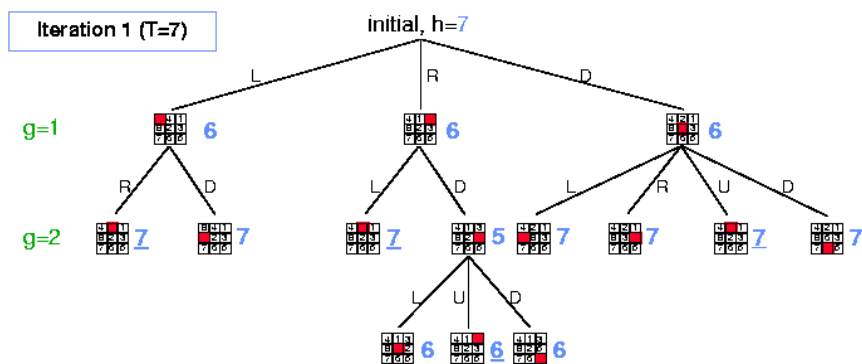
- Can control quality of the solution by decreasing epsilon. As epsilon gets larger the quality decays.

IDA*

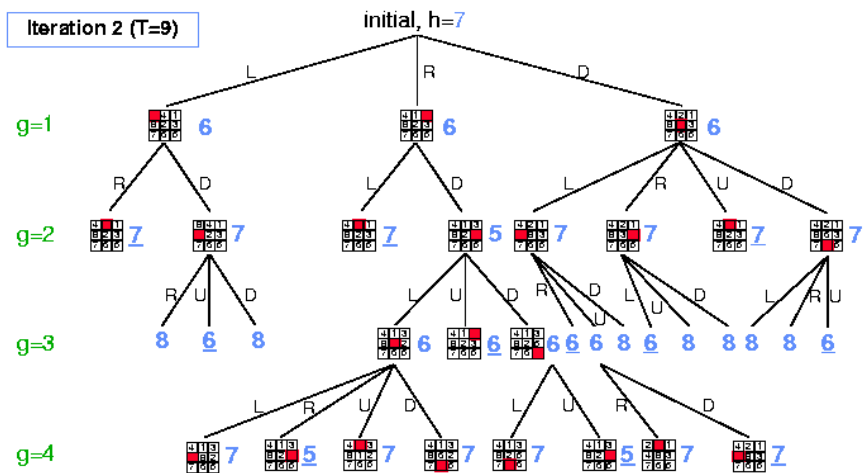
Korf, 1984

- Series of Depth-First Searches
 - Benefits from linear space requirement of DFS
- Place cutoff limit
 - Prevents infinite search down a particular branch
- Using A* guide to determine cost limit
 - Ensures optimal solution
 - queueing-fn is enqueue-at-front
 - expand (state) ONLY returns children if $f(\text{child}) \leq \text{threshold}$
- Just like iterative deepening search, except cost threshold instead of depth threshold
- Why? Guarantees optimal solution
- Threshold is initially $h(\text{root})$
- Next threshold is $f(\text{min_child})$, where min_child is cutoff child with minimum f value
- This conservative increase ensures cannot look past optimal cost solution

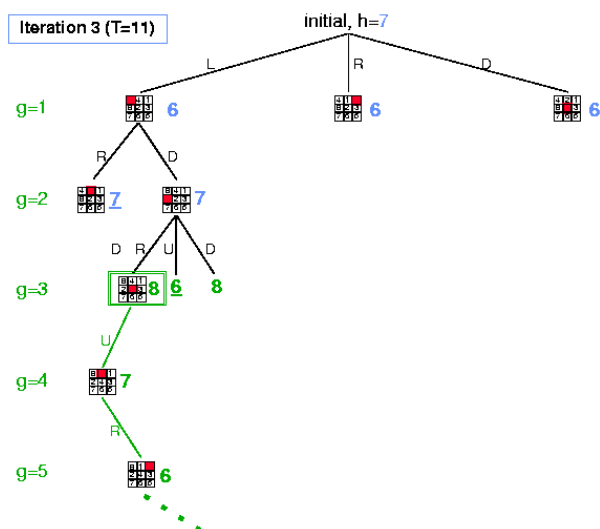
Eight Puzzle Example



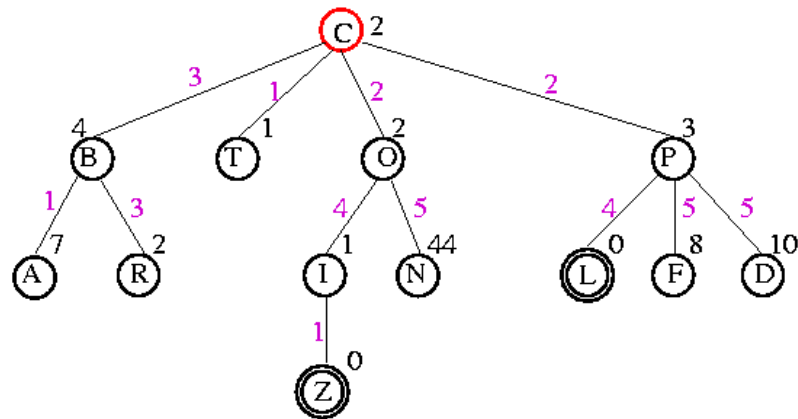
Eight Puzzle Example



Eight Puzzle Example



IDA* Example



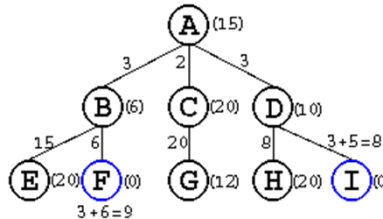
limit = $f(C) = 2$

Analysis

- Some redundant search, but small amount compared to work done on last iteration
- Dangerous if f values are very close
 - If threshold = 21.1 and next value is 21.2, probably only include 1 new node each iteration
- Time: $O(b^m)$ Space: $O(m)$
- SMA* search can be used to remember some nodes from one iteration to the next.

Heuristic Functions

- If a heuristic function is wrong (bad estimate), it either overestimates (guesses too high) or underestimates (guesses too low).
- For A*, overestimating is much worse than underestimating.



- Solution cost: ABF = 9 ADI = 8
- Q: Given that we are always going to use heuristic functions that never overestimate the distance to the goal, what type of heuristic function perform best?
 - Those that produce higher h values.

Reasons

- A higher h value means it is closer to the actual distance
- Any node n on the q with $f(n) < f^*(s)$ will eventually be selected for expansion by A*.
- This means if a LOT of nodes have a low underestimate, lower than the actual optimal cost, ALL of them will be expanded, resulting in increased search time and space.

Informedness

- If $h1$ and $h2$ never overestimate distance to the closest goal, and
- For all x , $h1(x) > h2(x)$, then $h1$ “dominates” $h2$
 $h1$ is “more informed” than $h2$
- For example, two heuristics for robot motion planning are:

$h1(x): |x_{goal} - x|$

$h2(x)$: Euclidean distance

$$\sqrt{(x_{goal} - x)^2 + (y_{goal} - y)^2}$$

Thus $h2$ dominates $h1$

Heuristics

- Which of the following heuristics are admissible for the eight puzzle problem?

5	4	
6	1	8
7	3	2

Start State

1	2	3
8		4
7	6	5

Goal State

- $h(n)$ = Number of tiles in wrong position in state n
 - $h(goal) = 0$
- $h(n)$ = Sum of Manhattan distance between each tile and goal location for the tile
 - $h(goal) = 0$
- $h1(S) = 7$, $h2(S) = 2+3+3+2+4+2+0+2 = 18$

Inventing Informed Heuristics

- Admissible heuristics can often be derived from an *exact* solution to a *relaxed* version of the problem
 - a *relaxed* problem is a problem with fewer restrictions
 - e.g., in the 8-puzzle, tiles may only move to the square with a blank, but we can relax this restriction to:
 - a tile can move *anywhere*
 - a tile can move to *any adjacent square*
 - the exact solutions to these two problems are $h1$ & $h2$ respectively
 - generally, the problem with the fewest (or least) relaxations gives a better heuristic

Typical Search Costs

- Typical search costs with $d = 14$:
 - IDS = 3,473,941 nodes
 - $A^*(h1) = 539$
 - $A^*(h2) = 113$
- Typical search costs with $d = 24$:
 - IDS = too many
 - $A^*(h1) = 39,135$
 - $A^*(h2) = 1,641$

Admissible Search Algorithms

- An algorithm is *admissible* if, for any graph, it always terminates in an optimal (least-cost) path from a node s to a goal node whenever a path from s to a goal node exists.
- A* is admissible if
 - All operators costs are > 0
 - All heuristic estimates are ≥ 0 , and
 - The heuristic function never overestimates

Informed Search

- More on Heuristics:
 - <http://theory.stanford.edu/~amitp/GameProgramming/Heuristics.html>

Comparison of Search Techniques

- Let b = branching factor
 m = depth of search space
 d = length of solution

	DFS	BFS	UCS	IDS	HC	Beam	A*	IDA*
Complete?	N	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y
Optimal?	N	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	Y
Heuristic	N	N	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y
Time	b^m	b^d	$b^{1+\lceil C^*/\epsilon \rceil}$	b^d	m	$m*n$	b^m	b^m
Space	m	b^d	b^m	bd	1	n	b^m	bm

Refinements to Search

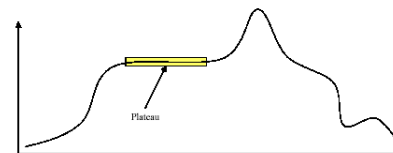
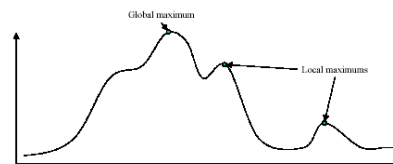
- Local Search
 - Hill Climbing and Local Beam Search
 - Simulated Annealing
 - Genetic Algorithms
 - Evolutionary Computation, Ant Colony Optimization, ...
- Online Search and Partially known or unknown environments
 - Real-Time A* (RTA*)
 - Learning Real-Time A* (LRTA*)
 - Lifetime Planning A*, Ant Colony Optimization, ...

Local Search

- Hill Climbing and Beam Search are local searches
 - As they make an action choice they become dedicated to that choice
- If we don't require a 'path' from the start to the goal. The use of local search provides a quick method for locating a solution
- Pay attention to the optimality and completeness
 - i.e. purely random action is complete and optimal but not efficient.

Hill Climbing Issues

- As mentioned before Hill Climbing and Beam Search suffer from plateau, ridges, and local minima problems
- This means that the solution is not guaranteed to be complete or optimal
- However, our odds can be improved...

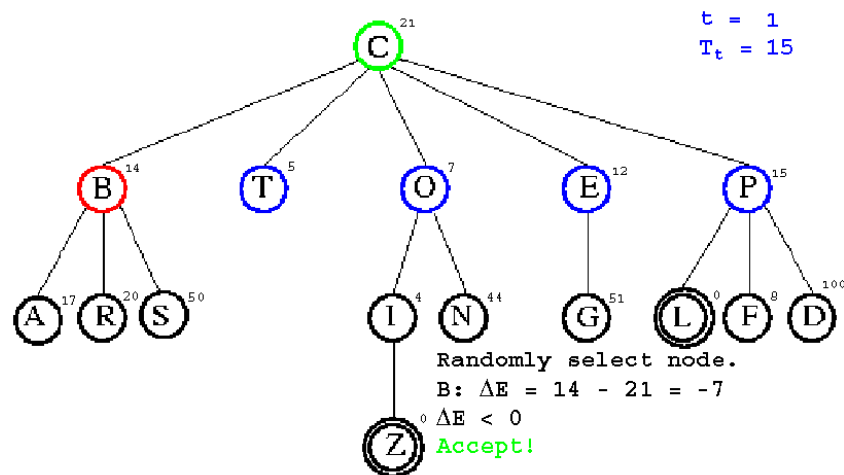


Simulated Annealing

- Idea: Inspired by **annealing** process of gradually cooling a liquid until it freezes
 - escape local maxima by allowing some “bad” moves *but gradually decreasing their size and frequency*
- Implementation
 - A temperature variable, T , is used to determine probability of “bad” moves
 - the probability of T decreases exponentially with ΔE , the badness of the move
 - if T is decreased slowly enough \Rightarrow always reach best state
 - the *schedule* determines the rate at which T is lowered
- Very similar to hill climbing, except the **temperature schedule**.
 - As long as the change in energy between the previous state and the current state is less than 0, take the move.
- When temperature is “high”, allow some random moves.
- When temperature “cools”, reduce probability of random move.

SA Example

$T_0 = 30$ and $\text{schedule}[t] \text{ or } T_t = (0.5)^t * T_0$



Simulated Annealing

- Visualization:
 - <http://toddwschneider.com/posts/traveling-salesman-with-simulated-annealing-r-and-shiny/>

Genetic Algorithms (GA)

- A genetic algorithm is an adaptation procedure based on the mechanics of natural genetics and natural selection.
- GAs have 2 essential components:
 1. Survival of the fittest
 2. Recombination
- chromosome = string
- gene = single bit or single subsequence in string, represents 1 attribute

Humans

- DNA made up of 4 nucleic acids (4-bit code)
- 48 chromosomes in humans, each contain 3 billion of these
- 4^3 billion combinations of bits
- Can random search find humans?
 - Assume only 0.1% genome must be discovered, $3(10^6)$ nucleotides
 - Assume parallel search with huge population, 10^{100} humans
 - Assume very short generation, 1 generation / second
 - $3.2(10^{107})$ individuals per year, but $10^{1.8(10^7)}$ alternatives
 - $10^{1.8 \cdot 10^6}$ years to generate human randomly
- Self-reproduction, self-repair, adaptability are the rule in natural systems, they hardly exist in the artificial world
- Finding and adopting nature's approach to computational design should unlock many doors in science and engineering

GAs Exhibit Search

- Each attempt a GA makes towards a solution is called a chromosome - a sequence of information that can be interpreted as a possible solution
- Typically, a chromosome is represented as a sequence of binary digits. Each digit is a gene
- A GA maintains a collection or population of chromosomes. Each chromosome in the population represents a different guess at the solution.

The GA Procedure

1. Initialize a population (of solution guesses).
2. Do (once for each generation):
 1. Evaluate each chromosome in the population using a fitness function .
 2. Apply GA operators to population to create new population.
3. Finish when solution is reached or number of cycles has reached allowable maximum.

Common Operators

- Reproduction
- Crossover
- Mutation

Example - Mastermind

- Opponent thinks up a five-color sequence:
- R Y B W B
- You make guesses, and the opponent tells you
- 1) How many colors are correct
- 2) How many colors are in right position

R R R B B	3 correct, 2 in position
R Y Y B B	4 correct, 3 in position
R Y B B B	4 correct, 4 in position
R Y B W B	SOLVED!!!

Reproduction

- Select x individuals according to their fitness values $f(x)$ (like beam search)
- Fittest individuals survive (and possibly mate) for next generation

Crossover

- Select two parents
- Select cross site
- Cut and splice pieces of one parent to those of other

```
11|111 → 11|000
00|000    00|111
```

Mutation

- With small probability, randomly alter 1 bit
- Minor operator
- An insurance policy against lost bits, pushes out of local minima

Population:

1 1 0 0 0

1 0 1 0 0

1 0 0 1 0

0 1 0 0 0

Goal:

0 1 1 1 1

Mutation needed to find the goal

Example

- GA codes “guesses” as binary numbers (vector)
- Score is the number of digits that match solution

Solution = 001010

Guess	Score
A) 010101	1
B) 111101	1
C) 011011	3
D) 101100	3

- To “evolve” the correct answer, delete low scorers (A and B) and subject high scorers to “genetic operators”. In particular, produce crossover offspring of C and D at two points.

Example

Crossover	Offspring	Score
-----------	-----------	-------

C) 01:1011	E) 01:1100	1
D) 10:1100	F) 10:1011	3

C) 0110:11	G) 0110:00	4
D) 1011:00	H) 1011:11	3

Crossover	Offspring	Score
-----------	-----------	-------

F) 1:01011	I) 1:11000	1
G) 0:11000	J) 0:01011	3

F) 101:011	K) 101:000	4
G) 011:000	L) 011:011	4

Crossover	Offspring	Score
-----------	-----------	-------

J) 0010:11	M) 0010:00	5
K) 1010:00	N) 1010:11	4

J) 00101:1	O) 00101:0	6	— SOLVED!!!
K) 10100:0	P) 10100:1	3	

Issues with GAs

- How to select original population?
- How to handle non-binary solution types?
- What should the size of the population be?
- What is the optimal mutation rate?
- How are mates picked for crossover?
- How is an individual scored?
- Can any chromosome appear more than once in a population?
- Local minima?
- Multiple goals?
- Parallel algorithms?

GA Additional Operators

- Inversion
 - Invert selected subsequence
 $1\ 0\ |\ 1\ 1\ 0\ |\ 1\ 1 \rightarrow 1\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 1$
- K-point Crossover
 - Pick k random splice points to crossover parents.
k=3
$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 1\ 1\ |\ 1\ 1\ 1\ |\ 1\ 1\ |\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 1 & \longrightarrow & 1\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0 \\ 0\ 0\ |\ 0\ 0\ 0\ |\ 0\ 0\ |\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0 & & 0\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 1 \end{array}$$

Parent Selection: Biased Roulette Wheel

- For each hypothesis we want to test, spin the roulette wheel to determine the guess

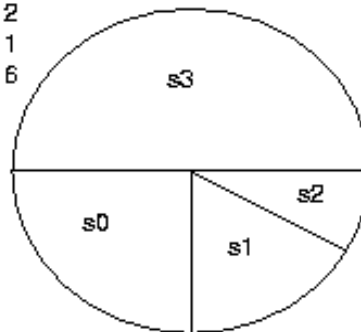
Spin a pointer roulette wheel once

$f_0 = 3$

$f_1 = 2$

$f_2 = 1$

$f_3 = 6$



Parent Selection: Additional Selection Criteria

- Elitism
 - Some of the best chromosomes from previous generation replace some of the worst chromosomes from current generation.
- Diversity Measure
 - Fitness ignores diversity.
 - As a result, populations tend to become uniform.
 - Rank-space method
 - Sort population by sum of fitness rank and diversity rank
 - Diversity rank is the result of sorting by the function $1/d^2$

How to use Local Search techniques for path problems

Representation:

Sequence of directions: N, S, E, W

Solution: Gene that leads from S to G

At each decision point in maze, look up next direction.

Path to goal: W

Fitness Function
+ # steps

Note: make gen

0) EWWNNEW

f=31 (1,1) 15 moves

1) WSWNEESSESWNENE

f=37

2) SNEESEWWNNSEWN

f=37

3) EEWWSNNSSENWENW

f=31

4) WEEWSENWSWWSNEN

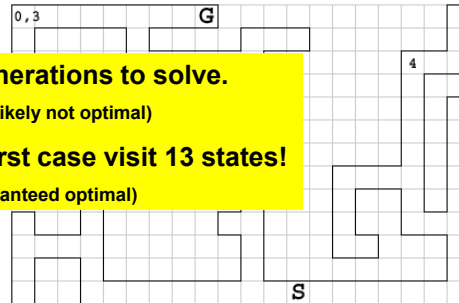
f=37

GA takes 40 generations to solve.

(and is most likely not optimal)

Heuristic search worst case visit 13 states!

(and is guaranteed optimal)



GA Applications

- Control
- Optimization
- Graphic Animation
- Scheduling
- Classifier Systems (load balancing)

■ Illustration:

- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=uwz8JzrEwWY>

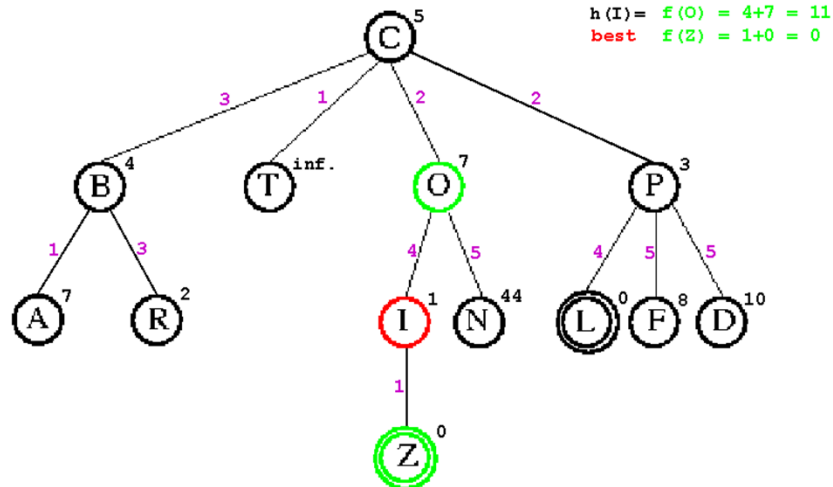
Online and Anytime Search

- RTA* and LRTA* are both based on A* $f(n)$ heuristic, but function in a real-time online mode.
- Both algorithms are considered 'Anytime Algorithms' as they can return the best solution found so far after any amount of search.

RTA* Search

- Alters $g(n)$ to be from the current search location (s_t) instead of the initial condition.
- Like IDA*, RTA* will search to a set depth, and return the best action to move to state s_{t+1} .
- During the move execution, RTA* updates the heuristic value of the current state $h(s_t)$ with the value of the second best $f(s_{t+1})$.

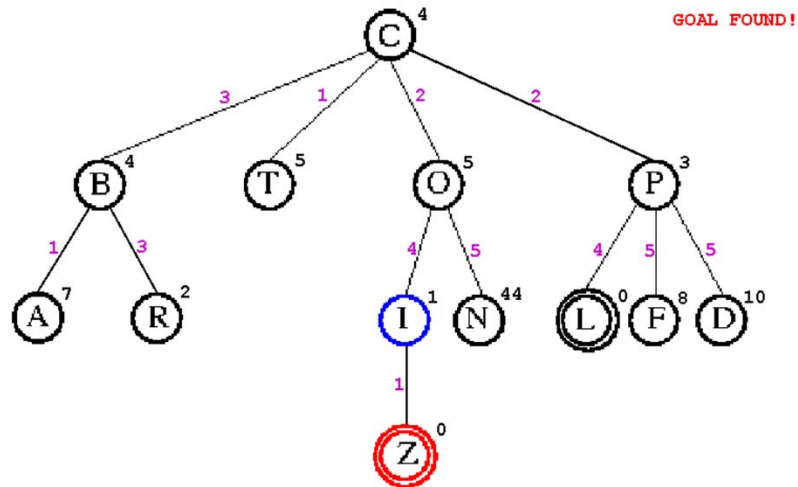
RTA* Example



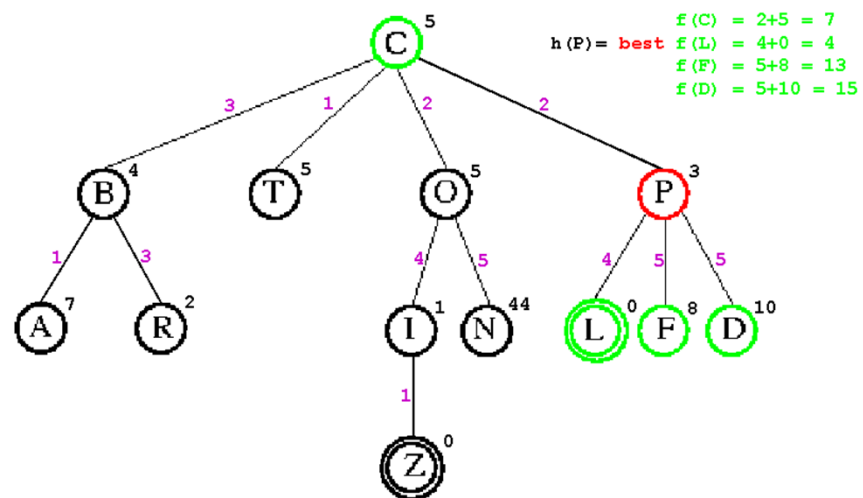
LRTA* Search

- Can the new $h(n)$ values from RTA* be used for a later search?
 - No, the new $h(n)$ values now overestimate the distance to the goal.
 - However, if we store the best $f(n)$ as $h(n)$ instead of the 2nd best, we can learn the optimal heuristic values.

LRTA* Example



LRTA*: 2nd Pass



Stochastic Anytime Algorithms

- Stochastic anytime algorithms offer approximate solutions, returning the best solution found so far after a set amount of search
- Based on Monte Carlo techniques
 - Action selection
 - Uniform sampling
 - Heuristic/progressive bias
 - Selective bias
 - Combinations

Upper Confidence Bounds (UCB)

- Given N machines which should we play?
- UCB1
 - Play action j where j is:
$$\max_j \bar{x}_j + \sqrt{\frac{2 \ln n}{n_j}}$$
 - \bar{x}_j average reward of j
 - n_j number of plays of j
 - n total plays

Rollout Based Monte Carlo Search

- MC Search is DFS based and represented recursively

```
(real, action) search(state, depth)
  if (goal state)                ; Test to see if current state
                                ; satisfies the goal
    then SUCCEED                 ; Search is complete
  if (leaf)
    then return Evaluation(state)
  action = selectAction(state)
  nextstate = selectChild(state, action)
  q = reward +  $\gamma$  search(nextstate, depth+1)
  Updatevalue(state, action, q depth)
  return q, action
```

- selectAction uses UCB1 strategy
- In non-MDP(Markov decision process) problems, reward is not used
- γ is a decay function $0 < \gamma < 1$
- Evaluation can be based on state or the search tree (Realization Probability Search (RPS))

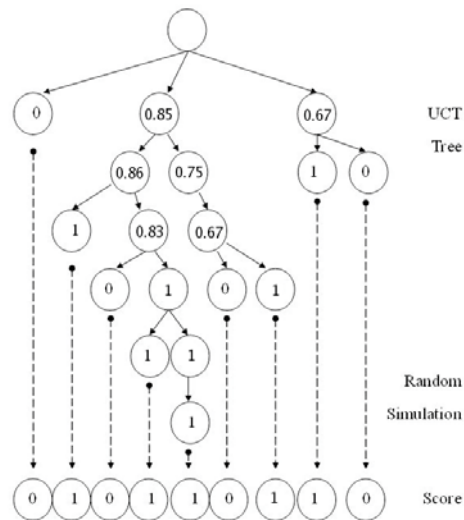
UCB Applied to Trees (UCT)

- UCB-based rollout-based Monte Carlo search uses the same action selection values at each state in the search tree
 - Video explaining UCB concept: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=W1p76sq15a8>
- UCT maintains a state and action value for each state visited in the tree
- Alternative action selection ($C_p > 0$)

$$\boxed{\text{Favors actions that looked good historically}} \rightarrow \max_j \bar{x}_j + 2C_p \sqrt{\frac{\ln n}{n_j}} \leftarrow \boxed{\text{Actions get an exploration bonus that grows w/ } \ln(n)}$$

Source: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1HV6uENCs9o>

UCT Example



UCT Enhancements

- There is no independence between arms vertically and horizontally, this improves performance when n is small
 - Average results from neighbors (add the term)

$$\frac{1}{|N_i|} \sum_{j \in N} \bar{x}_j$$

- Use ancestor results; set a c_i to replace C_p for each move according to \bar{x}_i of its parent

Search Extensions

- Uncertain actions and/or domain information
- Sensing actions
- Conditional sequences
- Policies (action sequence for every possible state in the domain)

Search

- Search Space
- Uninformed Search
 - DFS, BFS, IDS
- Informed Search
 - Hill Climbing, Beam Search, BFS, A*, IDA*, SMA*
- Local Search and Optimization
 - Hill Climbing, Simulated Annealing, GA
- Online Search and Unknown Environments
 - RTA*, LRTA*

Next Time

- Constraint Satisfaction Problems (CSPs)
 - We expand on what we know about search to problems in which information about the state speeds location of a solution by reducing the number of states we must visit.